

# ConTEXt

reference manual

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# Preface

This manual is about ConT<sub>E</sub>Xt, a system for typesetting documents. Central element in this name is the word T<sub>E</sub>X because the typographical programming language T<sub>E</sub>X is the base for ConT<sub>E</sub>Xt.

People who are used to T<sub>E</sub>X will probably identify this manual as a T<sub>E</sub>X document. They recognise the use of `\`. One may also notice that the way paragraphs are broken into lines is often better than in the average typesetting system.

In this manual we will not discuss T<sub>E</sub>X in depth because highly recommended books on T<sub>E</sub>X already exist. We would like to mention:

1. the unsurpassed *The T<sub>E</sub>X Book* by Donald E. Knuth, the source of all knowledge and T<sub>E</sub>Xnical inspiration,
2. the convenient *T<sub>E</sub>X by Topic* by Victor Eijkhout, the reference manual for T<sub>E</sub>X programmers, and
3. the recommended *The Beginners Book of T<sub>E</sub>X* by Silvio Levy and Raymond Seroul, the book that turns every beginner into an expert

For newcomers we advise (3), for the curious (1), and for the impatient (2). ConT<sub>E</sub>Xt users will not necessarily need this literature, unless one wants to program in T<sub>E</sub>X, uses special characters, or has to typeset math. Again, we would advise (3).

You may ask yourself if T<sub>E</sub>X is not just one of the many typesetting systems to produce documents. That is not so. While many systems in eighties and nineties pretended to deliver perfect typographical output, T<sub>E</sub>X still does a pretty good job compared to others.

T<sub>E</sub>X is not easy to work with, but when one gets accustomed to it, we hope you will appreciate its features,

Hans Hagen, 1996–2002



# 1 Introduction

## 1.1 T<sub>E</sub>X

T<sub>E</sub>X was developed at Stanford University during the seventies. The designer, developer and spiritual father of T<sub>E</sub>X is Donald E. Knuth. Knuth developed T<sub>E</sub>X to typeset his own publications and to give an example of a systematically developed and annotated program.

The T<sub>E</sub>X project was supported by the American Mathematical Society and resulted in the programming language and program T<sub>E</sub>X, the programming language and program MetaFont, the Computer Modern typefaces and a number of tools and publications.

T<sub>E</sub>X is used worldwide, supports many languages, runs on almost every platform and is stable since 1982, which is rather unique in today's information technology.

T<sub>E</sub>X is a batch-oriented typesetting system. This means that the complete text is processed from beginning to end during which typesetting commands are interpreted. Because you tell your typesetting intentions to T<sub>E</sub>X, the system can also be qualified as an intentional typesetting system. In most documents one can stick to commands that define the structure and leave the typographic details to T<sub>E</sub>X. One can concentrate on the content, instead of on makeup; the author can concentrate on his reader and his intentions with the text. We prefer such an intentional system over a page-oriented system, especially in situations where you have to process bulky documents with regularly changing content. Furthermore an intentional typesetting system is rather flexible and makes it possible to change layout properties depending on its application. Thus, the same text source can be used to produce various results, for example, both on-line and printed output. It can also cooperate quite well with other text-processing programs and tools.

Developed in the early 1980s, L<sub>A</sub>T<sub>E</sub>X was intended to provide a high-level language that accesses the power of T<sub>E</sub>X. L<sub>A</sub>T<sub>E</sub>X essentially comprises a collection of T<sub>E</sub>X macros and a program to process L<sub>A</sub>T<sub>E</sub>X documents. Because the T<sub>E</sub>X formatting commands are very low-level, it is usually much simpler for end-users to use L<sub>A</sub>T<sub>E</sub>X. L<sub>A</sub>T<sub>E</sub>X is based on the idea that it is better to leave document design to document designers, and to let authors get on with writing documents.

ConT<sub>E</sub>Xt is a document markup language and document preparation system also based on the T<sub>E</sub>X typesetting system. It was designed with the same general-purpose aims as L<sub>A</sub>T<sub>E</sub>X of providing an easy to use interface to the high quality typesetting engine provided by T<sub>E</sub>X. However, while L<sub>A</sub>T<sub>E</sub>X insulates the writer from typographical details, ConT<sub>E</sub>Xt takes a complementary approach by providing structured interfaces for handling typography, including extensive support for colors, backgrounds, hyperlinks, presentations, figure-text integration, and conditional compilation. It gives the user extensive control over formatting while making it easy to create new layouts and styles without learning the T<sub>E</sub>X macro language. ConT<sub>E</sub>Xt's unified design avoids the package clashes that can happen with L<sub>A</sub>T<sub>E</sub>X. ConT<sub>E</sub>Xt also attempts to more closely respect the syntactical style of plain T<sub>E</sub>X.

## 1.2 ConT<sub>E</sub>Xt

The development of ConT<sub>E</sub>Xt started in 1990. A number of T<sub>E</sub>X based macro packages had been used to our satisfaction. However, the non-technical users at our company were not accustomed to rather complex and, in particular, non-Dutch interfaces. For this reason we initiated the development of ConT<sub>E</sub>Xt with a parameter driven interface and commands that are easy to understand. Initially the user interface was only available in Dutch.

The functionality of ConT<sub>E</sub>Xt was developed during the production of many complex educational materials, workplace manuals and handbooks. In 1994 the package was stable enough to warrant a Dutch user manual. Over the years many new features and a multi-lingual interface have been added (currently English, German, French, Italian, Romanian? . . . interfaces are supported). Though ConT<sub>E</sub>Xt has matured and is as (un)stable as any other macro package, there are still a great number of wishes and development remains active. These will be implemented in the spirit of the existing ConT<sub>E</sub>Xt commands.

**TODO:** Add some text about recent developments, especially the split between mkii and mkiv

## 1.3 Commands

A ConT<sub>E</sub>Xt document is normally coded in utf or another plain text encoding like ISO Latin1. Any preferred text editor may be used. Inside such a file, the actual document text is interspersed with ConT<sub>E</sub>Xt commands. These commands tell the system how the text should be typeset. A ConT<sub>E</sub>Xt command begins with a backslash (`\`). An example of a command is `\italic`. Most of the time a command does something with the text that comes after the command. The text after the command `\italic` will be typeset *text in italic*.

When you use a command like `\italic` you are acting as a typesetter, and when you are writing paragraphs you are acting as an author. Typesetting and writing are conflicting activities; as an author you would probably rather spend as little time as possible typesetting. When you are actually writing text and you have to indicate that something special has to happen with the text, it is therefore best to use generic commands than specific typesetting commands. An example of such a generic command is `\em` (*emphasis*). By using `\em` instead of `\italic`, you enable the typesetter (who could also be you) to change the typeset result without him or her having to alter the text.

A  $\text{\TeX}$  user normally speaks of macros instead of commands. A macro is a (normally small) program. Although this manual uses both ‘command’ and ‘macro’, we will try consistently use the word command for users and macro for programmers. A collection of macros is called a macro package.

A command is often followed by setups and/or argument text. Setups are placed between brackets (`[]`), are optional and there may be more than one set. The scope or range of the command (the text acted upon) is placed between curly brackets (`{}`); there may be more than one of those as well. (Note that the word ‘argument’ in this manual is sometimes used both for setups and for the text acted upon.)

An example of a command with setups and an argument text is

```
\framed[width=3cm,height=1cm]{that's it}
```

When this input is processed by  $\text{\ConTeXt}$ , the result will look like this:

that's it

Alternatively, using the default setups:

```
\framed{that's it}
```

that's it

Setups in  $\text{\ConTeXt}$  come in two possible formats. First, there can be a list of comma-separated key–value pairs like we saw already

```
\setupsomething [variable=value, variable=value, ...]
```

Second, there can be a comma-separated list of just values

```
\setupsomething [option, option, ...]
```

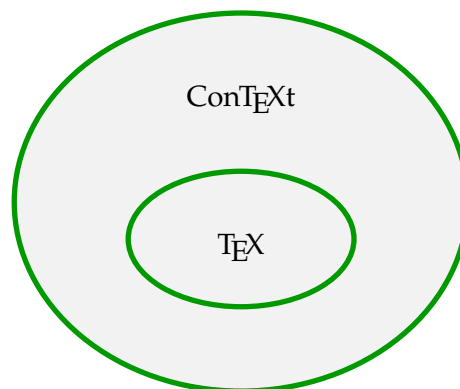
In both cases the setups are placed between `[]`. Spaces, tabs and even a newline between the command and the opening `[` or after any of the separation commas are ignored. But multiple newlines are disallowed, and whitespace before commas, around the equals sign and before the closing `]` is significant.

Some practical examples of correct command invocations are:

```
\setupwhitespace [big]
\setupitemize [packed, columns]
\setuplayout [backspace=4cm,
             topspace=2.5cm]
```

Many typographical operations are performed on a text that is enclosed within a start–stop construction:

```
\startsomething
```



**Figure 1.1**

```
.....
\stopsomething
```

where something indicates a predefined keyword such as narrower. Often, keywords or key-value pairs can be passed, that inform ConTEXt of the user's wishes, like

```
\startnarrower[2*left,right]
.....
\stopnarrower
```

or

```
\startitemize[n,broad,packed]
\item .....
\item .....
\stopitemize
```

The simplest ConTEXt document is

```
\starttext
Hello World!
\stoptext
```

## 1.4 Running ConTEXt

For basic usage, running

```
context myfile
```

or

```
context myfile.tex
```

is sufficient to convert your ConTEXt source in `myfile.tex` to the pdf file `myfile.pdf`. Several command line options control the ConTEXt run. For a complete list of options, you can run

```
context --help
```

Here some examples:

option	meaning
<code>--result=name</code>	rename the resulting output to the given name
<code>--mode=list</code>	enable given the modes (conditional processing in styles
<code>--once</code>	only run once (no multipass data file is produced)
<code>--nonstopmode</code>	run without stopping
<code>--version</code>	report installed context version

**TODO:** Maybe some more explanations about `texexec` and `context` here, maybe from a text editor or environment like `texworks`.

## 1.5 Advanced commands

There are also commands that are used to define new commands. For example:

```
\definesomething[name]
```

defines a something command called \name. For example,

```
\definehead[section]
```

defines a head command called \section. The name can be arbitrarily chosen by the user; but the type of command must be a predefined one.

Sometimes a definition inherits its characteristics from another (existing) one. In those situations a definition looks like:

```
\definesomething[clone][original]
```

In many cases one can also pass settings to these commands. In that case a definition looks like:

```
\definesomething[name][variable=value,...]
```

These setups can also be defined in a later stage with:

```
\setupsomething[name][variable=value,...]
```

An example of such a name coupled definition and setup is:

```
\definehead[section][chapter]
\setuphead[section][textstyle=bold]
```

This defines a head command called \section, which inherits characteristics from the existing head command called \chapter. It then defines setups for the new \section command.

The alternatives shown above are the most common appearances of the commands. But there are exceptions:

```
\defineenumeration[Question][location=inmargin]
\useexternalfigure[Logo][FIG-0001][width=4cm]
\definehead[Procedure][section]
\setuphead[Procedure][textstyle=slanted]
```

After the first command the newly defined command \Question is available which we can use for numbered questions and to place numbers in the margin. With the second command we define a picture named Logo, to be called later, that is scaled to a width of 4cm. After the third command a new command \Procedure is available that inherits its characteristics from the predefined command \section. The last command alters the characteristics of the newly defined head. Later we will discuss these commands in more detail.

We use begin-end constructions to mark textblocks. Marked textblocks can be typeset, hidden, replaced or called up at other locations in the document.

```
\beginsomething
.....
\endsomething
```

These commands enable the author to type questions and answers in one location and place them at another location in the document. Answers could be placed at the end of a chapter with:

```

\defineblock[Answer]
\setupblock[Answer][bodyfont=small]
\hideblocks[Answer]
.....
\chapter{.....}
.....
\beginAnswer
.....
\endAnswer
.....

```

In this case answers will be typeset in a smaller bodyfont size, but only when asked for. They are hidden by default, but stored in such a way, that they can later be typeset.

Commands come in many formats. Take for example:

```

\placefigure
  [left]
  [fig:logo]
  {This is an example of a logo.}
  {\externalfigure[Logo]}

```

This command places a picture at the left hand side of a text while the text flows around the picture. The picture has a reference `fig:logo`, i.e. a logical name. The third argument contains the title and the fourth calls the picture. In this case the picture is a figure defined earlier as `Logo`. **Figure 1.1** is typeset this way.

The last example has optional arguments between optional (`[]`). Many commands have optional arguments. In case these optional arguments are left out the default values become operative.

You may have noticed that you are allowed to have plenty of whitespace in your ascii text (within certain limits). In our opinion, this increases readability considerably, but you may of course decide to format your document otherwise. When the `ConTEXT` commands in this manual are discussed they are displayed in the following way:

```

\setupfootertexts [.1.] [.2.] [.3.]
                   OPTIONAL
1  text margin edge
2  TEXT date MARK pagenumber
3  TEXT date MARK pagenumber

```

The command `\setupfootertexts`, which we will discuss in detail in a later chapter, has three (or more) setup arguments, of which the first is optional. Optional arguments are displayed with the word `OPTIONAL` below the brackets. Multiple alternative values are listed for each argument; the first argument can either `[text]`, `[margin]`, or `[edge]`. It defaults to `[text]`. Default values are underlined and placeholders (as opposed to literal keywords) are typeset in `UPPER-CASE`. In this example, `TEXT` means that you can provide any footer text. `ConTEXT` is able to keep track of the status of information on the page, for instance the name of the current chapter. We call this kind of information `MARK`, so the command `\setupfootertexts` accepts references to

marks, like those belonging to sectioning commands: `chapter`, `section`, etc. The argument `date` results in the current system date.

When the setup of some commands are displayed you will notice a ◀▶ in the right hand top corner of the frame. This indicates that this command has a special meaning in interactive or screen documents. Commands for the interactive mode only show solid arrows, commands with an additional functionality show gray arrows.

## 1.6 Programs

`TeX` does a lot of text manipulations during document processing. However, some manipulations are carried out by `TeXutil`. This program helps `TeX` to produce registers, lists, tables of contents, tables of formulas, pictures etc. This program is implemented as a Perl script.

Document processing can best be done with `TeXexec`. This Perl script enables the user to use different processing modes and to produce different output formats. It also keeps track of changes and processes the files as many times as needed to get the references and lists right.

## 1.7 Files

**TODO:** Where is a better place to write about `TABLE`? The old paragraph:

`ConTeXt` relies on plain `TeX`. Plain `TeX`, `ConTeXt` and a third package `TABLE` are brought together in a so called format file. `TABLE` is a powerful package for typesetting tables. A format file can be recognized by its suffix `.fmt`. `TeX` can load format files rather fast and efficiently.

`ConTeXt` is used with utf-8 source files. utf-8 is a character encoding, that can represent every character in the Unicode character set, and that is backward-compatible with ascii. The utf-8 file with the prescribed extension `tex` is processed by `ConTeXt`. During this process `ConTeXt` produces a pdf (Portable Document Format) output file. pdf files are of high graphical quality and are also interactive (hyperlinked).

With the command

```
\enableregime[encoding]
```

`ConTeXt` supports also other character encodings such as ISO Latin1.

It is highly recommended, that all input files, i.e. the `ConTeXt` source and other included files such as image files, have only the letters a–z, digits and dashes in their names, that is in the names of their full paths, otherwise you can easily get into problems. Especially the characters `*`, `?`, the space character and some more are known to cause problems, sometimes because of `ConTeXt` itself (internal pattern matching), sometimes because of issues with the underlying operating system. The dot `.` is somewhat special: it's used to separate the suffix from the rest of the file-name, but at other places in the path it can cause trouble just like `'*' or '?'`.

## 1.8 Texts

### 1.8.1 Characters

A traditional T<sub>E</sub>X source file contains only ascii characters. Higher ascii values to produce characters like  $\ddot{e}$ ,  $\hat{o}$  and  $\tilde{n}$  can also be used in this version of T<sub>E</sub>X (in preference to the traditional mechanism of escaped sequences such as `\"e`, `\^o`, etc.). However, some characters in T<sub>E</sub>X have special meanings (such as `%`, `$`, and of course `{}`). Each of these characters can be typeset by putting a `\` in front of it. A `%` is obtained by typing `\%` (if one would type only a `%` the result would be undesirable because T<sub>E</sub>X interprets text after a `%` as comment that should not be processed), a `$` is produced by `\$` (a `$` without a `\` indicates the beginning of the mathematical mode), a `#` is displayed by `\#` (in T<sub>E</sub>X, `#` stands for arguments in macro definitions), and a pair of `{` and `}` without leading backslashes define the opening and closing of a group. Finally the backslash `\` itself is entered by typing `\backslash`.

**TODO:** What about other 'reserved' symbols? Need to say something about `\enableregime[utf]` in `mkii`.

### 1.8.2 Paragraphs

T<sub>E</sub>X performs its operations mostly upon the text element *paragraph*. A paragraph is ended by `\par` or, preferably, by an empty line. Empty lines in an ascii text are preferred because of readability of the source.

### 1.8.3 Boxes

In this manual we will sometimes talk about boxes. Boxes are the building blocks of T<sub>E</sub>X. T<sub>E</sub>X builds a page in horizontal and vertical boxes. Every character is a box, a word is also a box built out of a number of boxes, a line is . . .

When T<sub>E</sub>X is processing a document many messages may occur on the screen. Some of these messages are warnings related to overfull or underfull boxes. Horizontal and vertical boxes can be typeset by the T<sub>E</sub>X commands `\hbox` and `\vbox`. Displacements can be achieved by using `\hskip` and `\vskip`. It does not hurt to know a bit about the basics of T<sub>E</sub>X, because that way one can far more easily write his or her own alternatives to, for instance, chapter headers.

### 1.8.4 Fonts

T<sub>E</sub>X is one of the few typesetting systems that does mathematical typesetting right. To do so T<sub>E</sub>X needs a complete font-family. This means not only the characters and numbers but also full mathematical symbols. Complete fontfamilies are Computer Modern Roman and Lucida Bright. Both come in serif and sans serif characters and a monospaced character is also available. Other fontfamilies are available, more or less complete.

### 1.8.5 Dimensions

Characters have dimensions. Spacing between words and lines have dimensions. These dimensions are related to one of the units of [table 1.1](#). For example the linespacing in this document is 13.8292pt.



dimension	meaning	equivalent
pt	point	$72.27pt = 1in$
bp	big point	$72bp = 1in$
pc	pica	$1pc = 12pt$
in	inch	$1in = 2.54cm$
cm	centimeter	$2.54cm = 1in$
mm	millimeter	$10mm = 1cm$
dd	didot point	$1157dd = 1238pt$
cc	cicero	$1cc = 12dd$
sp	scaled point	$65536sp = 1pt$

**Table 1.1** Dimensions in  $\text{\TeX}$ .

We will often specify layout dimensions in points or centimeters or millimeters. A point is about  $0.3515\text{ mm}$  is an American publishing standard. The European Didot point, equivalent to  $0.254 \cdot 1238/1157/72.27 = 0.376065\text{ mm}$ , is about 7% larger.

Next to the mentioned dimension  $\text{\TeX}$  also uses `em` and `ex`. Both are font dependant. An `ex` has the height of an `x`, and an `em` the width of an `M`. In the Computer Modern Roman typefaces, numbers have a width of  $1/2em$ , while a `—` (`---`) is one `em`.

### 1.8.6 Error messages

While processing a document,  $\text{\TeX}$  generates status messages (what  $\text{\TeX}$  is doing), warning messages (what  $\text{\TeX}$  could do better) and error messages (what  $\text{\TeX}$  considers wrong). An error message is always followed by a `halt` and processing will be stopped. A `linenumber` and a `?` will appear on screen. At the commandline you can type `H` for help and the available commands will be displayed.

Some fatal errors will lead to an `*` on the screen.  $\text{\TeX}$  is expecting a filename and you have to quit processing. You can type `stop` or `exit` and if that doesn't work you can always try `ctrl-z` or `ctrl-c`.

## 1.9 Version numbers

$\text{\TeX}$  was frozen in 1982. This meant that no functionality would be added from that time on. However, exceptions were made for the processing of multi-language documents, the use of 8-bits `ascii`-values and composed characters. Additionally some bugs were corrected. At this moment  $\text{\TeX}$  version 3.141592 is being used. The ultimate  $\text{\TeX}$  version number will be  $\pi$ , while MetaFont will become the Euler number  $e$ .

`Con $\text{\TeX}$ t` can handle both  $\varepsilon\text{\TeX}$  and `pdf $\text{\TeX}$` , which are extensions to  $\text{\TeX}$ . Both are still under development so we suggest using the latest versions available. This manual was typeset using `pdf $\text{\TeX}$` , with  $\varepsilon\text{\TeX}$  version 2.2 and `pdf $\text{\TeX}$`  version 2000.

`Con $\text{\TeX}$ t` is still under development. Macros are continually improved in terms of functionality and processing speed. Improvements are also made within existing macros. For example the possibility to produce highly interactive pdf documents has altered some low-level functionality of `Con $\text{\TeX}$ t` but did not alter the interface. We hope that in due time `Con $\text{\TeX}$ t` will be a

reasonable complete document processing system, and we hope that this manual shows much of its possibilities. This document was processed with ConT<sub>E</sub>Xt version 2013.09.21 13:53.

## 1.10 Top ten

A novice user might be shooed away by the number of ConT<sub>E</sub>Xt commands. Satisfying results can be obtained by only using the next ten groups of commands:

1. `\starttext, \stoptext`
2. `\chapter, \section, \title, \subject, \setuphead, \completecontent`
3. `\em, \bf, \cap`
4. `\startitemize, \stopitemize, \item, \head`
5. `\abbreviation, \infull, \completelistofabbreviations`
6. `\placefigure, \externalfigure, \useexternalfigures`
7. `\placetable, \starttable, \stoptable`
8. `\definedescription, \defineenumeration`
9. `\index, \completeindex`
10. `\setuplayout, \setupfootertexts, \setupheadertexts`

## 1.11 Warning

ConT<sub>E</sub>Xt users have the possibility to define their own commands. These newly defined commands may come into conflict with plain T<sub>E</sub>X or ConT<sub>E</sub>Xt commands. To avoid this, it is advisable to use capitalized characters in your own command definitions, such as:

```
\def \MyChapter#1%
  {\chapter{#1}\index{#1}}
```

This command starts a new chapter and defines an index entry with the same name.

## 2 Documents

### 2.1 Introduction

Why should one use  $\TeX$  in the first place? Many people start using  $\TeX$  because they want to typeset math. Others are charmed by the possibility of separating content and make-up. Yet another kind of user longs for a programmable system. And let us not forget those users that go for quality.

When using  $\TeX$  one does not easily run into capacity problems. Typesetting large documents with hundreds of pages is typically a job for  $\TeX$ . If possible, when coding a document one should look beyond the current document. These days we see documents that were originally typeset for paper being published in electronic format. And how about making a stripped version of a 700 page document? A strict separation between content and layout (make-up) on the one hand and an acceptable redundancy in structure on the other is often enough to guarantee multiple use of one document source.

A system like Con $\TeX$ t is meant to make life easier. When coding a document the feeling can surface that “this or that should be easier”. This feeling often reflects the truth and the answer to the question can often be found in this manual, although sometimes obscured. It takes some time to learn to think in structure and content, certainly when one is accustomed to mouse driven word processors. In this chapter we focus on the structure of collections of documents.

### 2.2 Start and stop

In a self contained text we use the following commands to mark the begin and end of a text:

```
\starttext  
\stoptext
```

The first command takes care of a number of initializations and the last command tells  $\TeX$  that processing can stop. When this command is left out  $\TeX$  will display a \* (a star) on the command line at the end of the job.  $\TeX$  will expect a command, for example  $\backslash$ end.

It is advisable to type the document setups before the  $\backslash$ start-command, the so called setup area of the document. In this way a clever word-processor can identify where the text starts, and therefore can include those setups when it partially processes the document, given of course that it supports partial processing of files.

In the example below a very simple layout is being used.

```
\starttext  
\subject{Introduction}  
  
\unknown\ America has always been a land set firmly not in the past, but  
in the future. On a recent visit to England, I found dozens of wonderful  
bookstores chock full of the past --- ancient history, rooms full of it,  
and great literature in such monumental stacks as to be overwhelming. In  
the usual American bookstore, history might occupy a few bookcases; great  
literature has its honoured place, but this year's paperbacks dominate. The
```

```
past is not disregarded, but neither does it loom so large and run so deep
in our blood.
```

```
\blank
```

```
{\bf Greg Bear, introduction to Tangents (1989).}
```

```
\stoptext
```

The commands `\starttext... \stoptext` may be nested. Within a text a new text containing `\starttext` and `\stoptext` may be loaded.

## 2.3 Structure

In this section a structured approach of managing your documents is discussed. For very simple and self containing documents you can use the following approach:

```
\environment this
\environment that

\starttext
... some interesting text ...
\stoptext
```

When you have to typeset very bulky documents it is better to divide your document in logical components. Con<sub>T</sub>E<sub>X</sub>t allows you to setup a project structure to manage your texts. You have to know that:

- A group of texts that belong together have to be maintained as a whole. We call this a *project*.
- Layout characteristics and macros have to be defined at the highest level. For this, the term *environment* has been reserved.
- Texts that belong together in a project we call *products*.
- A product can be divided into components, these components can be shared with other products. Components can be processed individually.

Programmable word processors can be adapted to this structure.

A *project*, *environment*, *product* or *component* is started and stopped with one of the following commands:

```
\startproject ... \stopproject
* FILE NAME
```

```
\startproduct ... \stopproduct
* FILE NAME
```

```
\startenvironment ... \stopenvironment
* FILE NAME
```

```
\startcomponent ... .. \stopcomponent
* FILE NAME
```

Before a `\start–\stop`-pair commands can be added. When a file is not found on the directory ConTeXt looks for the files on higher level directories. This enables the user to use one or more environments for documents that are placed on several subdirectories.

command	project	environment	product	component
<code>\project &lt;&lt;name&gt;&gt;</code>			(*)	(*)
<code>\environment &lt;&lt;name&gt;&gt;</code>	(*)	(*)	(*)	(*)
<code>\product &lt;&lt;name&gt;&gt;</code>	*			(*)
<code>\component &lt;&lt;name&gt;&gt;</code>			(*)	(*)

**Table 2.1** The structure commands that can be used in the files that make up a project.

To treat products and components as individual documents, the commands in [table 2.1](#) are used. The commands marked with \* are obligatory and the commands marked with (\*) are optional. The content is typed before the `\stop` command.

```
\startproject documents
\environment layout
\product teacher
\product pupil
\product curriculum
\stopproject
```

An example of a project file.

**Figure 2.1**

```
\startproduct teacher
\project documents
\component teacher1
\component teacher2
\stopproduct
```

The product `teacher.tex` (a teacher manual) can be defined as shown on the opposite site.

**Figure 2.2**

```
\startcomponent teacher2
\project documents
\product teacher
... text ...
\stopcomponent
```

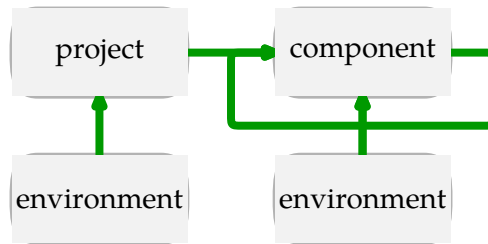
Here we see the component.

**Figure 2.3**

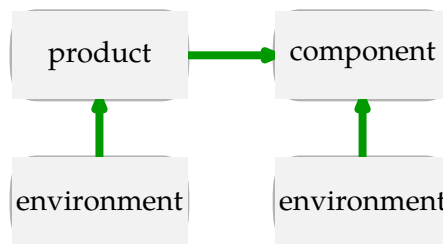
In most cases working with only `\starttext` and `\stoptext` in combination with `\input` or `\environment` is sufficient. A project structure has advantages when you have to manage a great number of texts. Although it is more obvious to process *products* as a whole, it also enables you to process *components* independently, given that the structure is defined properly.

A project file contains only a list of products and environments, it cannot be typeset. If you have only one product, you don't really need a project file. This manual for example has a product/component structure without a project file. Every chapter is a component and the product file loads some environments.

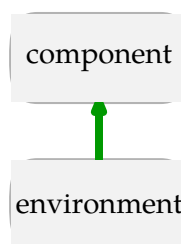
Schematically the coherence between files could be displayed as illustrated in **figures 2.4, 2.5 and 2.6**.



**Figure 2.4** An example of project structure.



**Figure 2.5** An example with only products.



**Figure 2.6** An example with only one component.

It is good practice to put all setups in one environment. In case a component or product has a different layout you could define *localenvironments*:

```
\startlocalenvironment[<<names>>]
... setups ...
\stoplocalenvironment
```

A local environment can be typed in an environment file or is a separate file itself. When a separate file is used the local environment is loaded with:

```
\localenvironment <<name>>
```

Below you will find an example of a project structure.

```
\startproject demos
\environment environ
\product example
\stopproject
```

file: `demos.tex`

This file is used to define the products and environments.

**Figure 2.7**

```
\startenvironment environ
\setupwhitespace[big]
\setupfootertexts[part][chapter]
\stopenvironment
```

file: `environ.tex`

In the environment we type the setups that relate to all the different products. More than one environment or local environments per product can be used.

**Figure 2.8**

```
\startproduct example
\project demos
\startfrontmatter
\completecontent
\stopfrontmatter
\startbodymatter
\component first
\component second
\stopbodymatter
\startbackmatter
\completeindex
\stopbackmatter
\stopproduct
```

file: `example.tex`

The product file contains the structure of the product. Because indexes and registers can be evoked quite easily we do not use a separate file.

**Figure 2.9**

```
\startcomponent first
\environment environ
\product example
\part{One}
\completecontent
\chapter{First}
.... text ....
\chapter{Second}
.... text ....
\completeindex
\stopcomponent
```

file: `first.tex`

In the components of a product we place the textual content, figures etc. It is also possible to request the tables of content and registers per product.

**Figure 2.10**

```

\startcomponent second
\environment environ
\product example
\part{Two}
\completecontent
\chapter{Alfa}
..... text .....
\chapter{Beta}
..... text .....
\completeindex
\stopcomponent

```

file: `second.tex`

The product contains more than one component. We could have defined a product for each part and a component for each chapter.

**Figure 2.11**

The files `first.tex`, `second.tex` and `example.tex` can be processed separately. If you process an environment there will be no pages of output.

## 2.4 Directories

Many T<sub>E</sub>X implementations look for a file in all directories and subdirectories when a requested file is not in the current directory. This is not only time-consuming but may lead to errors when the wrong file (a file with the same name) is loaded.

For this reason ConT<sub>E</sub>Xt works somewhat differently. A file that is not available on the working directory is searched for on the parent directories. This means that environments can be placed in directories that are parents to the products that use them. For example:

```

/texfiles/course/layout.tex
/texfiles/course/teacher/manual.tex
/texfiles/course/student/learnmat.tex
/texfiles/course/otherdoc/sheets.tex

```

The last three files (in different subdirectories) all use the same environment `layout.tex`. So, instead of putting all files into one directory, one can organize them in subdirectories. When a project is properly set up, that is, as long as the project file and specific environments can be found, one can process components and products independently.

## 2.5 Versions

During the process of document production it is useful to generate a provisional version. This version shows the references and the typesetting failures. The provisional version is produced when you type:

```

\version [.*.]
* final concept temporary

```

By default the definitive version is produced. In case a preliminary version is produced the word *concept* is placed at the bottom of each page. The keyword `temporary` shows some information on for instance overfull lines, references, figure placement, and index entries. Most



messages are placed in the margin. In some cases these messages refer to the next pages because T<sub>E</sub>X is processing in advance.

## 2.6 Modes

T<sub>E</sub>X can directly produce dvi or pdf. A document can be designed for paper and screen, where the last category often has additional functionality. From one document we can generate different alternatives, both in size and in design. So, from one source several alternatives can be generated.

Processing a file in practice comes down to launching T<sub>E</sub>X with the name of the file to be processed. Imagine that by default we generate dvi output. Switching to pdf is possible by enabling another output format in the file itself or a configuration file, but both are far from comfortable.

```
\setupoutput[pdftex]
```

for direct pdf output, or for pdf produced from PostScript:

```
\setupoutput[dvips,acrobat]
```

The key to the solution of this problem is T<sub>E</sub>Xexec. This Perl script provides ConT<sub>E</sub>Xt with a command-line-interface. When we want pdf instead of dvi, we can launch T<sub>E</sub>Xexec with:

```
texexec --pdf filename
```

There are more options, like making A5-booklets; more on these features can be found in the manual that comes with T<sub>E</sub>Xexec. However, one option deserves more time: modes.

```
texexec --pdf --mode=screen filename
```

The idea behind modes is that within a style definition, at each moment one can ask for in what mode the document is processed. An example of a mode dependant definition is:

```
\startmode[screen]
  \setupinteraction[state=start]
  \setupcolors[state=start]
\stopmode
```

if needed, accompanied by:

```
\startnotmode[screen]
  \setupcolors[state=start,conversion=always]
\stopnotmode
```

One can also pass more than one mode, separated by comma's. There are also some low level mode dependant commands. Given that we are dealing with a screen mode, we can say:

```
\doifmodeelse {screen} {do this} {and not that}
\doifmode      {screen} {do something}
\doifnotmode   {screen} {do something else}
```

A mode can be activated by saying:

```
\enablemode[screen]
\disablemode[screen]
```

Again, we can pass more modes:

```
\enablemode[paper,A4]
```

One strength of  $\TeX$ exec is that one is not forced to enable modes in a file: one can simply pass a command line switch. Just as with choosing the output format: the less we spoil the document source with output and mode settings, the more flexible we are.

To enable users to develop a style that adapts itself to certain circumstances, Con $\TeX$ t provides system modes. For the moment there are:

```
*list           the list one called for is placed indeed
*register       the register one called for is placed indeed
*interaction    interaction (hyperlinks etc) are turned on
*sectionblock  the named sectionblock is entered
```

System modes are prefixed by a \*, so they will not conflict with user modes. An example of a sectionblock mode is `*frontmatter`. One can use these modes like:

```
\startmode[*interaction]
  \setuppapersize[S6][S6]
\stopmode
```

## 2.7 Modes Manual

**TODO:** Merge with previous section

Every user will at one moment run into modes. Modes are used for conditional processing. You enable or disable modes:

```
\enablemode[screen]
\disablemode[proof]
```

as well as prevent modes being set:

```
\preventmode[doublesided]
```

Later on you can act upon this mode using:

```
\startmode[screen]
  \setupinteraction[state=start]
\stopmode
```

The counterpart of this command is:

```
\startnotmode[screen]
  \setupinteraction[state=start]
\stopnotmode
```

You can set modes in your document or in styles, but you can also do that at runtime:

```
texexec --pdf --mode=screen --result=myfile-s myfile
texexec --pdf --mode=A4      --result=myfile-a myfile
texexec --pdf --mode=letter  --result=myfile-l myfile
```

You can test for more modes at the same time:

```
\startmode[color, colour]
  \setupcolors[state=start]
\stopmode
```

If you want to satisfy a combination of modes, you use:

```
\startmode[final]
  \setuplayout[markings=on]
\stopmode
\startallmodes[final, color]
  \setuplayout[markings=color]
\stopallmodes
```

The counterpart is

```
\startnotallmodes[print, proof]
  \setuplayout[markings=off]
\stopnotallmodes
```

Instead of the start–stop variants, you can use the `\doif` alternatives. These have the advantage that they can be nested.

```
\doifmodeelse      {modes} {action} {alternative}
\doifmode          {modes} {action}
\doifnotmode       {modes} {action}
\doifallmodeselse {modes} {action} {alternative}
\doifallmodes      {modes} {action}
\doifnotallmodes  {modes} {action}
```

Mode can be combined with variables:

```
\setupvariables[document][alternative=print]
\enablemode[document:\getvariable{document}{alternative}]
\startmode[document:print]
...
\stopmode
\startmode[document:screen]
...
\stopmode
```

An alternative for such an selective approach is to use setups:

```
\setupvariables[document][alternative=print]
\startsetups[document:print]
...
\stopsetups
\startsetups[document:screen]
...
\stopsetups
```

```
\setups[document:\getvariable{document}{alternative}]
```

The difference is that mode blocks are processed in the order that the document (or style) is loaded, while setups are stored and recalled later.

In addition to your own modes, ConT<sub>E</sub>Xt provides a couple of system modes. These are preceded by a \*, as in:

```
\startmode[*first]
  % this is the first run
\stopmode
```

The following system modes are available (more will implemented):

- |   |  |
|---|--|
| <code>color-c,color-m,color-y,color-k</code>                | These are rather special modes related to color separation. They are only set when channels are split off.   |
| <code>figure</code>   | This mode is set when a graphic is found. You can use this mode in for instance figure postprocessing actions.   |
| <code>text, project, product, component, environment</code> | These modes are set when one enters one of the associated structuring environments. Nesting is supported.  |
| <code>list</code>   | After using <code>\determinelistcharacteristics</code> this mode reflects if list entries were found.  |
| <code>pairedbox</code>                                      | This mode is enabled when a paired box (legenda and such) is constructed.  |
| <code>combination</code>                                    | This mode is enabled when a combination (often used for graphics) is constructed.  |
| <code>interaction</code>                                    | When interaction is enabled, this mode is true. You can for instance use this mode to add different content to for instance screen and paper versions.   |
| <code>register</code>                                       | After using <code>\determineregistercharacteristics</code> this mode reflects if register entries were found.  |
| <code>sectionnumber</code>                                  | This mode is enabled when a section head is numbered. You can access the mode while building the section head, which is true when you have your own commands hooked into the head mechanism.   |
| <code>frontpart, bodypart, backpart, appendix</code>        | The state of main sections in a document as well as user defined ones, are reflected in system modes.  |
| <code>suffix-\jobfilesuffix</code>                          | You can use this mode to differentiate between input file types. We use this for instance to distinguish between different XML content variants when pretty-printing (given that they can be recognized on their suffix).  |
| <code>first</code>  | Often multiple runs are needed to get a document right. Think of cross references, object references, tables of contents, indices, etc. You can use this mode to determine if the first run is taking place. For instance, when you do real time graphic conversions, it makes sense to do that only once. |

<code>last</code>	This mode is set if the last run in a session is taking place. Normally this is not known in advance, unless one has asked for an additional imposition pass.
<code>background</code>	This mode is set when there is a (new) background defined.
<code>postponing</code>	While postponing some content using the postpone mechanism this mode is enabled.
<code>grid</code>	When you are typesetting on a grid, special care has to be taken not spoil grid snapping. You can use this mode to test if you are in grid typesetting mode.
<code>header</code>	This mode is enabled when there is a page header, i.e. the header has non-zero dimensions.
<code>footer</code>	This mode is enabled when there is a page footer, i.e. the header has non-zero dimensions.
<code>makeup</code>	The makeup mechanisms are used to build single pages like title pages. This mode is set during construction.
<code>pdf, dvi</code>	One of these modes is set, which one depends on the output driver that is loaded.
<code>*language-id, language-id</code>	When a language is chosen, its id is set as mode. For example, when the main language is English, and the current language Dutch, we can test for the modes <code>**en</code> and <code>*nl</code> (watch the extra <code>*</code> ).
<code>marking</code>	This flag is set when a marking (e.g. in a header or footer) is being typeset (processed).

## 2.8 Regimes

When you key in an english document, a normal QWERTY keyboard combined with the standard ascii character set will do. However, in many countries dedicated keyboards and corresponding input encodings are used. This means that certain keystrokes correspond to non-standard ascii characters and these need to be mapped onto the characters present in the font. Unless the input encoding matches the output (font) encoding, intermediate steps are needed to take care of the right mapping. For instance, input code 145 can become command `\eacute` which can result in character 123 of a certain font.

Although all kind of intermediate, direct or indirect, mappings are possible, in ConT<sub>E</sub>Xt the preferred method is to go by named glyphs. The advantage of this method is that we can rather comfortably convert the input stream into different output streams as needed for typesetting text (the normal T<sub>E</sub>X process) and embedding information in the file (like annotations or font vectors needed for searching documents).

The conversion from input characters into named glyphs is handled by regimes. While further mapping is done automatically and is triggered by internal processes, regimes need to be chosen explicitly. This is because only the user knows what he has input.

Most encodings (like `i12`) have an associated regime. You can get some insight in what a regime involves by showing it:

```
\showregime[i12]
```

In addition there are a couple of platform dependent ones:

---

<b>regime</b>	<b>platform</b>
ibm	the old standard msdos code page
win	the western europe MS Windows code page

---

If you want to know what regimes are available, you can take a look at the `regi-*.tex` files. A regime that becomes more and more popular is the utf-8 regime. If you want some insight in what vectors provide, you can use commands like:

```
\showunicodevector[001]
```

and

```
\showunicodetable[001]
```

where the last one produces a rather large table.

# 3 Page design

## 3.1 Introduction

While processing a text  $\TeX$  makes use of the actual `\hsize` (width) and `\vsize` (height). As soon as `\vsize` is exceeded  $\TeX$ 's output routine is launched. The output routine deals with the typeset part — most of the time this will be a page. It takes care of typesetting the headers and footers, the page number, the backgrounds and footnotes, tables and figures. This rather complex process makes it obvious that the output routine actually makes use of more dimensions than `\hsize` and `\vsize`.

## 3.2 Paper dimensions

With the command `\setuppapersize` the dimensions of the paper being used are defined. There is a difference between the dimensions for typesetting and printing.

```
\setuppapersize [...1...] [...2...]
                                OPTIONAL
1  A3 A4 A5 A6 letter ... CD IDENTIFIER landscape mirrored rotated 90 180 270
2  negative inherits from \setuppapersize
```

The dimensions of DIN formats are given in [table 3.1](#).

format	size in mm	format	size in mm
A0	841 × 1189	A5	148 × 210
A1	594 × 841	A6	105 × 148
A2	420 × 594	A7	74 × 105
A3	297 × 420	A8	52 × 74
A4	210 × 297	A9	37 × 52

**Table 3.1** Default paper dimensions

There are a great number of standardized formats like B0–B9 and C0–C9. These formats are predefined in  $\text{Con}\TeX$ t as well. You can also use: `letter`, `legal`, `folio` and `executive`, `envelope 9–14`, `monarch`, `check`, `DL` and `CD`. Another series of predefined formats comprise the `RA` and `SRA` types of paper sizes.

A new format can be defined by:

```
\definepapersize [1...] [2...]
1  IDENTIFIER
2  width   = DIMENSION
   height  = DIMENSION
   offset  = DIMENSION
   scale   = NUMBER
```

For example CD was defined as:

```
\definepapersize [CD] [width=12cm,height=12cm]
```

After defining CD you can type:

```
\setuppapersize [CD] [A4]
```

This means that for typesetting ConT<sub>E</sub>Xt will use the newly defined size CD. The resulting, rather small page, is positioned on an A4 paper size. This second argument is explained in detail later.

ConT<sub>E</sub>Xt can also be used to produce screen documents. For that purpose a number of screen formats are available that relate to the screen dimensions. You can use: S3–S6. These generate screens with widths varying from 300 to 600 pt and a height of 3/4 of the width.

When one chooses another paper format than A4, the default settings are scaled to fit the new size.

All defined paper sizes can be used either in portrait or landscape orientation. You can tell ConT<sub>E</sub>Xt the orientation of the paper in the `\setuppapersize` command:

```
\setuppapersize [CD] [A4,landscape]
```

### 3.3 Page texts

Page texts are texts that are placed in the headers, footers, margins and edges of the so called pagebody. This sentence is for instance typeset in the bodyfont in the running text. The fonts of the page texts are set up by means of different commands. The values of the parameters may be something like `style=bold` but `style=\ss\bf` is also allowed. Setups like `style=\ssbf` are less obvious because commands like `\cap` will not behave the way you expect.

Switching to a new font style (`\ss`) will cost some time. Usually this is no problem but in interactive documents where we may use interactive menus with dozens of items and related font switches the effect can be considerable. In that case a more efficient font switching is:

```
\setuplayout [style=\ss]
```

Border texts are setup by its command and the related key. For example footers may be set up with the key `letter`:

```
\setupfooter [style=bold]
```

### 3.4 Page composition

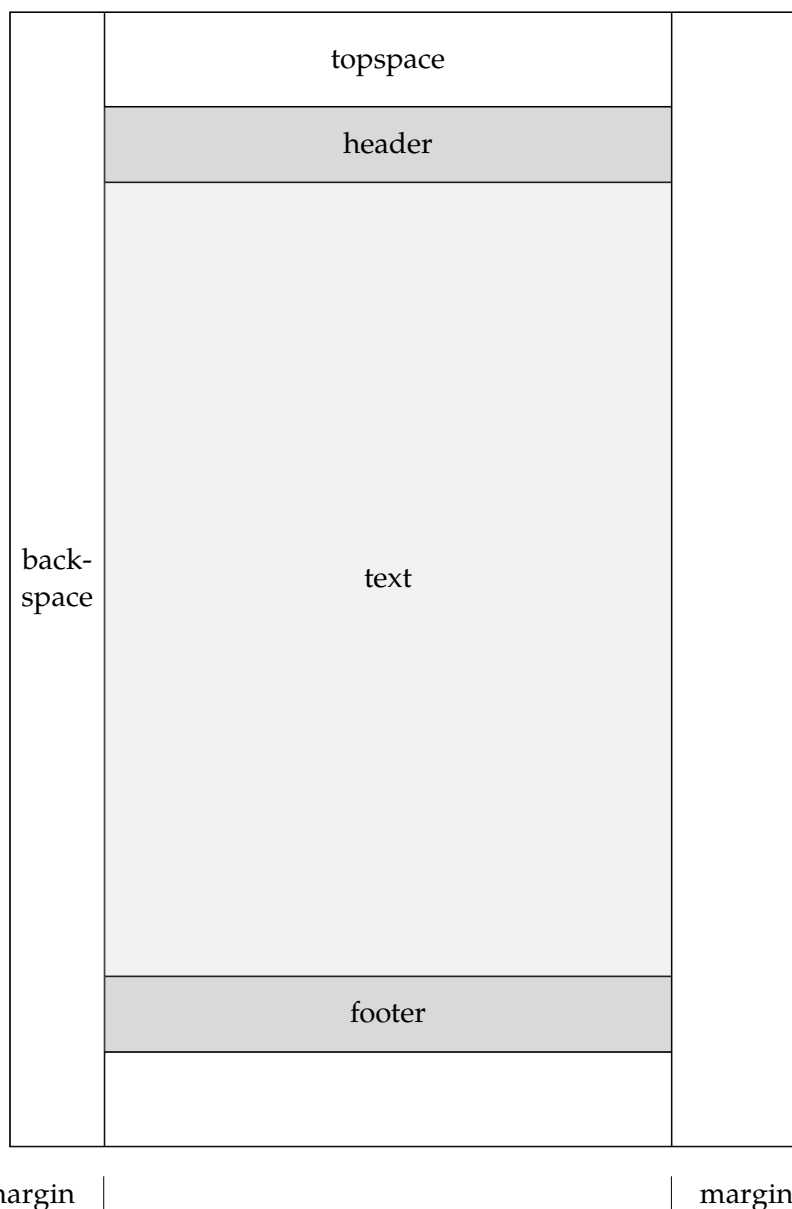
In page composition we distinguish the main text area, headers and footers, and the margins (top, bottom, right and left). The main text flows inside the main text area. When defining a layout, one should realize that the header, text and footer areas are treated as a whole. Their position on the page is determined by the `topspace` and `backspace` dimensions (see [picture 3.1](#)).

The header is located on top and the footer below of the main text area. Normally, in the header and footer page numbers and running titles are placed. The left and/or right margins are often used for structural components like marginal notes and/or chapter and section numbers. The margins are located in the `backspace` (along the spine) and in the white space to the right/left of the main text area. Their width has *no* influence on the location of the typesetting area on the page.

left

right





**Figure 3.1** The A4 typesetting area and margins (height = header + text + footer).

On the contrary, the height of the header and footer influences the height of the text area. When talking about the height, we think of the sum of the header, text and footer areas. This approach enables you to occasionally hide the header and/or footer, without introducing inconsistency in the layout.

The dimensions and location of all those areas are set up with `\setuplayout`.

Setting up the left or right margin has no influence on the typesetting area. In paper documents this parameter is only of use when keywords or other text are placed in the margin (hyphenation).

For paper documents it is sufficient to set up the height, header, footer, top space and back space. For electronic and screen documents however we need some extra space for navigational tools

```

\setuplayout [...,*.,...]

* width           = DIMENSION fit middle
height           = DIMENSION fit middle
backspace        = DIMENSION
topspace         = DIMENSION
margin           = DIMENSION
leftmargin       = DIMENSION
rightmargin      = DIMENSION
header           = DIMENSION
footer           = DIMENSION
top              = DIMENSION
bottom           = DIMENSION
leftedge         = DIMENSION
rightedge        = DIMENSION
headerdistance   = DIMENSION
footerdistance   = DIMENSION
topdistance      = DIMENSION
bottomdistance   = DIMENSION
leftmargindistance = DIMENSION
rightmargindistance = DIMENSION
leftedgedistance = DIMENSION
rightedgedistance = DIMENSION
horoffset        = DIMENSION
veroffset        = DIMENSION
style            = normal bold slanted boldslanted type cap small... COMMAND
color            = IDENTIFIER
marking          = on off color screen TEXT
location         = left middle right bottom top singlesided doublesided
scale            = DIMENSION
nx               = NUMBER
ny               = NUMBER
dx               = DIMENSION
dy               = DIMENSION
lines            = NUMBER
columns          = NUMBER
columnndistance = DIMENSION
grid             = yes no
bottomspace      = DIMENSION
cutspace        = DIMENSION
textdistance     = DIMENSION
textwidth        = NUMBER
textmargin       = DIMENSION
clipoffset       = DIMENSION
page             = IDENTIFIER
paper            = IDENTIFIER

```

(see chapter ??). In screen documents it is common practice to use backgrounds. Therefore it is also possible to set up the space between the text area and the header and footer on a page, and thereby visually separating those areas.

Parameter	Value	Comment
width	dimension	Determines the width of the typesetting area. Middle sets the white space right to the typesetting area to the value of the backspace. typeFit takes values set

height	dimension	for margins, edges and margin and edge distances into account. The <code>height</code> is the sum of the text height, header, footer, <code>headerdistance</code> , <code>footerdistance</code> . <code>Middle</code> sets the bottom white space to the value of the <code>topspace</code> . <code>Fit</code> calculates the text height based on the other vertical height-elements.
backspace	dimension	<code>Backspace</code> determines the left boundary of the typesetting area.
topspace	dimension	<code>Topspace</code> determines the top boundary of the typesetting area. Together <code>backspace</code> and <code>topspace</code> determine the left top corner of the typesetting area.
margin	dimension	Setting this parameters makes left and right margin equally large.
leftmargin	dimension	For documents with different size of the left and right margin, the left margin size is determined.
rightmargin	dimension	For documents with different size of the left and right margin, the right margin size is determined.
header	dimension	Determines the height of a running header. The header height is part of the <code>height</code> parameter.
footer	dimension	Determines the height of the footer. The footer height is part of the <code>height</code> parameter.
top	dimension	Makes space available in the <code>topspace</code> area. This parameter is not part of the text height.
bottom	dimension	Makes space available underneath the typesetting area. This parameter is not part of the text height.
leftedge	dimension	This space located left to the left margin is for screen documents only.
rightedge	dimension	This space located right to the right margin is for screen documents only.
headerdistance	dimension	All parameters ending on <code>...distance</code> create white space between adjacent elements.
footerdistance	dimension	
leftmargindistance	dimension	
rightmargindistance	dimension	
leftedgedistance	dimension	
rightedgedistance	dimension	

topdistance	dimension	
bottomdistance	dimension	
horoffset	dimension	A horizontal offset moves the complete layout horizontally, starting from the place indicated by the parameter <code>location</code> .
veroffset	dimension	A vertical offset moves the complete layout vertically, starting from the place indicated by the parameter <code>location</code> .
style	normal bold slanted boldslanted type cap small... COMMAND	With the <code>style</code> parameter one can setup the general style of the font(s) used in the document.
marking	on off color screen TEXT	When this parameter is set to <code>on</code> , then crop marks are placed around the page. <code>Color</code> displays a color bar, whereas <code>screen</code> shows a gray-values bar.
location	left middle right bottom top singlesided doublesided du- plex	<code>location</code> determines where the page is placed on the paper. It allows to typeset single and double sided documents and documents for duplex printing ( <a href="#">see: 3.6</a> ).
scale	number	With <code>scale</code> it is possible to scale a page before placing it on the defined paper.
nx	number	In case that a given text should be placed multiple times on a defined paper, <code>nx</code> gives the number of pages on the x-axis and <code>ny</code> the number of pages on the y-axis.
ny	number	
dx	dimension	With <code>dx</code> and <code>dy</code> the distances of the pages indicated in <code>nx</code> and <code>ny</code> can be manipulated.
dy	dimension	
lines	number	Determines the <code>textheight</code> in terms of the number of lines-heights.
columns	number	
columndistance	dimension	
grid	yes no	Typesetting on the grid is activated with <code>grid=yes</code> .
bottomspace	dimension	<code>Bottomspace</code> increases the white space at the bottom of the page without altering the page-layout.
cutspace	dimension	<code>Cutspace</code> increases the white space at the right side of the page without altering the page-layout.
textdistance	dimension	

textwidth	dimension
textmargin	dimension
clipoffset	dimension
page	identifier
paper	identifier

In order to get information on the current settings the following commands can be issued:

```
\showframe [.*.]
          OPTIONAL
* TEXT margin edge
```

The dimensions can be displayed by:

```
\showsetups
```

A multi-page combination of both is generated with:

```
\showlayout
```

The width of a text is available as `\hsize` and the height as `\vsize`. To be on the safe side one can better use ConTeXt's `\dimen`-registers `\textwidth` and `\textheight`, `\makeupwidth` and `\makeupheight`.

When we are typesetting in one column of text `\textwidth` and `\makeupwidth` are identical. In case of a two columned text the `\textwidth` is somewhat less than half the `\makeupwidth`. The `\textheight` is the `\makeupheight` minus the height of the header and footer.

variable	meaning
<code>\makeupwidth</code>	width of a text
<code>\makeupheight</code>	height of a text
<code>\textwidth</code>	width of a column
<code>\textheight</code>	height – header – footer

**Table 3.2** Some `\dimen` variables

There are also other dimensions available like `\leftmarginwidth` and `\footerheight`, but be aware of the fact that you can only use these variables, you can not set them up. The width of a figure could for instance be specified as `width=.9\leftmarginwidth`.

Basically documents are typeset automatically. However, in some cases the output would become much better if a line would be moved to another page. For these situations you can adjust the layout temporarily (just for that page) by typing:

```

\adaptlayout [...1;...] [...OPTIONAL,.2,...]
1  NUMBER
2  height = DIMENSION max
    lines  = NUMBER

```

The use of this command should be avoided inside a text, because after altering your document the adjustment could possibly not be necessary anymore. So, if you use this command, use it at the top of your document. For example:

```
\adaptlayout [21,38] [height=+.5cm]
```

The layout of page 21 and 38 will temporarily be 0.5 cm higher though the footer will be maintained at the same height. The numbers to be specified are the page numbers in the output file.

If the layout is disturbed you can reset the layout by:

```
\setuplayout [reset]
```

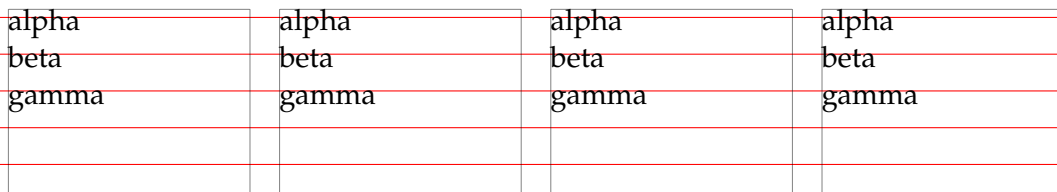
In some commands you can set up the parameters `width` and `height` with the value `fit`. In that case the width and height are calculated automatically.

On the next pages we will show a number of A5 page layouts centered on an A4. The default setups (dimensions) are adequate for standard documents like manuals and papers. The setup adjusts automatically to the paper size. Note the use of `middle` while setting up the parameters width and height.

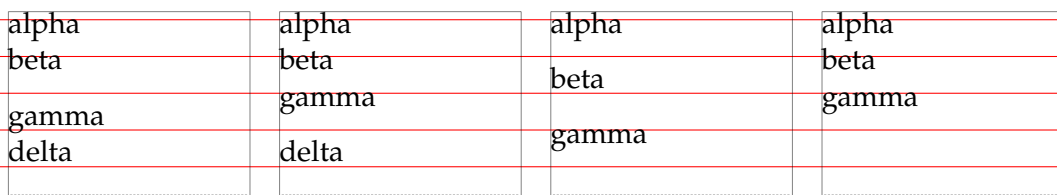
## 3.5

## Grids

There are many ways to align text on a page. Look at the example below and notice the vertical alignment of the words and the white space between the words on the mini pages.



The first three alternatives result in an undesired output. The fourth alternative will lead to pages with unequal length. So we rather make the white space between the lines a little stretchable.<sup>1</sup>



A stretchable line spacing has the disadvantage that lines of two pages or two columns that are displayed close to each other, will seldom align. This is very disturbing for a reader.<sup>2</sup>

In those situations we prefer to typeset on a grid. The means to do this in  $\text{T}_{\text{E}}\text{X}$  are very limited but  $\text{ConT}_{\text{E}}\text{Xt}$  has some features to support grid typesetting.<sup>3</sup>

Grid typesetting is part of the page layout. To enable it globally, the parameter `grid` needs to be set to `yes` (or `normal`), which starts snapping with the default behavior. If this does not lead to the desired results, the value `strict` will adjust the grid more rigidly and `tolerant` more loosely.

```
\setuplayout[grid=yes]
```

During typesetting on a grid the heads, figures, formulas and the running text are set on a fixed line spacing. If a typographical component for any reason is not placed on the grid one can snap this component to the grid with:

```
\placeongrid{\framed{This is like a snapshot.}}
```

<sup>1</sup>This will result in:

Hey, watch this. A footnote!

<sup>2</sup>Here! Another footnote.

<sup>3</sup>Finally, the last footnote!

This is like a snapshot.

This mechanism can be influenced with an argument:

```
\placeongrid[bottom]{\framed{Do you like the snapshot?}}
```

Now an empty line will appear below the framed text. Other parameters are: top and both. The last parameter divides the linespace between over and below the framed text.

Now the snapshot looks better.

These examples don't show pretty typesetting. The reason is that `\framed` has no depth because  $\TeX$  handles spacing before and after a line in a different way than text.  $\text{Con}\TeX$ t has a solution to this:

```
\startlinecorrection
\framed{This is something for hotshots.}
\stoplinecorrection
```

The command `\startlinecorrection` tries to typeset the lines as good as possible and takes the use of grid in account.

This is something for hotshots.

Because line correction takes care of the grid we have to use yet another command to stretch the framed text:

```
\startlinecorrection
\framed{Anyhow it is good to know how this works.}
\stoplinecorrection
```

As you can see this results in somewhat more space:

Anyhow it is good to know how this works.

For test purposes one can display the grid with the command `\showgrid`. So grid related commands are:

```
\placeongrid [.1.] {...}
          OPTIONAL
1 inherits from \moveongrid
2 CONTENT
```



	1
<code>\showgrid [...<sup>1</sup>;...] {...}</code>	2
OPTIONAL	3
1 reset top bottom none all lines frame nonumber right left	4
2 CONTENT	5
	6
	7
	8
	9
	10
	11
	12
	13
	14
	15
	16
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## 3.6 Printing

In an earlier section we used page and paper dimensions. In this section we will discuss how these two can be manipulated to yield a good output on paper.

In [figure 3.3 and 3.4](#) we see some alternatives to manipulate the page composition by means of `\setuppapersize` and `\setuplayout`. So it is possible to put a page in a corner or in the middle of the paper, to copy a page and to use cutting marks.

When the parameter paper size is set to landscape width and height are interchanged. This is not the same as rotation! Rotation is done by typing 90, 180 and 270 in the first argument of `\setuppapersize`.

```
\setuppapersize[A5,landscape][A4]
```

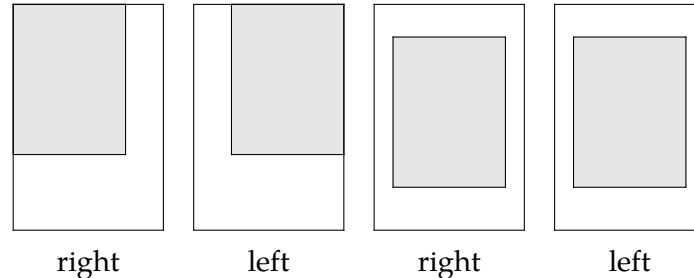
These examples don't show that we can correct for duplex printing. For example when we type:

```
\setuppapersize[A5][A4]
\setuplayout[location=middle,marking=on]
```

the front and back side will be placed in the middle of the paper. The markings enable you to cut the paper at the correct size. If we only want to cut twice, we type:

```
\setuppapersize[A5][A4]
\setuplayout[location=duplex]
```

This has the same meaning as `{duplex,left}`. At this setup ConTeXt will automatically move front and back side to the correct corner. In [figure 3.2](#) we show both alternatives.

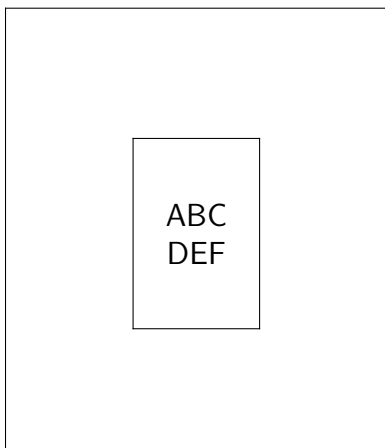
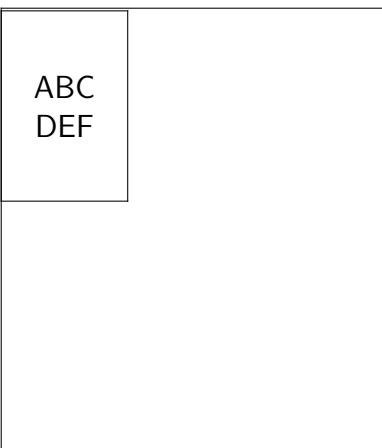


**Figure 3.2** Positioning the page on paper for cutting.

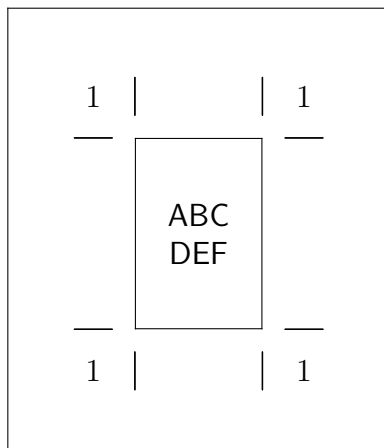
Rotating, mirroring, scaling, duplicating and placing pages on paper are independent operations. By combining these operations the desired effects can be reached. Rotating and mirroring and page and paper size are set up at the same time. The other operations are set up with `\setuplayout`.

## 3.7 Arranging pages

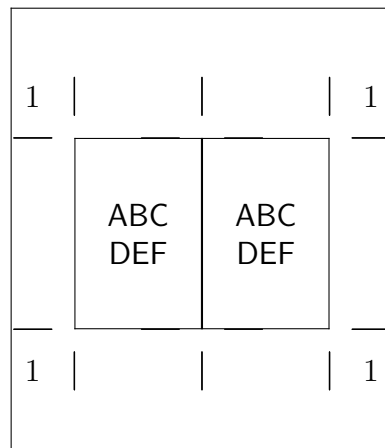
Simplified we can say that  $\text{\TeX}$  typesets pages. If the typeset material should become a book, then there are two options. Firstly the book will be produced on multiple sheets carrying only one page either on one or on both sides of the sheet. Second option is to produce arrangements of multiple pages per sheet of paper which will be folded into sections, using imposition schemes.



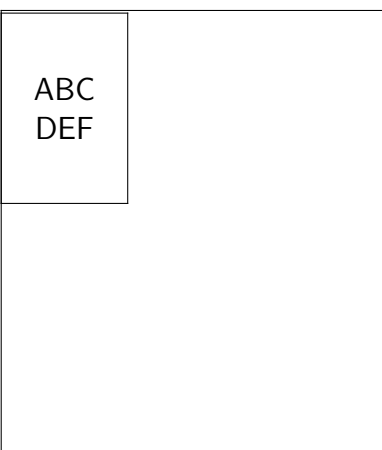
location=middle



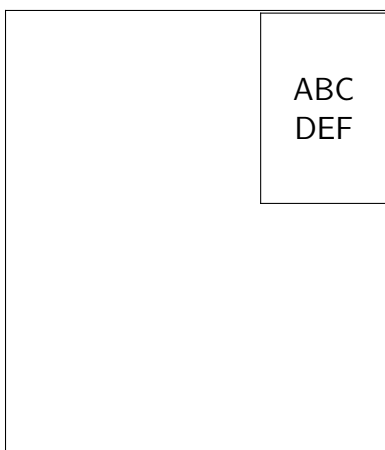
marking=on  
location=middle



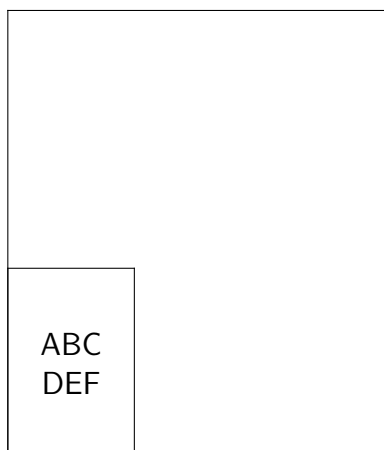
marking=on  
location=middle  
nx=2



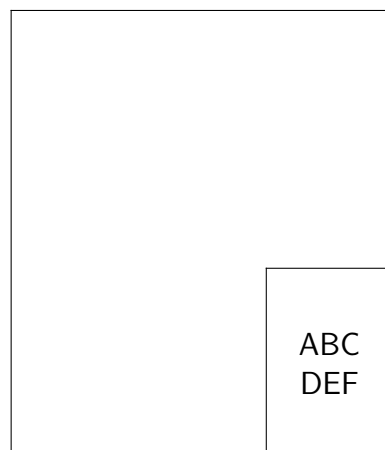
location=left



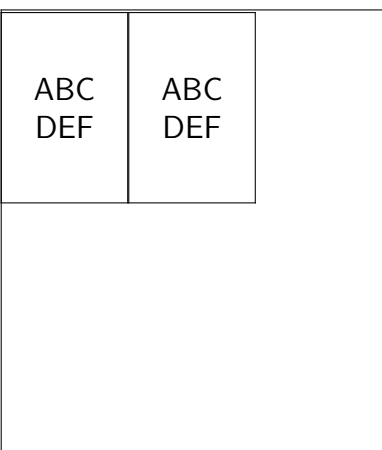
location=right



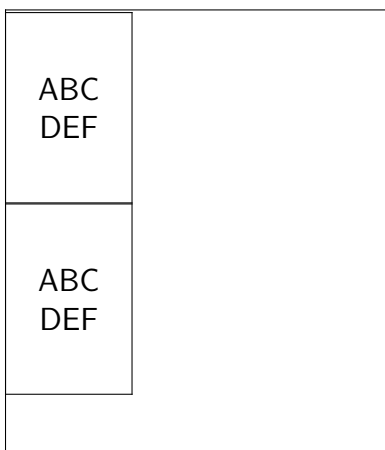
location=left,bottom



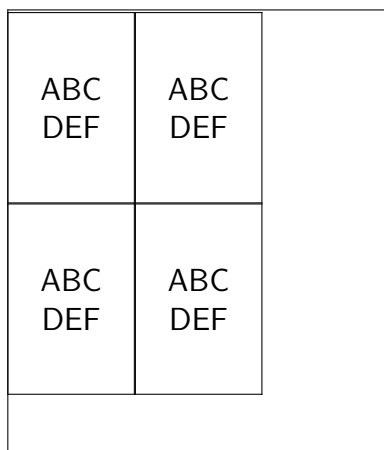
location=right,bottom



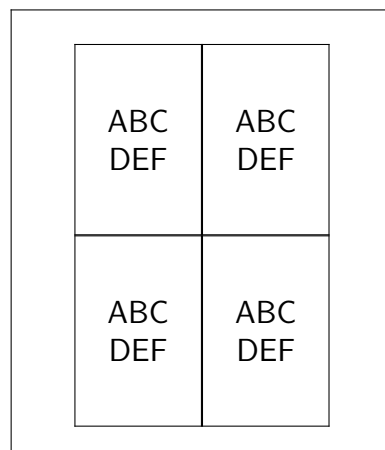
nx=2,ny=1



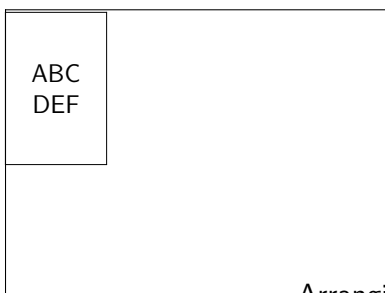
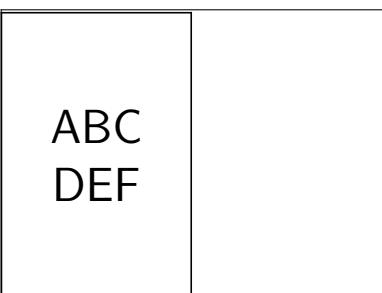
nx=1,ny=2

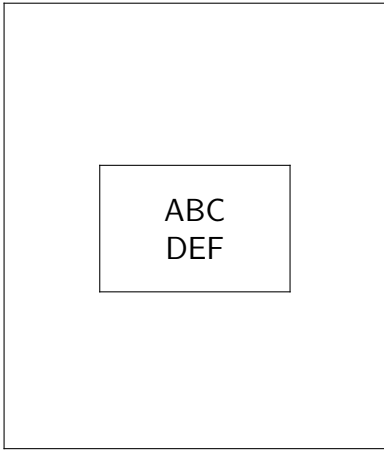


nx=2,ny=2

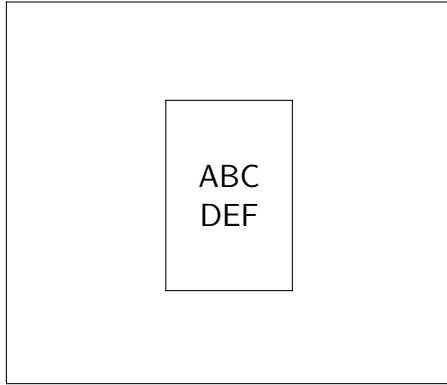


nx=2,ny=2  
location=middle

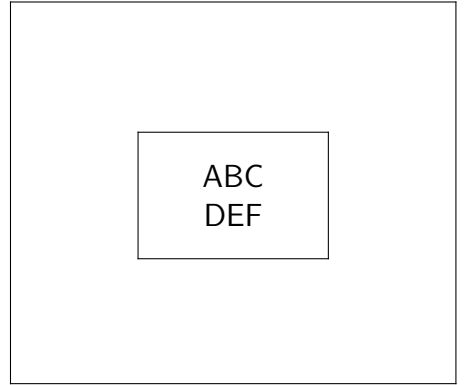




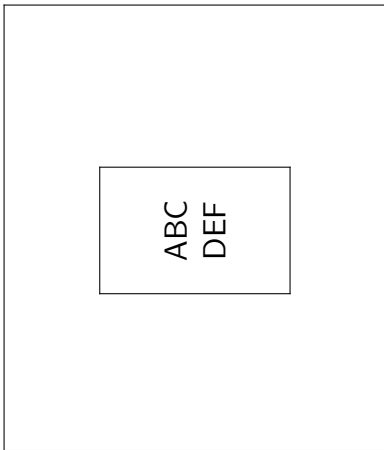
landscape



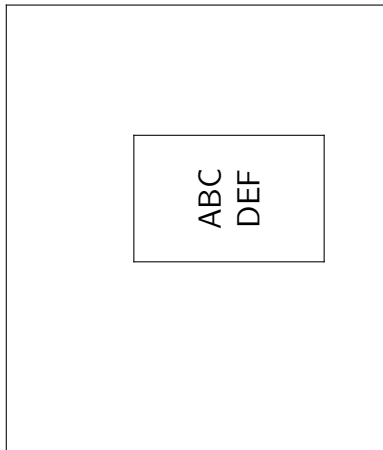
landscape



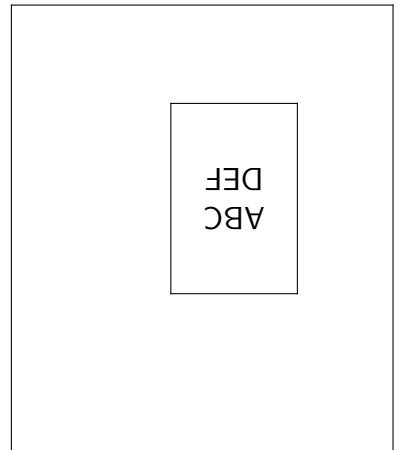
landscape  
landscape



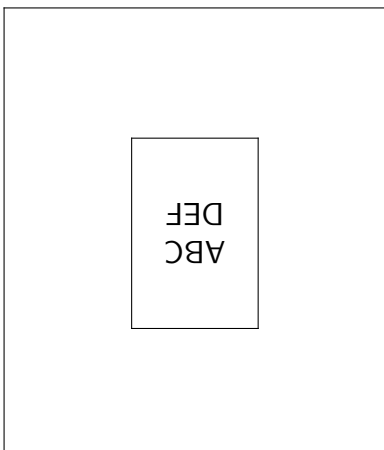
90



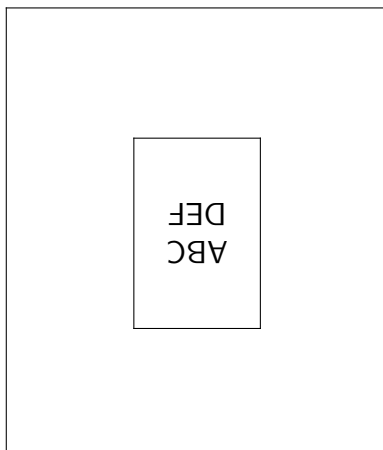
90



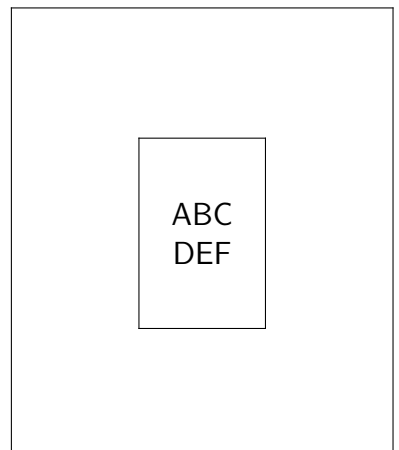
90  
90



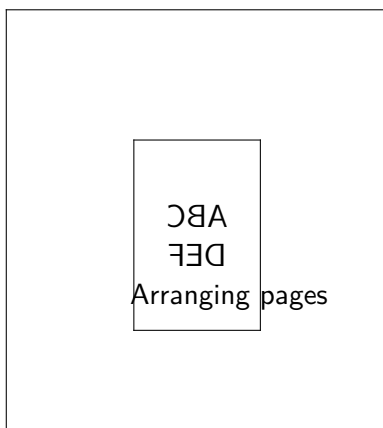
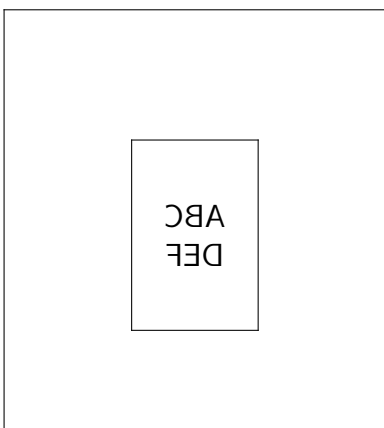
180



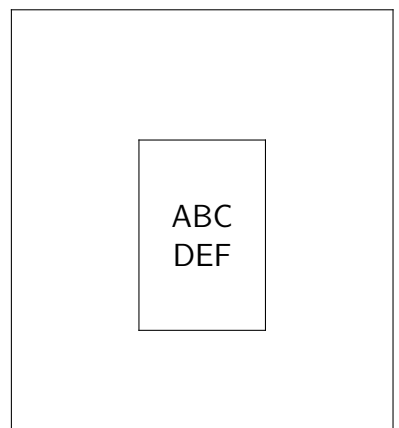
180



180  
180



Arranging pages



ConTEXt offers tools to achieve both options.

In the following table an overview is given about all currently available arranging schemes.

Key for `\setuparranging` Meaning

<code>[2SIDE]</code>	2 pages next to each other single sided only!
<code>[2TOP]</code>	2 pages above each other, single sided only!
<code>[1*8]</code>	1 sheet 1 x 8 pages = 8 pages single sided!
<code>[1*4]</code>	1 sheet 1 x 4 pages = 4 pages single sided!
<code>[1*2*Conference]</code>	2 pages on top of each other, 1 page rotated
<code>[1*4*Conference]</code>	2 odd pages next to each other, even page rotated on top
<code>[XY]</code>	Arrangement in nx columns and ny rows, uses the setup <code>\setuppaper [dx=, dy=, n</code>
<code>[2UP]</code>	2 pages next to each other, n sheets arranged for a single booklet!
<code>[2DOWN]</code>	2 pages above each other, n sheets arranged for a single booklet!
<code>[2TOPSIDE]</code>	2 odd pages on one side, 2 even pages verso, above each other
<code>[2*16]</code>	Section: one sheet 2 x 16 pages = 32 pages
<code>[2*8]</code>	Section: one sheet 2 x 8 pages = 16 pages
<code>[2*8*Z]</code>	Section: one sheet 2 x 8 pages = 16 pages, special folding: zig-zag
<code>[2*6*Z]</code>	Section: one sheet 2 x 6 pages = 12 pages, special folding: zig-zag
<code>[2*4]</code>	Section: one sheet 2 x 4 pages = 8 pages
<code>[2*2]</code>	Section: one sheet 2 x 2 pages = 4 pages
<code>[2**2]</code>	Section: one sheet 2 x 2 pages = 4 pages
<code>[2*4*2]</code>	Section of 16 pages: 2 sheets, 4 pages front and backside
<code>[2*2*4]</code>	Section of 16 pages: 4 sheets, 2 pages front and backside
<code>[3SIDE]</code>	3 odd pages recto, 3 even pages verso
<code>[2*2*2]</code>	Section: two sheets 2 x 2 pages = 8 pages
<code>[2*2*3]</code>	Section: three sheets 2 x 2 pages = 12 pages
<code>[TRYPTICHON]</code>	Leaflet: one sheet 2 x 3 pages = 6 pages
<code>[DOUBLEWINDOW]</code>	Leaflet: one sheet 2 x 4 pages = 8 pages
<code>[ZFLYER-8]</code>	Leaflet: one sheet 2 x 4 pages = 8 pages
<code>[ZFLYER-10]</code>	Leaflet: one sheet 2 x 5 pages = 10 pages
<code>[ZFLYER-12]</code>	Leaflet: one sheet 2 x 6 pages = 12 pages
<code>[MAPFLYER-12]</code>	Leaflet: one sheet 2 x 6 pages = 12 pages

When talking about book-printing the industry produces different kinds of sections, consisting commonly out of 32 or 16 pages. Consider, that sections of 32 pages may be quite thick. At binding if the sections are sewn and the spine is rounded the fore edge can become stepped. This is aesthetically less satisfying. Best results are normally obtained with sections of 16 pages.

For special purposes or in case of special papers also less than 16 pages per section are arranged.

The command to arrange pages with ConTEXt is

For (standard) sections the following list of schemes is available:

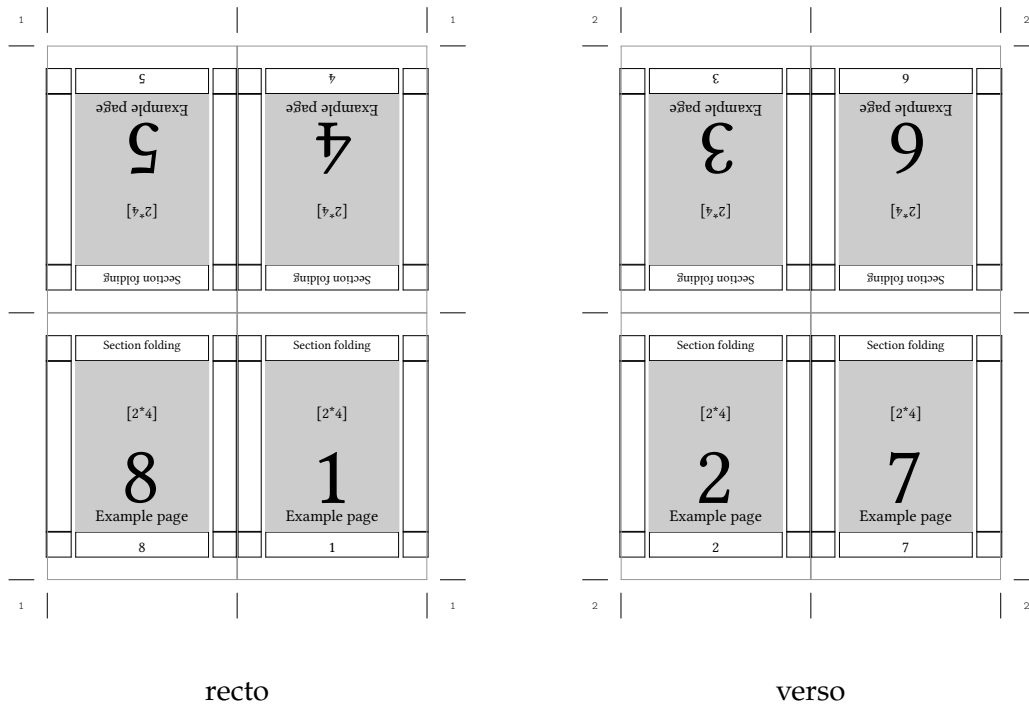
Arrangement	Result	Number of pages
<code>\setuparranging[2*16]</code>	section: one sheet 2 x 16 pages	= 32 pages
<code>\setuparranging[2*8]</code>	section: one sheet 2 x 8 pages	= 16 pages
<code>\setuparranging[2*4]</code>	section: one sheet 2 x 4 pages	= 8 pages
<code>\setuparranging[2*2]</code>	section: one sheet 2 x 2 pages	= 4 pages
<code>\setuparranging[2**2]</code>	section: one sheet 2 x 2 pages	= 4 pages

`\setuparranging[2*8*Z]` section: one sheet  $2 \times 8$  pages = 16 pages, special folding: zig-zag  
`\setuparranging[2*6*Z]` section: one sheet  $2 \times 6$  pages = 12 pages, special folding: zig-zag  
`\setuparranging[2*4*2]` section: 2 sheets, 4 pages front = 16 pages  
 and backside  
`\setuparranging[2*2*4]` section: 4 sheets, 2 pages front = 16 pages  
 and backside  
`\setuparranging[2*2*2]` section: 2 sheets  $2 \times 2$  pages = 8 pages  
`\setuparranging[2*2*3]` section: 3 sheets  $2 \times 2$  pages = 12 pages

On the following pages we show pictures of arranged pages for the mentioned imposition schemes.

The above mentioned imposition schemes are meant for the professional printing industry.

But also with an office printer one can produce sections. Sections with less than 16 pages can be produced with the following folding schemes:



**Figure 3.5** 8 pages

The last two examples (**Figure 3.6** and **3.7**) differ only in the fact, that the verso side carries the two pages in reversed order.

The simplest version of a section is booklet-printing. In this case all pages are arranged in such a way, that with a single fold a booklet is formed.

<b>Arrangement</b>	<b>Result</b>	<b>Number of pages</b>
<code>\setuparranging[2UP]</code>	2 pages next to each other, n sheets arranged for a single booklet	
<code>\setuparranging[2DOWN]</code>	2 pages above each other, n sheets arranged for a single booklet	

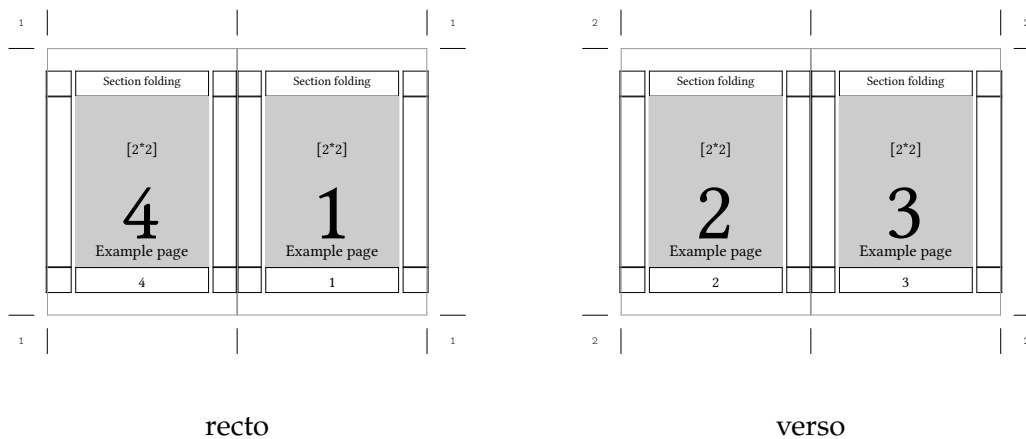


Figure 3.6 4 pages

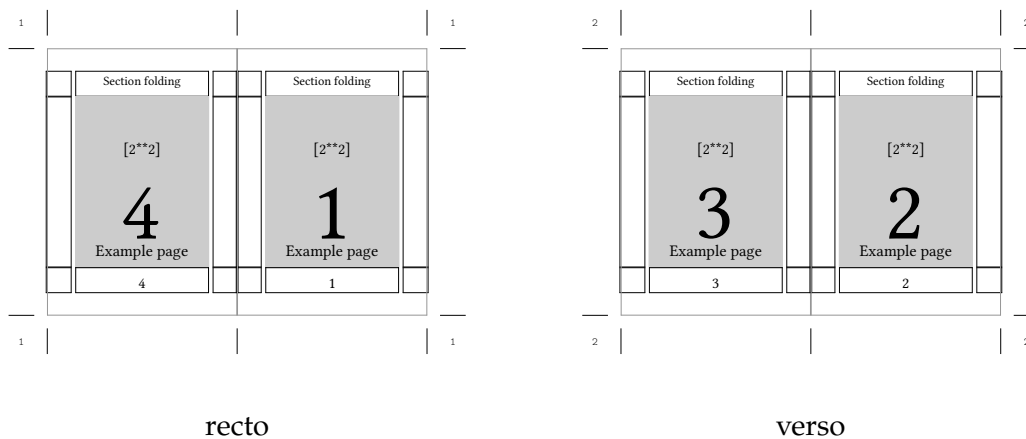


Figure 3.7 4 pages

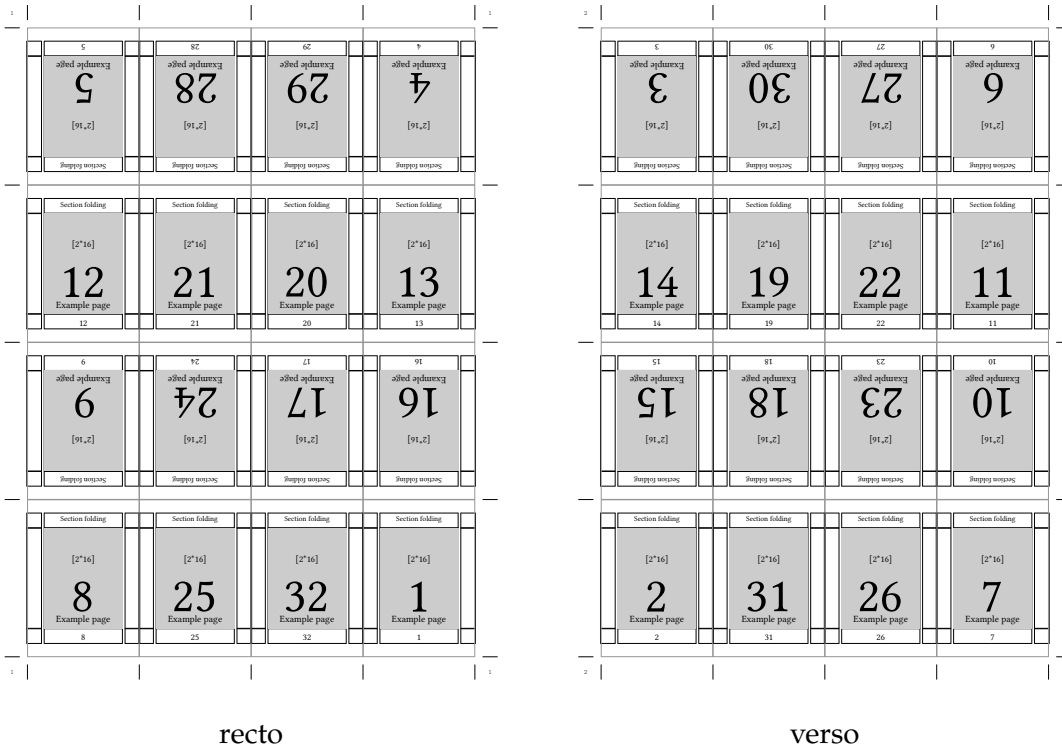


Figure 3.8 32 pages

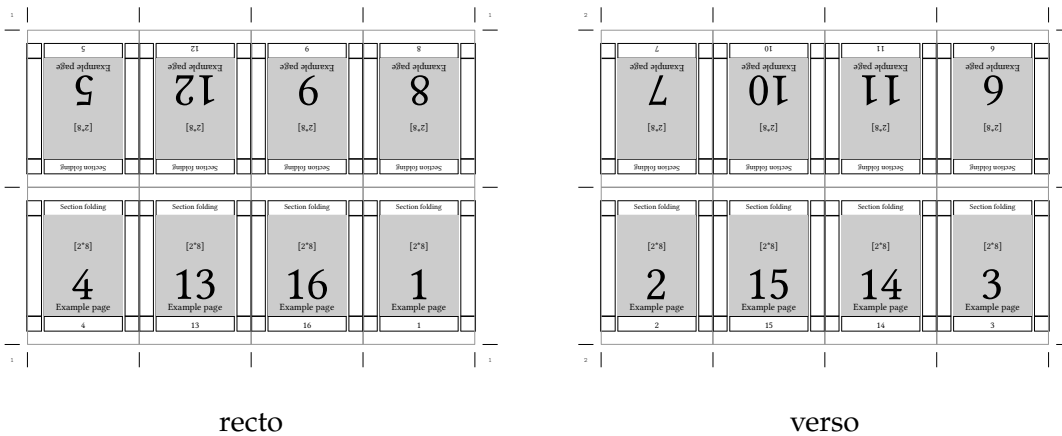


Figure 3.9 16 pages

‘2UP’ results in a booklet with the fold on the long edge of the page. ‘2DOWN’ gives a booklet with a short-edge binding of the pages.

For those who want to print their own book with sections on the office printer ConTeXt offers four schemes which use 2, 3 and 4 sheets of paper respectively to form a section.

Arrangement	Result	Number of pages
<code>\setuparranging[2*4*2]</code>	section: 2 sheets, 4 pages front and backside =	16 pages
<code>\setuparranging[2*2*4]</code>	section: 4 sheets, 2 pages front and backside =	16 pages



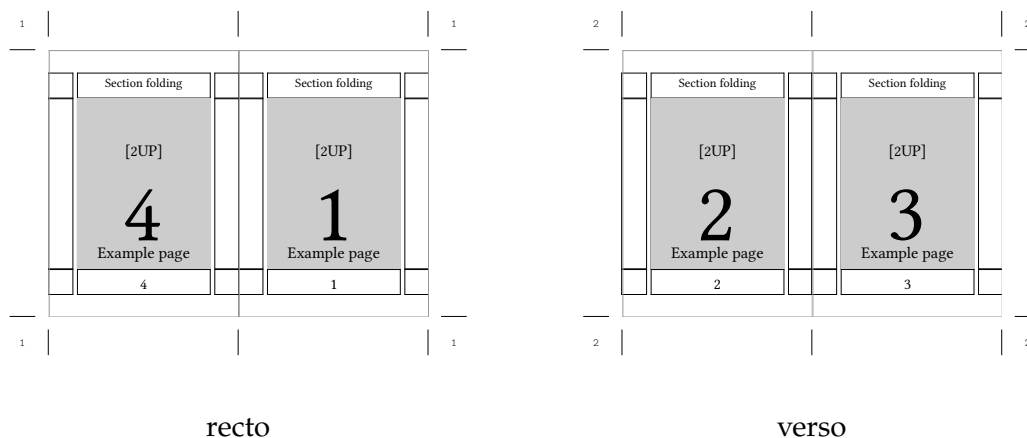


Figure 3.10 2 UP booklet: long edge binding

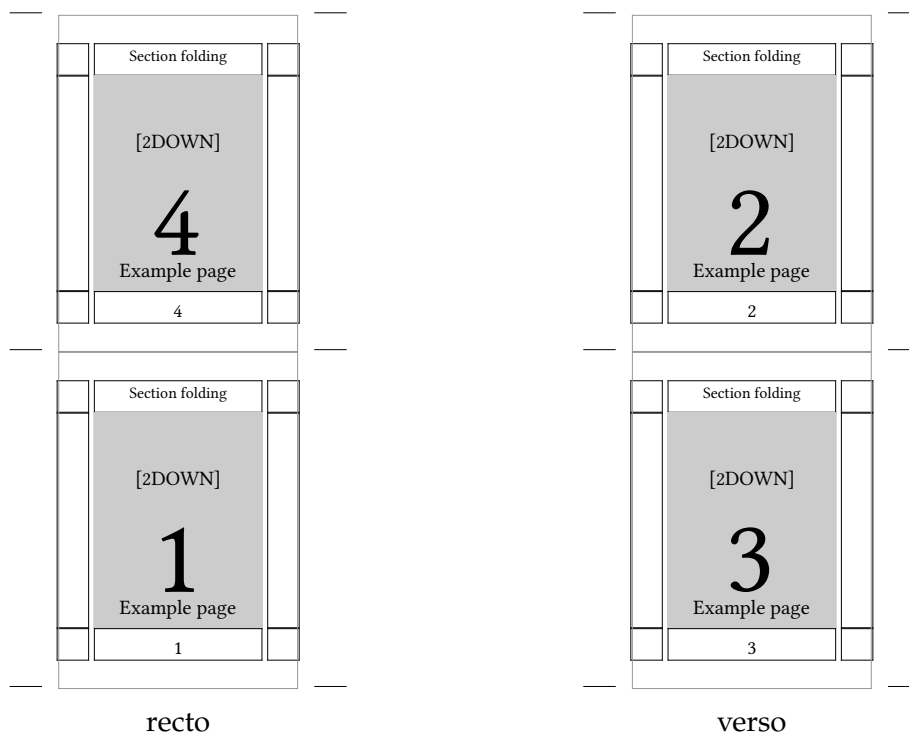


Figure 3.11 2 DOWN booklet: short edge binding

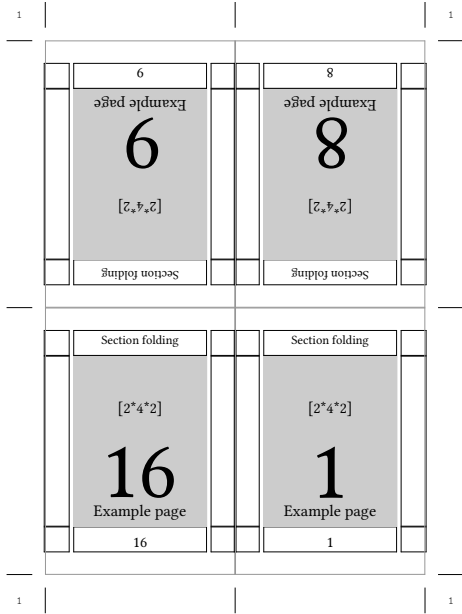
```

\setuparranging[2*2*2] section: 2 sheets 2 × 2 pages           =          8 pages
\setuparranging[2*2*3] section: 3 sheets 2 × 2 pages           =          12 pages

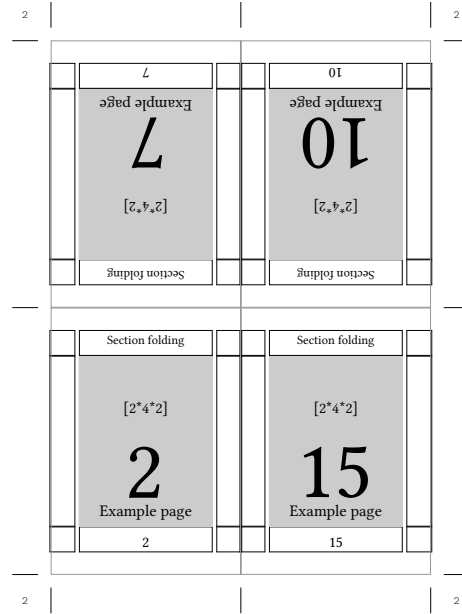
```

Yet another way to print sections is to use z-folding, which is a zig-zag folding combined with a single fold in the spine. ConTeXt comes with two types of sections, one with 12 pages and one with 16 pages.

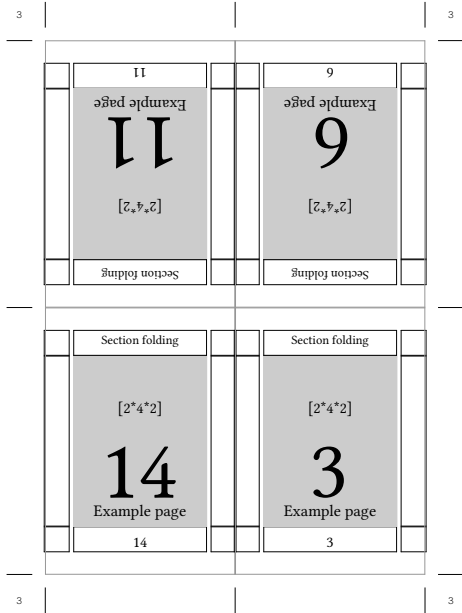
Next to the imposition schemes involving folding ConTeXt offers possibilities to arrange pages in such a way, that after cutting the pile of sheets book blocks can be assembled. The resulting



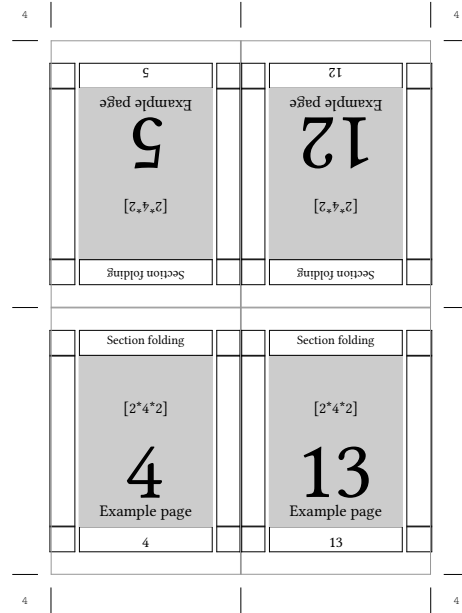
1<sup>st</sup> sheet recto



1<sup>st</sup> sheet verso



2<sup>nd</sup> sheet recto



2<sup>nd</sup> sheet verso

Figure 3.12 16 pages, 2 sheets

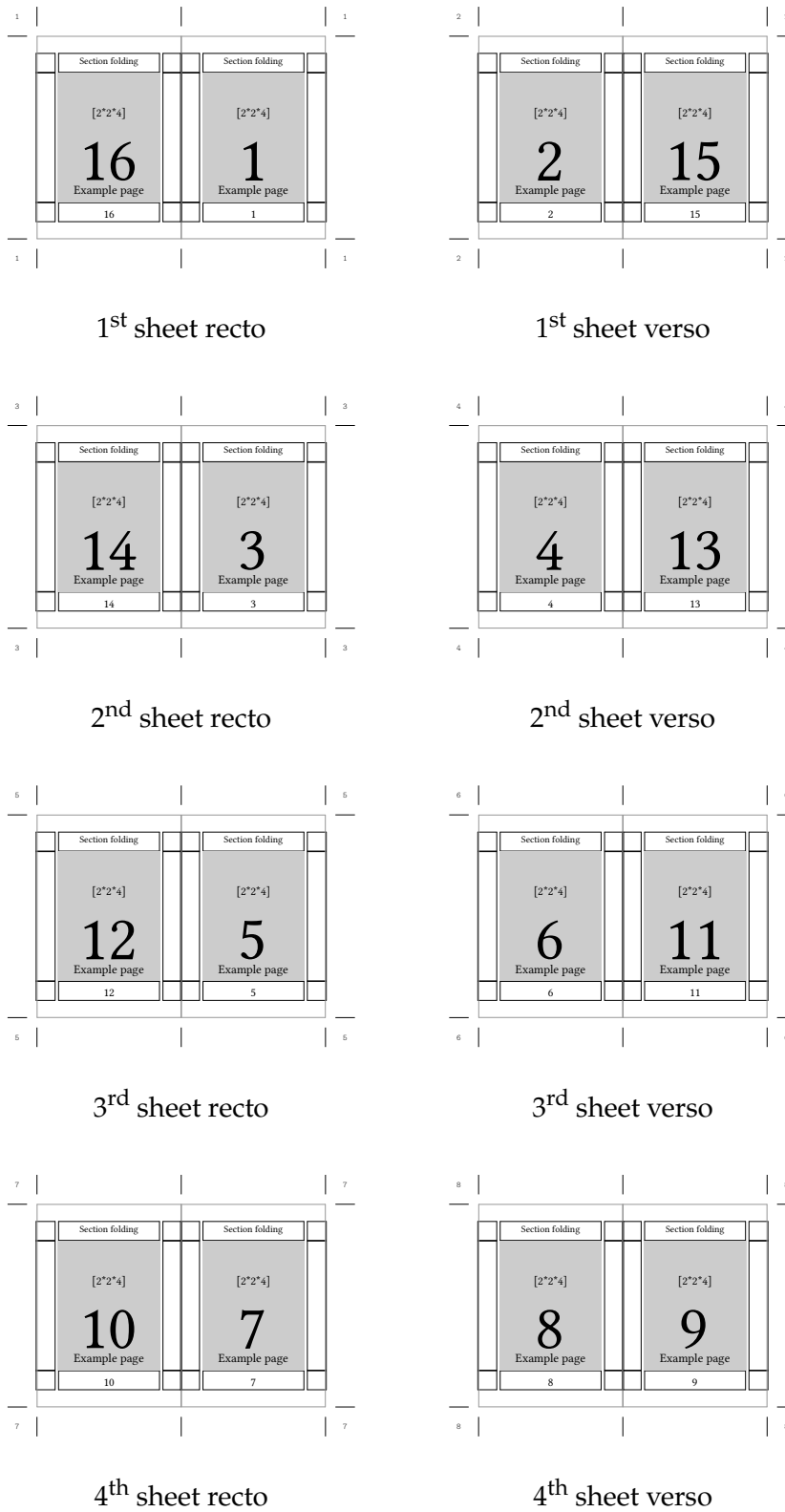
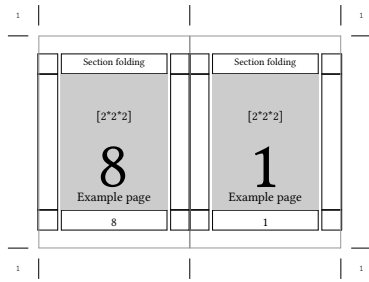
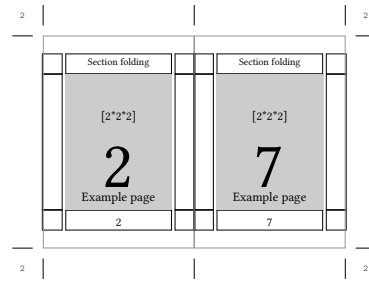


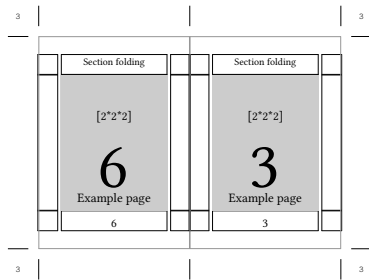
Figure 3.13 16 pages, 4 sheets



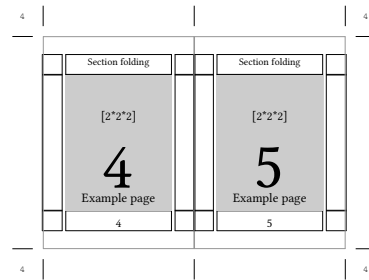
1<sup>st</sup> sheet recto



1<sup>st</sup> sheet verso

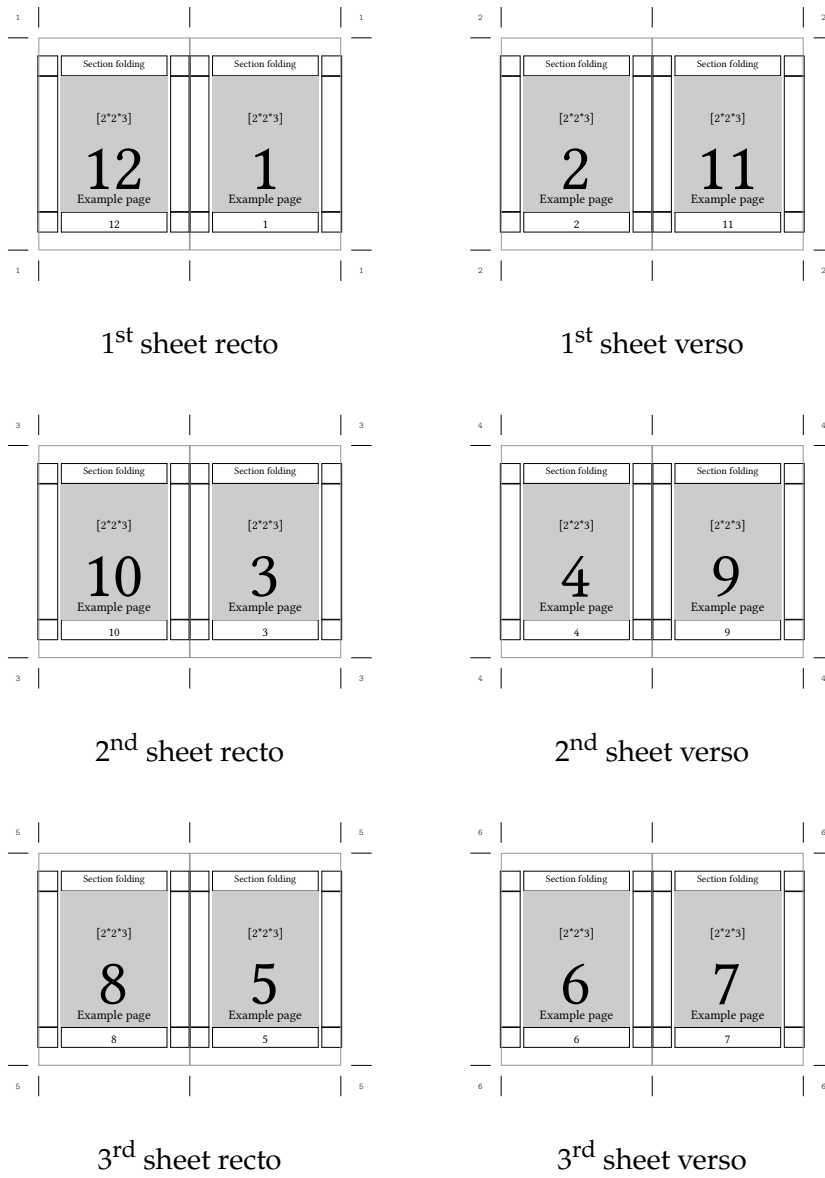


2<sup>nd</sup> sheet recto



2<sup>nd</sup> sheet verso

Figure 3.14 8 pages, 2 sheets



**Figure 3.15** 12 pages, 3 sheets

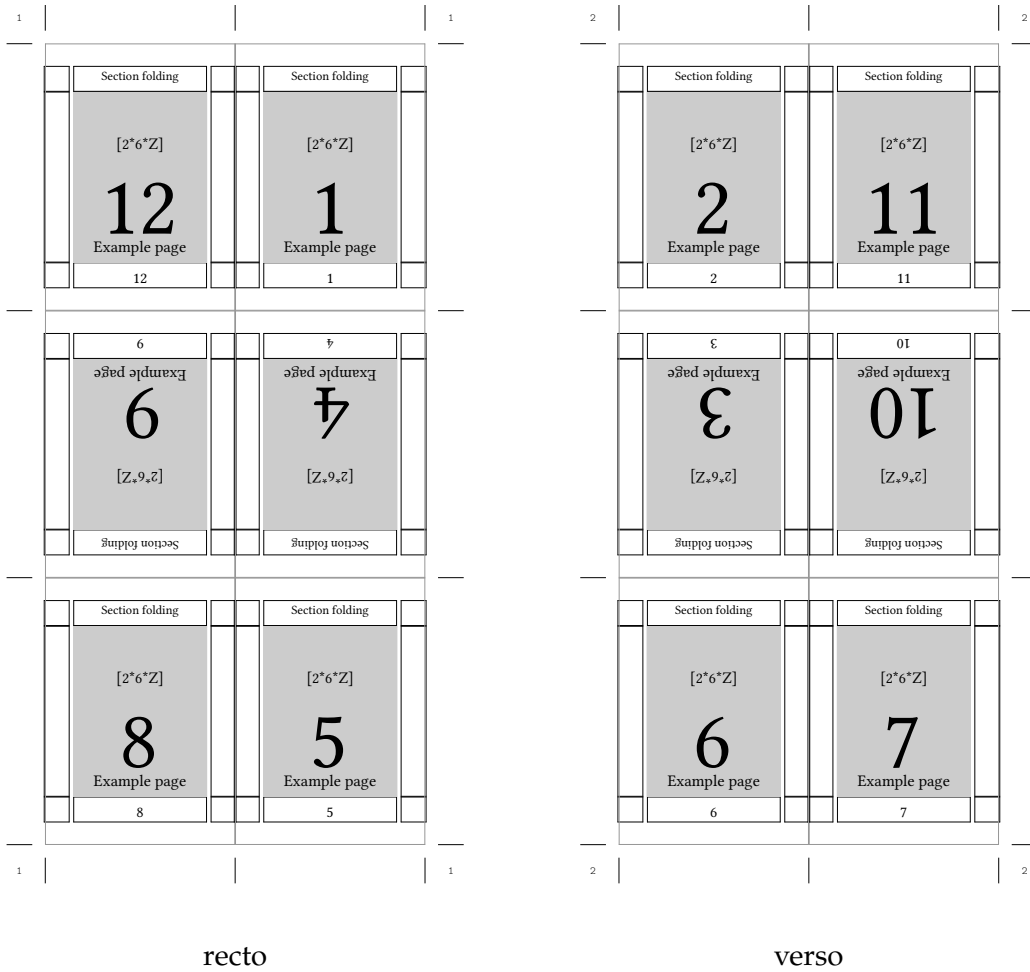


Figure 3.16 12 pages z-folding

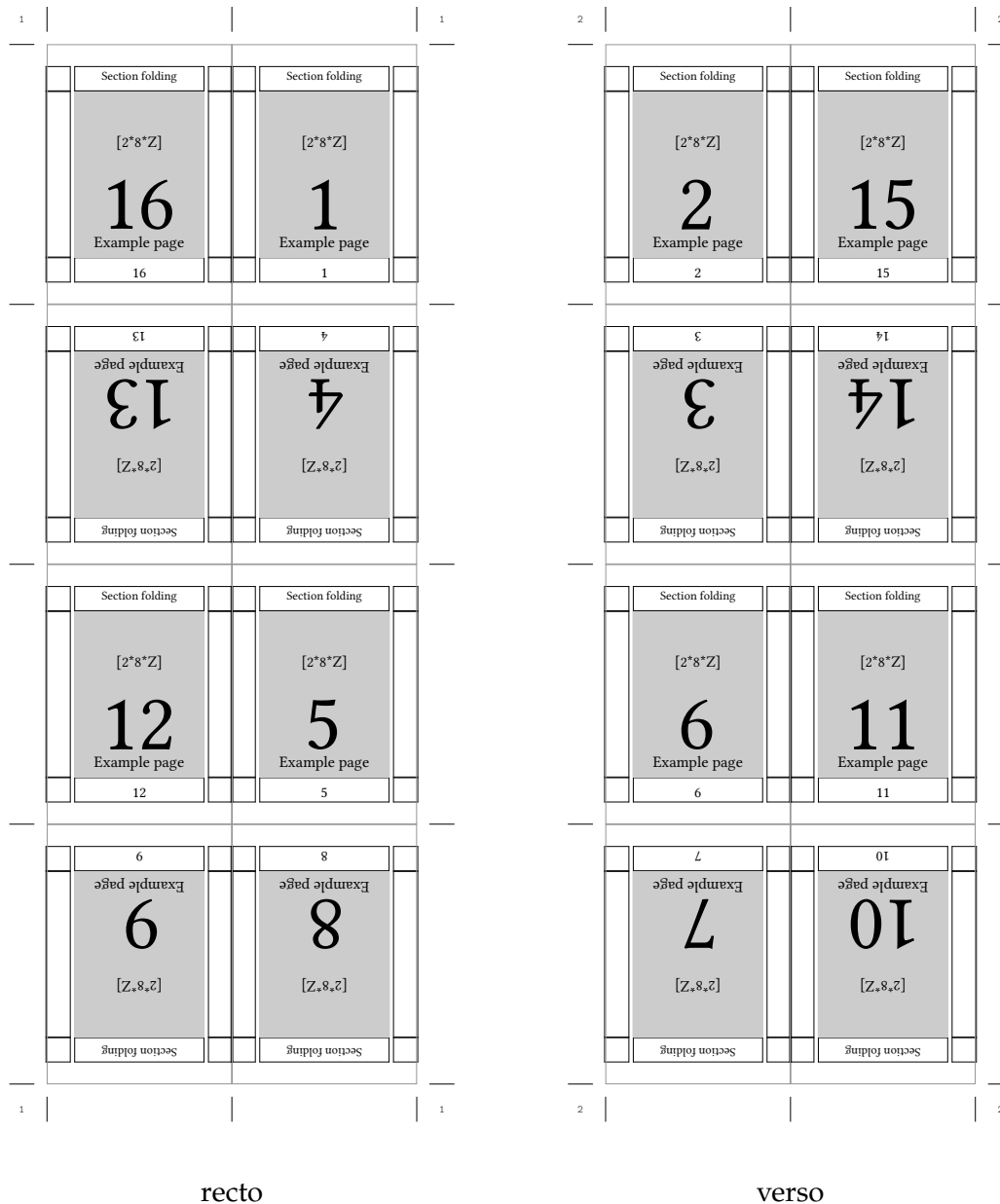
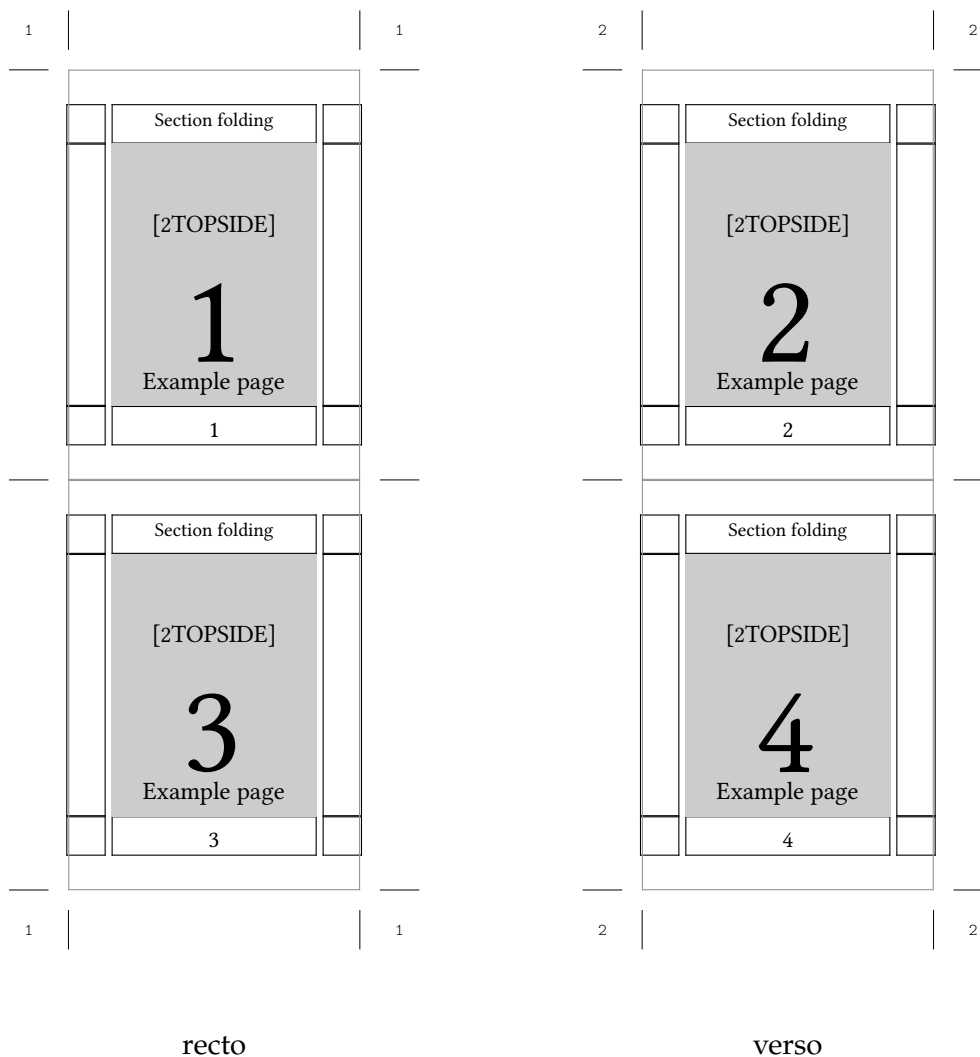


Figure 3.17 16 pages z-folding

book block consists of loose sheets of paper and will be glued along the spine to prepare e.g. a paperback.

ConTeXt has an arranging scheme for two odd pages above each other and two even pages on the backside of the sheet. In order to build the book block the sheets need to be cut and the two piles must be merged.

Arrangement	Result	Number of pages
<code>\setuparranging[2TOPSIDE]</code>	recto 2 odd pages, verso 2 even pages per sheet	= 4 pages



**Figure 3.18** 4 pages, 1 sheet

The following schemes can be used for the preparation of handouts from presentations. They also can be used to assemble book blocks after cutting and merging the piles.

The first scheme arranges 4 pages on the front side of the sheet.

The second scheme puts two pages on the front side of a sheet next to each other.

The third scheme works like the previous one but instead of putting the pages next to each other the pages are placed on top of each other.

Arrangement	Result	Number of pages
<code>\setuparranging[1*4]</code>	one sheet recto 4 pages =	4 pages
<code>\setuparranging[2SIDE]</code>	one sheet recto 2 pages =	2 pages
<code>\setuparranging[2TOP]</code>	one sheet recto 2 pages =	2 pages

There are a couple of arranging schemes for special purposes. The first one places 8 pages on the recto side of the paper. It is intentioned for single sided prints only. The arrangement is



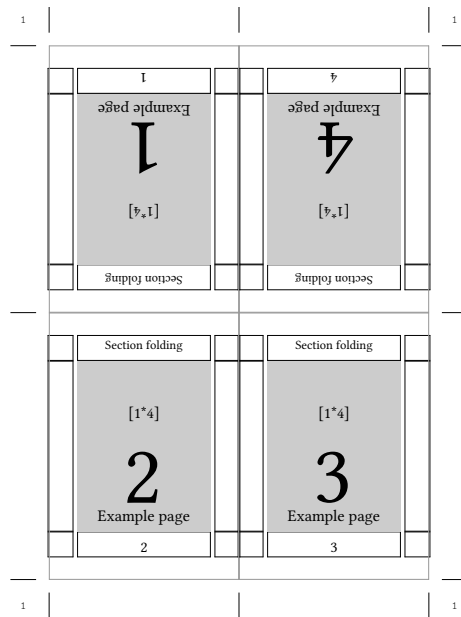
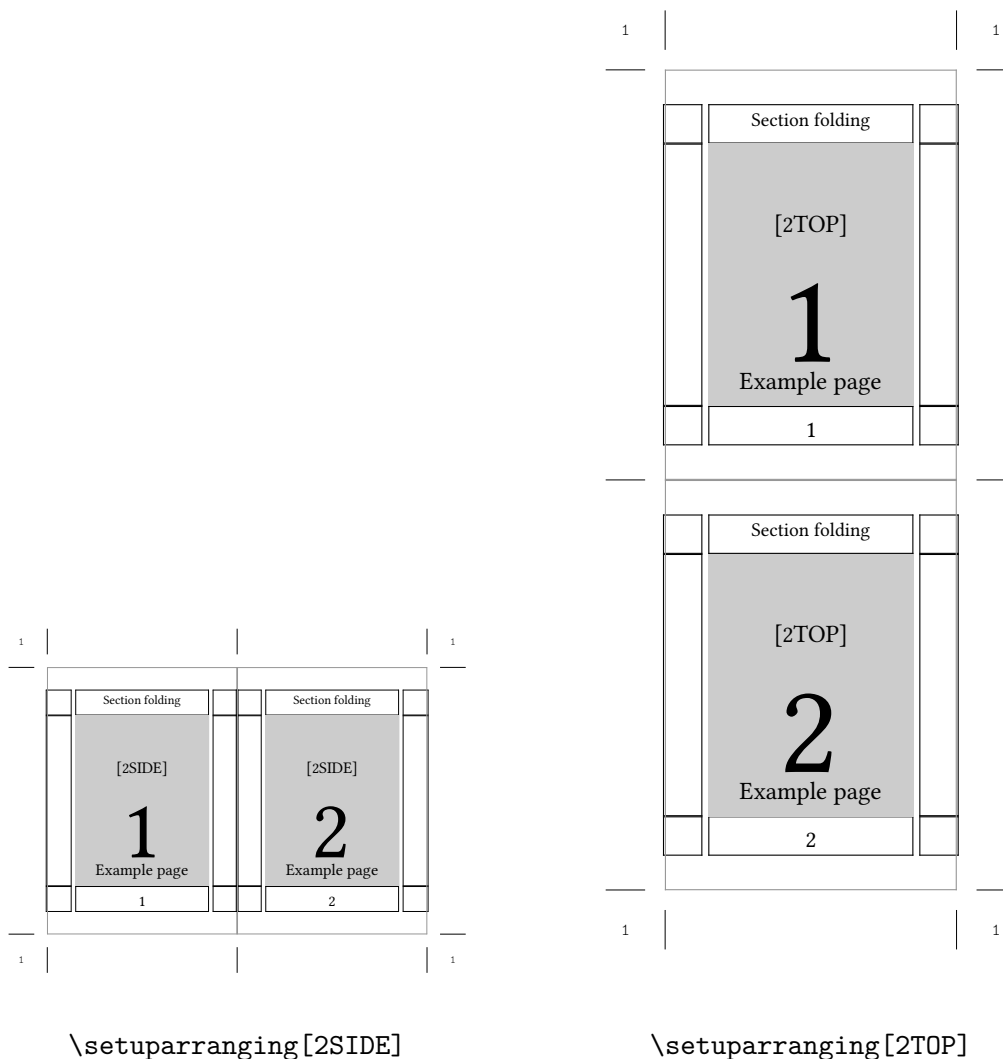


Figure 3.19 4 pages, singlesided, 1 sheet



**Figure 3.20** 2 pages, single sided, 1 sheet

made in such a way, that it is possible to fold the paper into a booklet, where while turning the pages now empty pages are shown.

<b>Arrangement</b>	<b>Result</b>	<b>Number of pages</b>
\setuparranging[1*8]	“section”: one sheet 1 × 8 pages =	8 pages

For those who will have to produce name-card displays for e.g. conferences or for the preparation of menu-displays in a restaurant the following schemes might be of use.

<b>Arrangement</b>	<b>Result</b>
\setuparranging[1*2*Conference]	one sheet 2 pages on top of each other, 1 page rotated
\setuparranging[1*4*Conference]	one sheet 2 odd pages next to each other, even page rotated on top

There are diary systems, where three pages are placed next to each other. The following scheme provides this arranging scheme:

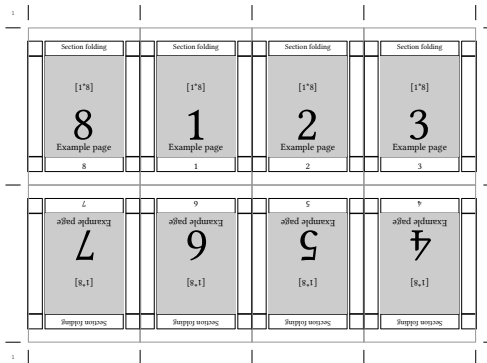
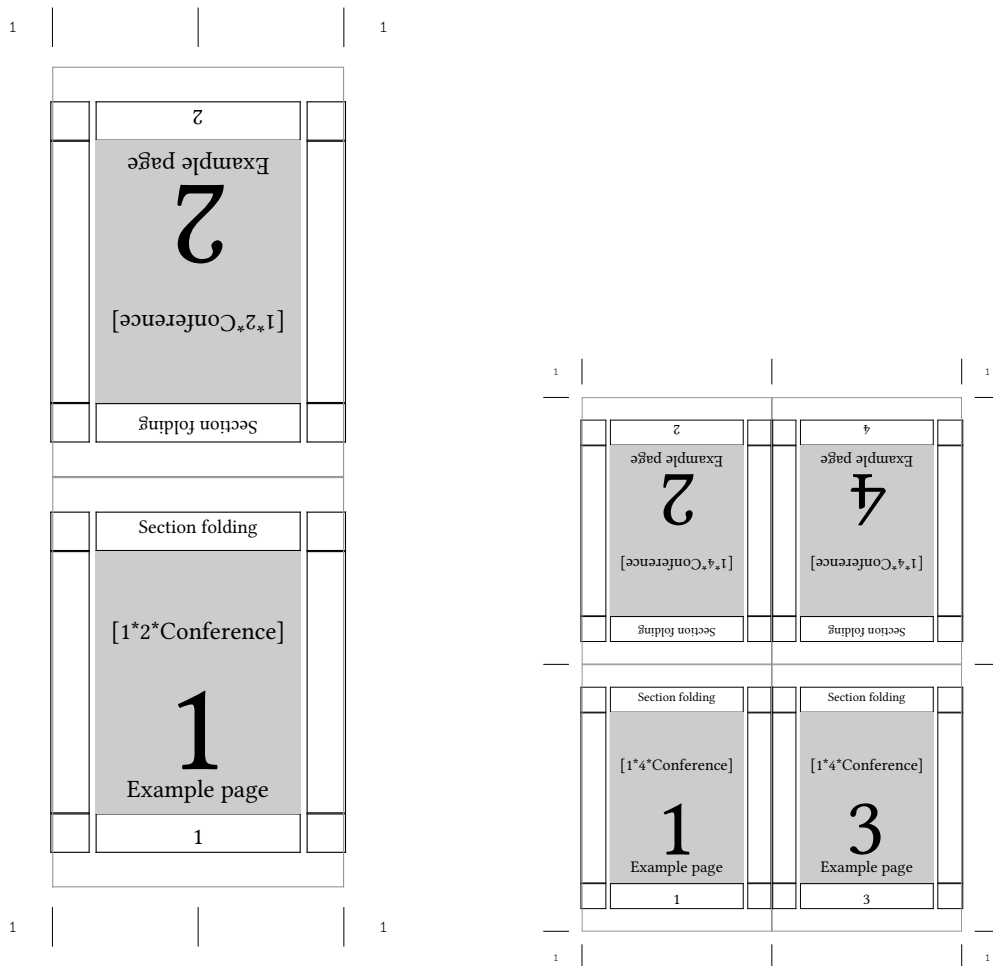


Figure 3.21 8 pages, single sided, 1 sheet



1 card with 2 pages

1 card with 4 pages

Figure 3.22 Display cards

Arrangement	Result	Number of pages
<code>\setuparranging[3SIDE]</code>	3 odd pages recto, 3 even pages verso =	6 pages

`ConTeXt` can also arrange pages for the production of flyers. There is a great variety of such flyers. `ConTeXt` supports flyers with 6, 8, 10 and 12 pages. It is also possible to make a flyer with 12 pages which is folded like a map.

Arrangement	Result	Number of pages
<code>\setuparranging[TRYPTICHON]</code>	Leaflet: one sheet 2 × 3 pages =	6 pages
<code>\setuparranging[DOUBLEWINDOW]</code>	Leaflet: one sheet 2 × 4 pages =	8 pages
<code>\setuparranging[ZFLYER-8]</code>	Leaflet: one sheet 2 × 4 pages =	8 pages
<code>\setuparranging[ZFLYER-10]</code>	Leaflet: one sheet 2 × 5 pages =	10 pages
<code>\setuparranging[ZFLYER-12]</code>	Leaflet: one sheet 2 × 6 pages =	12 pages
<code>\setuparranging[MAPFLYER-12]</code>	Leaflet: one sheet 2 × 6 pages =	12 pages

As a representative of the Z-folded flyers the flyer with 8 pages is shown.

Last but not least is the X-Y-arrangement of pages. This scheme is intended for the placement of a number of pages in sequence on a single sided sheet of paper e.g. on sheets carrying labels or for the placement of other information which must return several times on a sheet.

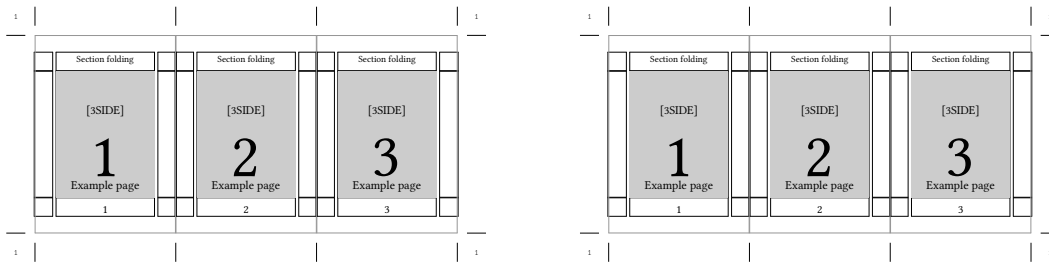
Before issuing the command `\setuparranging[XY]` the xy-arrangement must be setup. For this purpose the command `\setuppaper[...]` is used.

```
\setuppaper [..,..*..,..]
*  paper      = IDENTIFIER
   page       = IDENTIFIER
   nx         = NUMBER
   ny         = NUMBER
   width      = DIMENSION
   height     = DIMENSION
   topspace   = DIMENSION
   backspace  = DIMENSION
   option     = max fit
```

'nx' denominates the number of pages in the x-direction and 'ny' determines the number of pages in the y-direction. With 'dx' and 'dy' the whitespace between the pages in x and y direction can be set.

Arrangement	Result	Number of pages
<code>\setuparranging[XY] +</code> <code>\setuppaper [dx=,dy=,nx=,ny=]</code>	$nx \times ny$ pages, single sided =	$n \times m$ pages

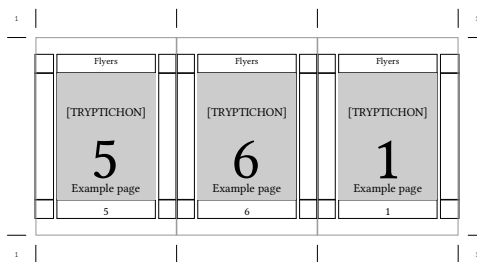
There is culprit in arranging pages. If multiple layers of paper are folded, the outermost paper will require more width because it has to turn around the inner paper layers. This effect occurs as well in the spine folds as also in the head folds. How much width is required depends on the number of folds and the thickness of the paper. In professional book printing this effect is accounted for by displacing the pages depending on their position in horizontal and vertical direction. The result is that there will be a perfect look-through registering of all pages. There are no simple rules to indicate the required amount of displacement. Mostly it is a matter of experience to set up the page shift information.



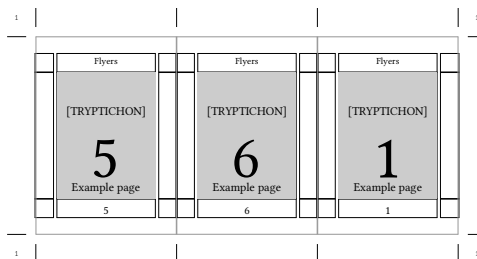
3 pages recto

3 pages verso

Figure 3.23 3 pages per side

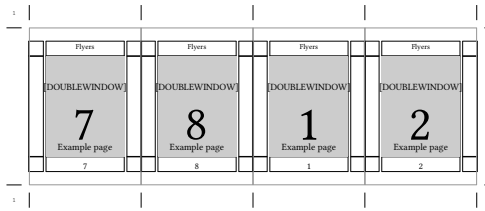


3 pages recto

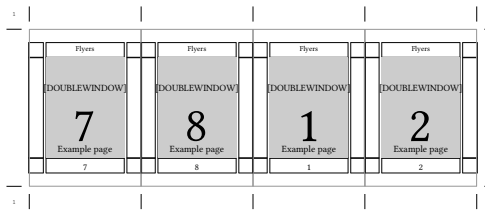


3 pages verso

Figure 3.24 Tryptichon type of flyer

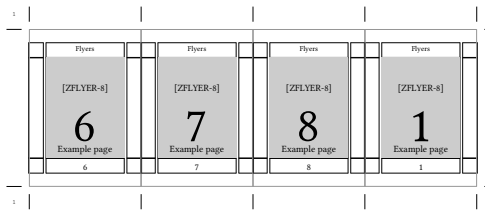


4 pages recto

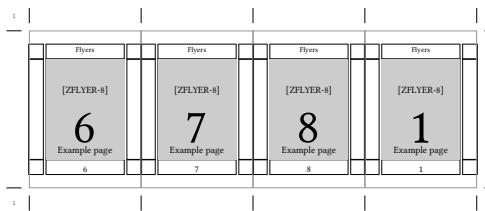


4 pages verso

**Figure 3.25** Double window type of flyer

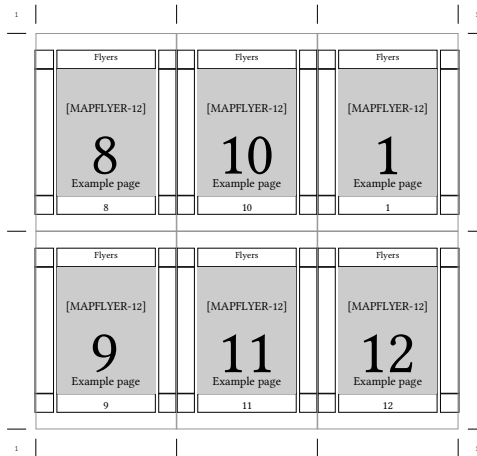


4 pages recto

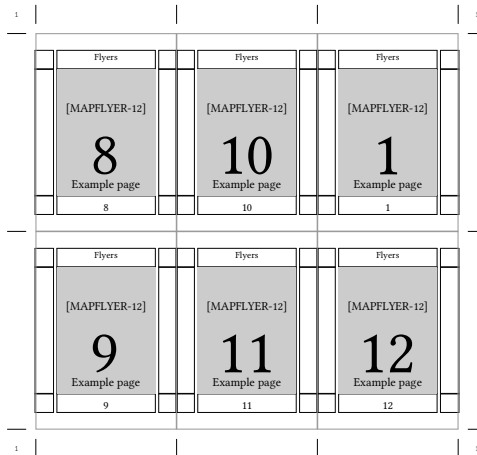


4 pages verso

**Figure 3.26** Z-folded type of flyer

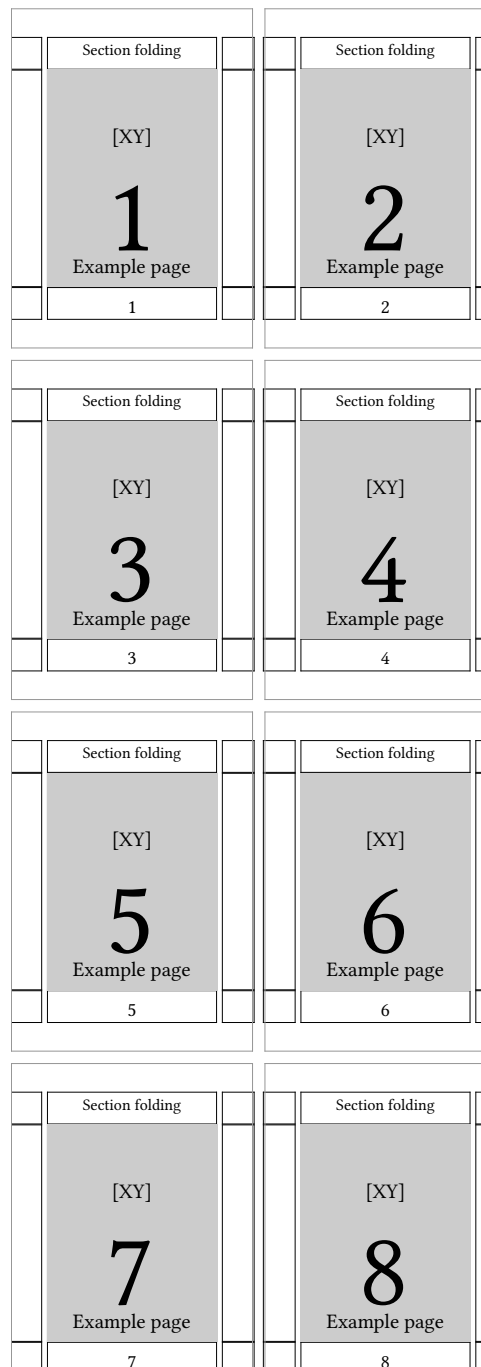


6 pages recto



6 pages verso

Figure 3.27 Map type of flyer



**Figure 3.28** 8 pages, singlesided, 1 sheet, XY-arrangement

ConTeXt is equipped with a mechanism, which allows to move pages on a sheet apart from each other in horizontal as well as in vertical direction. The mechanism is build on two shift-lists, one for horizontal and one for vertical page shifting. The mechanism works through cycling over the lists which contain a shift amount for each page in a section. For filling in such a shift-list knowledge and understanding the position of a page on the printed sheet is necessary.

In order to use a horizontal shift list this list must be defined and setup.



For a section of 16 pages a horizontal shift list is filled in where for each page the amount of displacement is given. Such a list could look as follows:

```
\definepageshift[Hor][horizontal]
  [0.25mm, %1
  -0.25mm, %2
  0.15mm, %3
  -0.15mm, %4
  0.05mm, %5
  -0.05mm, %6
  0mm, %7
  0mm, %8
  0mm, %9
  0mm, %10
  0.05mm, %11
  -0.05mm, %12
  0.15mm, %13
  -0.15mm, %14
  0.25mm, %15
  -0.25mm] %16
```

For illustration purposes the following list for horizontal page-shift with exaggerated values is used in a Z-folding with 12 pages.

**FIXME:** Why do we need an explicit page break here?

```

\definepageshift [Hor] [horizontal]
  [1mm, %1
  -1mm, %2
  0.5mm, %3
  -0.5mm, %4
  0mm, %5
  0mm, %6
  0mm, %7
  0mm, %8
  0.5mm, %9
  -0.5mm, %10
  1mm, %11
  -1mm] %12

```

In a similar fashion also vertical shift lists can be defined.

```

\definepageshift [Vert] [vertical]
  [1.5mm, %1
  1.25mm, %2
  0.75mm, %3
  1.0mm, %4
  1.0mm, %5
  0.75mm, %6
  1.25mm, %7
  1.5mm, %8
  1.5mm, %9
  1.25mm, %10
  0.75mm, %11
  1.0mm, %12
  1.0mm, %13
  0.75mm, %14
  1.25mm, %15
  1.5mm] %16

```

For each page in a section the shift amount must be indicated. The above presented list has exaggerated values just for making clear what happens:

While arranging these lists can be used in the following way:

Only one list is used:

```
\setuppageshift [paper] [Hor]
```

or

```
\setuppageshift [paper] [Vert]
```

Both lists are used:

```
\setuppageshift [paper] [Hor] [Vert]
```

The next examples show the cooperation of the commands `\setuppapersize`, `\setuplayout` and `\setuparranging`.

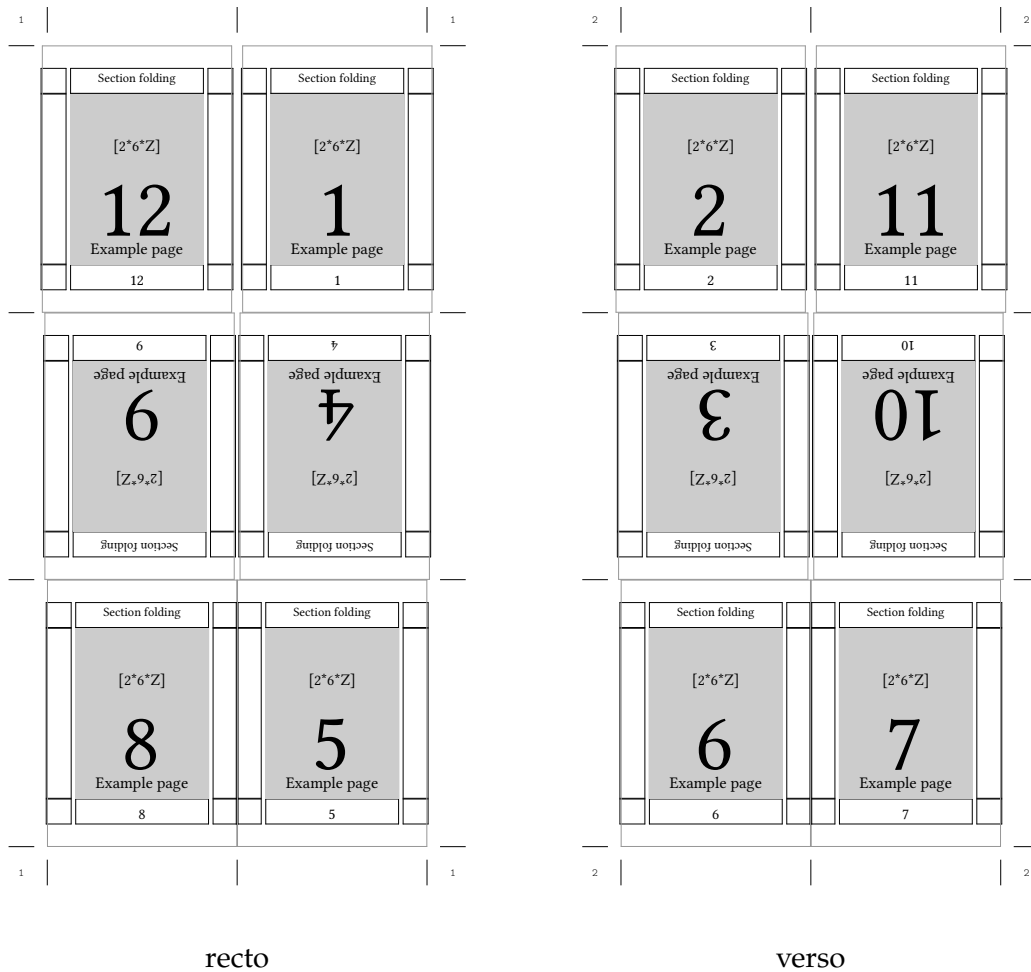


Figure 3.29 Horizontal page-shift

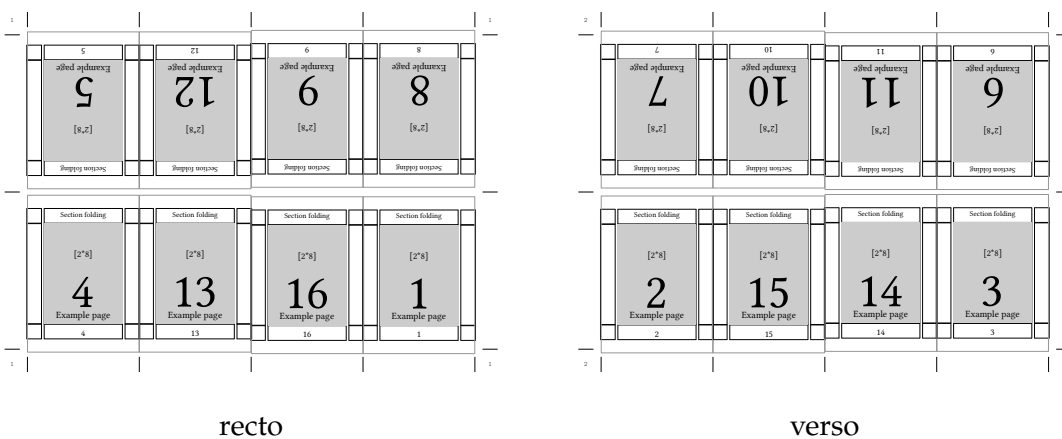


Figure 3.30 Vertical page-shift

`\setuppapersize [A7] [A3,mirrored] %negative creates an out of memory error in Acrobat 8.2.2. on the Mac OSX 10.6.3`

```
\setuparranging      [2*8,rotated,doublesided]
\setuppagenumbering [alternative=doublesided]
```

With the above shown preamble you get sections of 16 pages of the size of A7, where both sides of the A3 paper carry 8 pages [2\*8]. For two reasons the A7 pages must be rotated on the paper. First in this imposition scheme there will be 4 A7 pages next to each other so they need to be aligned along the long edge of the A3. Secondly and this is important for book-printing, the grain direction of the paper must be in the direction of the spine i.e. in the height of the A7. Since A3 has its grain direction normally along the short edge it is correct to rotate the A7 pages. Further more there is the ‘doublesided’ directive in the `\setuparranging` command. This is to rotate the whole content of the verso side of the A3 paper by 180° in order to enable automatic double sided printing on the printing machine. `\setuppagenumbering` tells ConTeXt to use a doublesided lay-out, resulting in left and right pages.

Yet there is inside the `\setuppapersize` command the directive ‘mirrored’. Using this directive, the content of the A3 paper is mirrored along the long edge of the paper, this results in mirrored typeset text.

```
\setuppapersize     [A5] [A3]
\setuparranging      [2UP,rotated,doublesided]
\setuppagenumbering [alternative=doublesided]
```

What this does is placing two A5 pages side by side on a A3 sheet of paper. Both the page and the paper are in portrait orientation. Because A5 fits better on a A3 when the page is rotated the `\setuparranging` command carries the ‘rotated’ directive. The resulting sheet of paper will be printed on an automatic double-sided printing machine. Often these machines require, that the verso side of the paper is printed reversed, this is achieved with ‘doublesided’ in the `\setuparranging` command.

Instead of using the ‘rotated’ directive in `\setuparranging` you can also say:

```
\setuppapersize     [A7] [A3,landscape]
\setuparranging      [2*8,doublesided]
\setuppagenumbering [alternative=doublesided]
```

You rotate the A3 paper by means of the ‘rotated’ directive in `\setuppapersize`.

There is one thing which should be kept in mind when using `\setuparranging`: TeX compilations with ConTeXt are most of the time multi-pass runs. If there is a table of content or other lists, this information is stored in auxiliary files or tables in LuaTeX. In order not to lose the content of those lists it is important to run the file first without the `\setuparranging` command enabled. If all went well, run the file a single time with the `\setuparranging` command enabled.

## 3.8 Logo types

Logos were removed in mkiv.

# 4 Layout

**TODO:** Split this chapter, it is much too large even in it's current incomplete state

## 4.1 Introduction

The look of a publication is determined by the page design, the chosen fonts and other aspects like vertical spacing. In this chapter we will explore the latter. Sometimes we will go into detail but a novice user can skip such parts. In normal applications, the default setups are most adequate, because they will adapt to the different situations. For the impatient reader we will just mention a few setups. Spacing between paragraphs is defined by:

```
\setupwhitespace[big]
```

In your source file you can best use an empty line between paragraphs. This increases readability and it makes the typing of `\par` at the end of each paragraph obsolete. Indentation at every new paragraph is obtained by:

```
\setupindenting[medium]
```

A doublesided publication is generated when you type:

```
\setuppagenumbering[alternative=doublesided]
```

As you might expect this might generate page numbering on the right and left hand side of a paper and the margins will be mirrored automatically.

As we have said before only the curious have to read on.

## 4.2 Paragraphs

The most important unit in  $\TeX$  is paragraph. A new paragraph is forced by:

1. an empty line
2. the  $\TeX$ -command `\par` or `\endgraf`
3. the  $\text{Con}\TeX\text{t}$ -command `\paragraph`

The first alternative is the most obvious. You will obtain a readable input file (ascii file) and errors are minimized. The second alternative is chosen when it is mandatory to the used command. For example in definitions (see [13.2](#)).

## 4.3 Indentation

When a text has little whitespacing, for example in a novel, it is a custom to indent each new paragraph. Indentation is setup with:

```
\setupindenting [...*...]
```

```
* never none not no yes always first next small medium big normal odd even DIMENSION
```

By default there is ‘no’ indentation. When indentation is turned on, when possible the commands will determine whether indentation is necessary. For example, it doesn’t look good to indent after a vertical whitespace. In a number of cases it is even undesirable to indent. Think for example of headers and itemizations.

This manual is typeset without indentation. The great quantity of short sentences and examples would result in a very messy page layout.

When indentation is used, we may have to tell T<sub>E</sub>X in some cases *not* to indent. This is done by:

```
\noindenting
```

We can set up indenting by:

```
\indenting [...*...]
```

```
* never none not no yes always first next small medium big normal odd even DIMENSION
```

The meaning of the setups is described in **table 4.1**. Next to the commands described above we could use the T<sub>E</sub>X-commands `\indent` and `\noindent`.

setup	result
no / not	don’t indent the next paragraph
yes / always	turn on indentation
never	turn off indentation
first	indent first paragraphs too
next	don’t indent first paragraphs

**Table 4.1** The way of indenting.

The settings `first` and `next` determine if paragraphs following whitespace should be indented or not. It is a sort of custom not to indent these.

A text may be typeset smaller than the default textwidth. In that case the complete text will be indented on both sides.

```
\startnarrower [...*... ] ... \stopnarrower
```

OPTIONAL

```
* left middle right
```

For example:

```
\startnarrower[3*left,2*right]
```

```
The relatively small revolution in in Russia in 1917 had big consequences  
for
```

```

this country as well as the rest of the world. It is interesting to see
that
some 80-years later a just as small revolution was needed to undo the 1917
one. In both cases, the main reason for the revolutions was to prevent
democracy from arising.
\stopnarrower

```

Will become:

The relatively small revolution in in Russia in 1917 had big consequences for this country as well as the rest of the world. It is interesting to see that some 80 years later a just as small revolution was needed to undo the 1917 one. In both cases, the main reason for the revolutions was to prevent democracy from arising.

Next to using `left`, `right` and `middle` also combinations and manifolds are possible. Indentation in the example above could have obtained by typing `2*middle, left`. So, `middle` is equivalent to `left, right`.

The value of indentation is set up by:

```

\setupnarrower [...,*... ]
* left   = DIMENSION
  right  = DIMENSION
  middle = DIMENSION

```

## 4.4 Vertical spacing (whitespacing)

Vertical spacing between paragraphs is set up by:

```

\setupwhitespace [...*]
                    OPTIONAL
* none small medium big line fixed fix DIMENSION

```

Instead of a random value it is better to use one of the pre defined dimension. Default there is no vertical spacing. Without any set up values the vertical spacing is related to the actual fontsize.

Vertical spacing can be forced by either:

```
\whitespace
```

```
\nowhitespace
```

These commands have only effect when vertical spacing is set up. In fact these commands will not be necessary for ConTEXt takes care of most situations.

$\TeX$  handles vertical spacing around lines quite different from that around text. In case these problematic situations occur one can use the following commands. Spacing around figures and tables is dealt with by  $\text{Con}\TeX$ t, so only use these commands when the typeset text looks really bad.

```
\startlinecorrection ... \stoplinecorrection
```

For example:

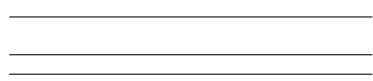
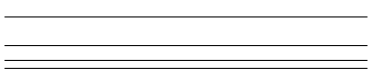
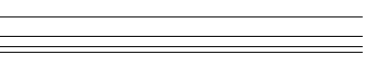
```
\startlinecorrection
\framed{To boxit or not, that's a delicate question!}
\stoplinecorrection
```

One can add vertical spacing with the  $\TeX$  command `\vskip`, but please don't. We advise you to use:

```
\blank [...*...]
      OPTIONAL
* small medium big nowhite back white disable force reset line halfline FORMULA fixed
  flexible none always outer joinedup
```

We can use a value of one of the keywords `small`, `medium` or `big`. A big jump is twice a medium jump which is four times a small jump. A value however can be left out (`\blank`) when the default vertical space is desired. It is advisable to set up the vertical spacing only once in the setup area of your document. Local alterations throughout your document will result in a badly-spaced document.

Normally there is some stretch in the vertical spacing. This enables  $\TeX$  to fill out a page optimally. In the next example we see what happens when we add stretch to whitespace. Each sample shows from top to bottom three `\blank`'s of `big`, `medium` and `small`. The left and right sample show the range of the stretch. The rightmost sample shows that adding stretch can result in shrink.

		
maximum stretch	no stretch	minimal stretch

The last vertical space can be undone by typing `\blank[back]` and the next blank can be blocked by `disable`. With `reset` a `disable` is ignored.

The command `\blank` is one of the more advanced commands. The next call is allowed:

```
\blank[2*big,medium,disable]
```

Since `medium` is half the amount of `big`, this results in adding a vertical spaces of 2.5 times `big`. The previous vertical space will be undone automatically and the `disable` suppressed the next `\blank`.

A lasting vertical space can be sustained by `force`. For example, if you want some extra spacing at the top of a page you will have to type `force`.

The default vertical spaces are set up with:



```
\setupblank [.*.]
          OPTIONAL
* normal default standard line halfline DIMENSION big medium small fixed flexible global
  unknown
```

An example of such a definition is:

```
\setupblank[big]
```

The vertical spaces will be automatically adapted to the fontsize and they are flexible. Changing the default set up locally is therefore not advisable. Without an argument `\setupblank` adapts to the actual fontsize!

The keywords `fixed` and `flexible` are used to end or reinstate this adaptive characteristic. In columns it is recommended to use the setup `[fixed,line]` or the opposite setup `[flexible,standard]`.

This text is typeset a bodyfont of 11 pt and is downscaled by a few percent. The setup that is used in this document is shown in [table 4.2](#). We see some stretch in the vertical spacing. The stretching enables T<sub>E</sub>X to fill out a page satisfactorily. Default the maximal vertical space is 75% of the line space and the stretch maximal of 25%.

setup	value
small	2.59297pt plus 0.86432pt minus 0.86432pt
medium	5.18594pt plus 1.72864pt minus 1.72864pt
big	10.37189pt plus 3.45729pt minus 3.45729pt
line	13.8292pt

**Table 4.2** The whitespace values to a 11 pt bodyfont.

In paragraph ?? it was said that the vertical spacing can be set up with the command `\setupwhitespace`. Default there is no whitespace between paragraphs. The setup of vertical spacing and line spacing are related to each other.

Instead of direct setup you can use an indirect way. This has the advantage that you can change the layout more easily. In that case we use:

```
\defineblank [.^.] [.^.]
1 IDENTIFIER
2 inherits from \setupblank
```

If we type for example:

```
\defineblank[aroundverbatim][medium]
```

than `aroundverbatim` is equal to `medium`, which can be used, for example `around verbatim`, as in:

```
\setuptyping
[before={\blank[aroundverbatim]}],
```

```
after={\blank[aroundverbatim]}
```

If we want some more whitespacing we only have to change the definition of `aroundverbatim`:

```
\defineblank[aroundverbatim][big]
```

The vertical spacing between two lines can be suppressed with the command:

```
\packed
```

Vertical spacing between more than one line is suppressed by:

```
\startpacked [...] ... \stoppacked
      OPTIONAL
* blank
```

The spacing around ‘packed’ text is automatically corrected. Opposed to this command is:

```
\startunpacked ... \stopunpacked
```

Skipping more than one vertical space is done with:

```
\godown [...]
* DIMENSION
```

One of the most important lessons to be learned is to avoid using `\vskip` in running text. This can interfere with some hidden mechanisms of ConT<sub>E</sub>Xt.

Sometimes T<sub>E</sub>X is not able to sort out spacing on its own. In such situations one can insert the next command at the troublesome location.

```
\correctwhitespace {...}
* CONTENT
```

Normally one will not need this command, although sometimes when writing macros, it can be added to make sure that the spacing is okay. Use this kind of tweaking with care!

## 4.5 Word spacing

Default a space is placed after a period that ends a sentence. In some countries it is custom to stretch the space after a period. Especially documents typeset in small columns will look better that way. Because this is a language specific feature. the default depends on the language. One can however (temporarily) change this spacing.

```
\setupspacing [...]
* broad packed
```

In many cases we combine words and numbers that should not be separated at linebreaking, for example number 12. These combinations can be connected by a tight space: `number~12`. Word and number will never be separated at linebreaking on that spot. A space can be made visible by:

```
\space
```

Undesired spaces can be suppressed by:

```
\nospace
```

When you want to align a row of numbers you can use tight spaces with the width of a number. Tight spaces are activated by:

```
\fixedspaces
```

After this command the `~` (tilde) generates a tight space with the width of a number.

## 4.6 Struts

A strut is a little invisible block without width but with the maximal height and depth of a character or line. If you want to force these maximal dimensions, for example when you are using boxes in your own commands, than you can use the command `\strut`:

```
\hbox{\strut test}
```

If we leave out the strut in this example the box has no depth. The characters in the word `test` don't reach under the baseline. Compare for example `\hbox{test}` (with strut) with `\hbox{test}`.

Many commands use struts automatically. If for some reason you don't want struts you can try to suppress them by `\setnostrut`. However take care that this command works only locally. A strut can be set by `\setstrut`.

The struts that are used by ConT<sub>E</sub>Xt can be made visible with the command:

```
\showstruts
```

## 4.7 Text in the margin

**FIXME:** The syntax of the margin commands has changed in mark IV.

Texts can be placed in the margins with:

```
\inmargin [.1.] [.2.] {.3.}
          OPTIONAL OPTIONAL
1  + - low
2  REFERENCE
3  CONTENT
```

A new line in a margin text is forced with `\\`. An example of a margin text is:

```
\inmargin{the marginal\\influence of\\advertisement}It would be great
if the recent reduction in washing powder needed to get your wash
perfectly clean had resulted in an equal reduction of time needed to
advertise this kind of products.
```

or:

**the marginal influence of advertisement over here** It would be great if the recent reduction in washing powder needed to get your wash perfectly clean had resulted in an equal reduction of time needed to advertise this kind of products.

When this command is used in the middle of a paragraph the margin text will appear on the same line in the margin. The command `\inmargin` puts the text in the left or right margin. The location where the text will show up depends on the character of the document: single-sided or double-sided. You can also force the text into a specific margin, using:

```
\inleft [.1.] [.2.] {.3.}
        OPTIONAL OPTIONAL
1  + - low
2  REFERENCE
3  CONTENT
```

```
\inright [.1.] [.2.] {.3.}
         OPTIONAL OPTIONAL
1  + - low
2  REFERENCE
3  CONTENT
```

There is also:

```
\inothmargin [.1.] [.2.] {.3.}
             OPTIONAL OPTIONAL
1  + - low
2  REFERENCE
3  CONTENT
```

Some examples of the use of margin text appear below:

```
\startlines
\inleft{to be}\quotation{To be or not to be} to me
\inright{or not}is rather famous english
```

```
\inmargin{to be}And just as it is meant to be
that quote will never perish
\stoptlines
```

This will become:

**to be** “To be or not to be” to me  
is rather famous english

**or not**

**to be** And just as it is meant to be  
that quote will never perish

## 123

The mechanism of margin texts is rather complex. If you think of multiline margin texts and the alignment of these lines with the lines in the textbody you can imagine a few typographic problems. The number 123 next to this paragraph is not aligned but is typeset somewhat lower. This is done by adding the keyword `low`:

```
\inmargin[low]{\ssd 123}The mechanism of margin texts ...
```

It is possible to set up the way margin texts are typeset by means of the command:

**a rather marginal effect** With `align` we define the left or right alignment of the margin text. Default margin texts are right aligned. In this example alignment is middle.

We can also align on the left or right side automatically. In a double sided document design optimisation of the margin text may ask for more than one processing step. In the example below you see some of the possible setups.

**left** This is left aligned

**middle** but this goes in the middle. Don't forget that

**right** right in this sense, align means a ragged right margin.

**yes** Just to be complete, there is yes

**no** and no.

**inner** The outsiders inner and

**outer** outer adapt themselvs to a doublesided design.

The left and right margin can be set up separately by adding `[left]` or `[right]` as the first argument.

**that way we can move quite some text into the margin** With `before` and `after` we can influence margin texts. Bij default the same line spacing is used as in the textbody. But when a narrower fontsize is used we can also adapt the interline spacing. For example:

```
\setupmargindata
[style=\bfx\setupinterlinespace]
```

Page breaking and margin text are in conflict with each other. The reason is that  $\TeX$  first typesets a complete page in order to be able to determine the right spot for page breaking. However the margin text is already typeset at that moment. In a next processing stage the margin texts are typeset correctly. If you want to force margin texts in a margin you can type `\inmargin[+]`.

The next command can be compared with the command like `\section`. Before the command is placed in the margin  $\TeX$  looks if it can be placed on the actual page. If not, it is moved to the following page.

```

\margintext [.1.] [.2.] {.3.}
              OPTIONAL OPTIONAL
1  + - low
2  REFERENCE
3  CONTENT

```

The layout of your `ascii`-file will not interfere with the function of this command. This may seem obvious, but  $\TeX$  programmers know that it is not the case. For example even commands that take care of index entries can be typed close to the margin texts.

The layout of your `ascii`-file will not interfere with the function of this command. You might not expect it to, but  $\TeX$  programmers know that with  $\TeX$ , the layout of the source usually interferes with for instance margin texts and index entries. In `ConTeXt` commands that take care of margin texts take care of this situation, so that index entries can be typed close to the margin texts and margin texts can be separated from the next paragraph by an empty line. The same cannot be said for other  $\TeX$  macropackages.

```

\margintext{text in themargin}
\index{margintexts}

```

After experimenting a long time I have succeeded to filter empty lines and commands that stand between body texts and margin texts. It is amazing but the index entry really works.

Because of the close relation with the page design the margin width is set up by means of: `\setuplayout` (see [section 3.4](#)).

**Isn't this cute?** The command `\margintext` enables you to put texts in the margin that show completely different characteristics than that of the text body. You can typeset different margin texts with different characteristics like bodyfont, line spacing and offset.

```

\margintext{Isn't}
\margintext{this}
\margintext{cute?}

```

In the setup we see an optional argument. The number is determined by the order of definition.

```

\setupmargindata[1][align=right, line=1, style=slanted]
\setupmargindata[2][align=middle, line=2, style=boldslanted]
\setupmargindata[3][align=left, line=3, style=bold]

```

This means that the second `margintext` in a row will start on line 2, and be typeset in a bold slanted font. One can explicitly force a `margintext` to go some place, by saying for instance:

```

\margintext[2]{this is the second one}

```

## 4.8 Subscript and superscript

There are three commands to create superscript and subscript outside the math mode:

```
\high {...}
```

```
* CONTENT
```

```
\low {...}
```

```
* CONTENT
```

```
\lohi [.1.] {...} {...}
```

OPTIONAL

```
1 low
```

```
2 CONTENT
```

```
3 CONTENT
```

The next example illustrates the use of these commands:

You can walk on `\high {high}` heels or `\low {low}` heels but your height is still the same.

This results in:

You can walk on <sup>high</sup> heels or <sub>low</sub> heels but your height is still the same.

These commands relate to the `^` and `_` in math mode. In case of larger font sizes like `\tfc`, the `^` and `_` will not create the desired output. Compare the examples below:

```
test\high{test} test test$^{\rm test}$ test
{\bf test\high{test} test test$^{\bf test}$ test}
{\tfb test\high{test} test test$^{\tfb test}$ test}
```

This becomes:

```
testtest test testtest test
testtest test testtest test
testtest test testtest test
```

## 4.9 Columns

The  $\TeX$  programmer knows that it is not easy to put text in columns. Gratefully a  $\text{Con}\TeX$ t user is not bothered with the implementation of extensive macros.

You can typeset text in columns. Most commands can be used in a normal way without any problems. The floating object like tables or figures are somewhat limited. This is caused by the fact that  $\TeX$  has limited capabili-

ties for typesetting columns. For insiders: columns are produced with the primitives: `\output` and `\vsplit`.

The number of columns is unlimited, however  $\TeX$ 's memory can

only handle upto about twenty to thirty or fourty columns.

The number of columns and the type setting of a vertical line as a column separator is set up by:

```

\setupcolumns [...,.*,...]
                OPTIONAL
*   n           = NUMBER
    ntop        = NUMBER
    rule        = on off
    height      = DIMENSION
    tolerance   = verystRICT strict tolerant verytolerant stretch
    distance    = DIMENSION
    balance     = yes no
    align       = text inner outer left right flushleft flushright middle center normal no
                yes
    blank       = fixed halfline line flexible big medium small
    option      = background
    direction   = left right
    inherits from \setupframed

```

The `n` indicates the number of columns. The column text is enclosed by:

```

\startcolumns [...,.*,...] ... \stopcolumns
                OPTIONAL
*   inherits from \setupcolumns

```

The local setup of columns can be added directly after this command. A new column is forced by:

```
\column
```

The text below is typeset in two columns with a `verytolerant` alignment.

```

\startcolumns[rule=on,n=2,tolerance=verytolerant]
Thus, I came to the conclusion that the designer of a new
system must not only be the implementer and first
.
.
\bf D.E. Knuth
\stopcolumns

```

Thus, I came to the conclusion that the designer of a new system must not only be the implementer and first large-scale user; the designer should also write the first user manual.

The separation of any of these four components would have hurt  $\text{\TeX}$  significantly. If I had not participated fully in all these activities, literally hundreds of improvements would never have been made, because I

would never have thought of them or perceived why they were important.

But a system cannot be successful if it is too strongly influenced by a single person. Once the initial design is complete and fairly robust, the real test begins as people with many different viewpoints undertake their own experiments.

**D.E. Knuth**

This example makes it painfully obvious that spacing between lines is not on forehand equal. By default the line spacing in this document is `big`, which equals  $.75 \times \text{\lineheight}$ . Furthermore,



the allowable stretch in line spacing makes vertical alignment practically impossible.

For this reason the default line spacing is equal to the lineskip and stretching is not allowed. When a switch in fontsize is desirable you should do so before starting the column mechanism. Font switches within columns will have a poor result. The next example shows a line spacing equal to the lineskip.

Thus, I came to the conclusion that the designer of a new system must not only be the implementer and first large-scale user; the designer should also write the first user manual.

The separation of any of these four components would have hurt T<sub>E</sub>X significantly. If I had not participated fully in all these activities, literally hundreds of improvements would never have been made, because I

This effect is reached by the (default) setup:

```
\setupcolumns[blank={fixed,line}]
```

In [section 3.5](#) typesetting on a grid is explained. This mechanism works quite well within columns.

T<sub>E</sub>X is not an easy to learn typesetting system or program. The problem is that “knowing everything is possible” leads to “wanting everything that is possible”.

would never have thought of them or perceived why they were important.

But a system cannot be successful if it is too strongly influenced by a single person. Once the initial design is complete and fairly robust, the real test begins as people with many different viewpoints undertake their own experiments.

**D.E. Knuth**

However using ConT<sub>E</sub>Xt or T<sub>E</sub>X takes considerable learning time. And it is not feasible to explain every single detail in this manual. Therefore “doing” is the answer.

This text shows that one can do some tricks with columns. The frame is created by:

```
\unexpanded\def\FramedColumn#1{\ruledhbox{\box#1}}
\setupcolumns[command=\FramedColumn]
```

A less senseless display is:

```
\def\FramedColumn#1%
  {\hbox to \hsize
   {\ifodd\currentcolumn\unhbox\hss#1\else\unhbox#1\hss\fi}}
```

This time the columns will look like:

T<sub>E</sub>X is not an easy to learn typesetting system or program. The problem is that “knowing everything is possible” leads to “wanting everything that is possible”.

However using ConT<sub>E</sub>Xt or T<sub>E</sub>X takes considerable learning time. And it is not feasible to explain every single detail in this manual. Therefore “doing” is the answer.

A column can be manipulated as a whole. For example to create a background:

```
\setupfootnotes
[location=columns,
```

```

background=color,
backgroundcolor=white]
\setuplayout
[grid=yes]

```

This time the column will be typeset on a grid:

T<sub>E</sub>X is not an easy to learn typesetting system or program. The problem is that “knowing everything is possible” leads to “wanting everything that is possible”.

However using ConT<sub>E</sub>Xt or T<sub>E</sub>X takes considerable learning time. And it is not feasible to explain every single detail in this manual. Therefore “doing” is the answer.

## 4.10 Paragraphs in columns

In some cases you want to typeset a paragraph in columns. For example in a definition where you have a first column containing meaningful text and a second column containing meaningful text. In these cases you can use:

```

\defineparagraphs [..1.] [..,2.,...]
1 IDENTIFIER
2 n          = NUMBER
  rule       = on off
  height     = fit DIMENSION
  before     = COMMAND
  after      = COMMAND
  inner      = COMMAND
  distance   = DIMENSION
  tolerance  = verystRICT strict tolerant verytolerant stretch
  align      = inner outer left right flushleft flushright middle center normal no yes

```

This command defines a column layout that is recalled by its name.

The layout can be set up by:

```

\setupparagraphs [..1.] [..2.] [..,3.,...]
                                OPTIONAL
1 IDENTIFIER
2 NUMBER each
3 style      = normal bold slanted boldslanted type cap small... COMMAND
  width      = DIMENSION
  height     = DIMENSION
  align      = inner outer left right flushleft flushright middle center normal no yes
  tolerance  = verystRICT strict tolerant verytolerant stretch
  distance   = DIMENSION
  before     = COMMAND
  after      = COMMAND
  inner      = COMMAND
  command    = COMMAND
  rule       = on off

```

The width of non-specified columns is determined automatically. Distance relates to horizontal white space in front of a column. The next column is specified by:

We show a simple example of the use of paragraphs in columns.

```
\defineparagraphs [TwoColumns] [n=2]
\setupparagraphs [TwoColumns] [1] [width=5cm]
\startTwoColumns
  This is the top left corner.
\TwoColumns
  In graphic environments the top right corner is also called the upper
  right corner.
\stopTwoColumns
\startTwoColumns
  In a similar way, the bottom left corner is called the lower left corner.
\TwoColumns
  Which leaves the bottom right corner, that is also known as lower right
  corner. Now what is the alternative name for the top left corner?
\stopTwoColumns
```

Here the `\TwoColumns` separates the columns. With a default setup this results in:

This is the top left corner.      In graphic environments the top right corner is also called the upper right corner.

In a similar way, the bottom left corner is called the lower left corner.      Which leaves the bottom right corner, that is also known as lower right corner. Now what is the alternative name for the top left corner?

We also could have used `\nextTwoColumns` instead of `\TwoColumns`. Sometimes this is more readable in your ascii text. An alternative specification is:

```
\TwoColumns first text \\ second text \\
```

You can add a command to the keywords `bottom` and `top`. These commands will be executed before or after the text. For example a column can be forced down by `[top=\vfill]`.

This is the right place to show a more complex example. The use of paragraphs is preferred over the use of columns because the text is kept together. If we want to score an item on two dimensions we need three columns:

```
\defineparagraphs [CombinedItem] [n=3,rule=on]
\setupparagraphs [CombinedItem] [2] [width=3em]
\setupparagraphs [CombinedItem] [3] [width=7em]
```

The item itself is defined with `\defineenumeration` (see section ??):

```
\defineenumeration
  [SomeItem]
  [location=left,text=,width=3em,before=,after=]
```

The scoring is done on a scale that is typeset as an itemization (see section ??). An item might look like this in ascii:

```
\startCombinedItem
```

```

\startSomeItem
  The student is able to write a detailed planning for the
  design and construction of a water purification plant.
\stopSomeItem
\nextCombinedItem
  \startitemize[5,packed]
  \item yes \item no
\stopitemize
\nextCombinedItem
  \startitemize[5,packed]
  \item self study \item class room \item simulation
\stopitemize
\stopCombinedItem

```

And will result in:

<p>1</p> <p>The student is able to write a detailed planning for the design and construction of a water purification plant.</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>◦ yes</li> <li>◦ no</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>◦ self study</li> <li>◦ class room</li> <li>◦ simulation</li> </ul>
---	---	--

When the scoring scales are identical over all items we can use macros:

```

\def\firstscale%
  {\startitemize[5,packed]
  \item yes \item no
  \stopitemize}

\def\secondscale%
  {\startitemize[5,packed]
  \item self study \item class room \item simulation
  \stopitemize}

\startCombinedItem
  \startSomeItem
  The student is able to write a detailed planning for the
  design and construction of a water purification plant.
  \stopSomeItem
\nextCombinedItem
  \firstscale
\nextCombinedItem
  \secondscale
\stopCombinedItem

```

Or even more sophisticated:

```

\def\startItem%
  {\startCombinedItem
  \startSomeItem}

\def\stopItem%
  {\stopSomeItem
  \nextCombinedItem \firstscale

```

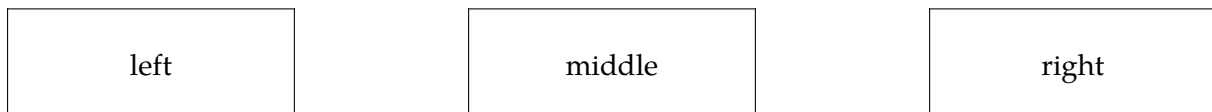
```

\nextCombinedItem \secondscale
\stopCombinedItem}

\startItem
  The student is able to write a detailed planning for the
  design and construction of a water purification plant.
\stopItem

```

A definition like the one above can be very surprising. The commands in such a definition can interfere and result in undesirable output. We think of `\vtop`'s that align on the baseline and `\vbox` s that align under the baseline. Another example with framed texts show that ConTeXt takes care of most of the problems.



## 4.11 Tabulate

In a later chapter we will go into detail on typesetting tables. Consider this paragraph to be an appetizer. We use the term tabulate when a table is part of the running text. A simple tabulation looks like this:

```

\starttabulate[|1|p|]
\NC question \NC Sometimes it is surprising to notice that writers,
independently of each other, explore the same theme along similar lines.
Three of the four books mentioned here fall into this category. Which
books do not belong in this list? \NC \NR
\stoptabulate

\starttabulate[|1|1|1|]
\NC A. \NC This Perfect Day           \NC Ira Levin           \NC \NR
\NC B. \NC Opstaan op Zaterdag       \NC Jan Gerhart Toonder \NC \NR
\NC C. \NC Tot waar zal ik je brengen \NC Anton Koolhaas      \NC \NR
\NC D. \NC The City And The Stars    \NC Arthur Clarke       \NC \NR
\stoptabulate

```

This results in:

question Sometimes it is surprising to notice that writers, independently of each other, explore the same theme along similar lines. Three of the four books mentioned here fall into this category. Which books do not belong in this list?

- |    |                            |                     |
|----|----------------------------|---------------------|
| A. | This Perfect Day           | Ira Levin           |
| B. | Opstaan op Zaterdag        | Jan Gerhart Toonder |
| C. | Tot waar zal ik je brengen | Anton Koolhaas      |
| D. | The City And The Stars     | Arthur Clarke       |

With `\NC` we go to the next column and with `\NR` to the next row. Definitions like `[|1|p|]` and `[|1|1|1|]` are called a template. The set ups are similar to those of `\starttable` (see in ??).

The default template looks like this: `[|l|p|]`. The second column is typeset as a normal paragraph and with a width that is calculated automatically by  $\TeX$ .

```
\starttabulate
\NC d: \NC avond, afond, avend, afend \NC \NR
\NC t: \NC avont, afont, avent, afent \NC \NR
\stoptabulate
```

This quotation from “Spellingsverandering van zin naar onzin” by G.C. Molewijk (1992) will look like this:<sup>4</sup>

d: avond, afond, avend, afend

t: avont, afont, avent, afent

## 4.12 Alignment

Horizontal and vertical alignment is set up by:

```
\setupalign [...*...]
* width left right middle inner outer wide broad height bottom line reset hanging
  nohanging hyphenated nothyphenated lessshyphenation morehyphenation new old normal yes
  no flushleft flushright flushouter flushinner center hz nohz spacing nospacing tolerant
  verytolerant stretch
```

The keys `left`, `middle` and `right`, `inner` and `outer` apply to horizontal alignment and `bottom`, `height` and `line` to vertical alignment.

The key `right` results in the text being typeset ragged right. The keyword `broad` can be combined with `left`, `middle` and `right` which results in somewhat more rough alignments.

The option `line` lets the last line touch the bottom of the page while `height` aligns the baseline to the bottom.

Individual lines can be aligned with the commands:

```
\leftaligned {...}
* CONTENT
```

```
\midaligned {...}
* CONTENT
```

```
\rightaligned {...}
* CONTENT
```

<sup>4</sup> For the non-dutch readers: this book “Change of spelling, from sense to nonsense” is one of the most humorous books on the developments in a language one can imagine. If you ever come to studying dutch, you should give this book a try.

alignment over a number of lines is done by:

```
\startalignment [...*...] ... \stopalignment
                    OPTIONAL
* inherits from \setupalign
```

The text below shows a number of examples of horizontal alignment.

The Brittish stubbornly stick to  
driving at the left side of the road.

This can be considered a form conservatism,  
or alternatively phrased: right-wing thinking.

However, a political drive-in-the-middle  
compromise would definitely lead to accidents.

We done this with:

```
\leftaligned{The Brittish stubbornly stick to}
\leftaligned{driving at the left side of the road.}
\blank[medium]
\rightaligned{This can be considered a form conservatism,}
\rightaligned{or alternatively phrased: right||wing thinking.}
\blank[medium]
\midaligned{However, a political drive||in||the||middle}
\midaligned{compromise would definitely lead to accidents.}
```

The last words of a paragraph can be placed on the right hand side by the command `\wordright`, **so with:**

```
\wordright {.*}
* CONTENT
```

When typesetting a paragraph,  $\text{T}_{\text{E}}\text{X}$  tries several alternatives and decides which one to choose based on a system, of penalties. Normally  $\text{T}_{\text{E}}\text{X}$  is very strict, but we can instruct  $\text{T}_{\text{E}}\text{X}$  to be a bit more tolerant. This means that, instead of letting problematic situations remain unsolved —i.e. let words that cannot be hyphenated stick into the margin—  $\text{T}_{\text{E}}\text{X}$  will add a bit more stretch and apply different penalties for successive hyphens.

Alignment can be set up by:

```
\setuptolerance [...*...]
* horizontal vertical stretch space verystrict strict tolerant verytolerant
```

By default we use `[horizontal, verystrict]` for horizontal alignment and `[vertical, strict]` for vertical alignment.<sup>5</sup> A last resort is provided by the keyword `stretch`, which in unsolvable situations will stretch spaces, extending the ugliness even further.

<sup>5</sup> If you want a real ugly result, you should set the  $\text{T}_{\text{E}}\text{X}$  variable `\pretolerance` to 10.000. It is up to you.

In double sided typesetting, alignment can be coupled to the left or right pages.

```
\startalignment[inner]
\quotation {Out of nowhere} is a rather normal way of saying that it is
not clear where something originates. It is typically a phrase that has
no counterpart, in the sense that nobody would comprehend the remark
\quotation {Into somewhere}.
\stopalignment

\startalignment[outer]
\quotation {Out of bounds} is a similar quote. There is no counterpart
\quotation {In of bounds}. Both examples demonstrate that in(ner) and
out(er) are not always counterparts.
\stopalignment
```

Results of the commands above depend on the location of the page (left or right). The commands lead to:

“Out of nowhere” is a rather normal way of saying that it is not clear where something originates. It is typically a phrase that has no counterpart, in the sense that nobody would comprehend the remark “Into somewhere”.

“Out of bounds” is a similar quote. There is no counterpart “In of bounds”. Both examples demonstrate that in(ner) and out(er) are not always counterparts.

## 4.13 New lines

A new line is forced by:<sup>6</sup>

```
\crlf
```

If you want to have lines show up the way you typed them in your source file you can use:

```
\startlines ... \stoptlines
```

Default indenting is off. You can set up lines by:

```
\setuplines [...,*...]
```

*	before	=	COMMAND
	after	=	COMMAND
	inbetween	=	COMMAND
	indenting	=	never none not no yes always first next small medium big normal odd even
			DIMENSION
	space	=	yes no

If we set up indenting=odd for example we will obtain:

Come on, he said, give me a while,

---

<sup>6</sup> In titles, headers and margin texts `\` is available for introducing a new line.



and I will typeset you this text  
with rivers like the river Nile

This was typed in the source file as:

```
\setupindenting[medium]
\setuplines[indenting=even]
\startlines
Come on, he said, give me a while,
and I will typeset you this text
with rivers like the river Nile
\stoptlines
```

Lines can be numbered with:

```
\startlinenumbering [...] ... \stoptlinenumbering
* continue
```

A simple example of numbered lines might look like this:

```
\startlinenumbering
There is of course no problem with trying to prevent illegal copying of
\cap {cd}'s and records. However, why should artists benefit from these
measures, who themselves have no problems with copying themes, lyrics
and melodies?
\stoptlinenumbering
```

this becomes:

- 1 There is of course no problem with trying to prevent illegal copying of CD's and records. How-
- 2 ever, why should artists benefit from these measures, who themselves have no problems with
- 3 copying themes, lyrics and melodies?

We can influence line numbering by:

```
\setuplinenumbering [...,*.,...]
* conversion = numbers characters Characters romannumerals Romannumerals TEXT
  start      = NUMBER
  step       = NUMBER
  width      = DIMENSION
  location   = intext inmargin
  style      = normal bold slanted boldslanted type cap small... COMMAND
  prefix     = TEXT
  referencing = on off
```

With the variable `conversion` you set up the type of numbering. You may even use your own character, for example an em-dash (keyed in as ---). In that case this character is set in front of each line.

In [chapter 12.5](#) we will explain how we can refer to a linenumber. The parameters `prefix` and `referencing` can be used to influence that process.

In the example below we use the following setup:

```
\setuplinenumbering[conversion=numbers,step=2,location=intext]
```

and:

```
\setuplinenumbering[conversion=characters,step=1,location=intext]
```

a macro is a piece of text  
random at first sight  
a bunch of stupid tokens that  
looks less that awful right

but when fed to T<sub>E</sub>X the program  
you will be surprised  
thanks to macros your text too  
will look quite organized

You can also mark lines in order to refer to specific line numbers. This will be shown in in [chapter 12.5](#).

## 4.14 New page

In some instances it is up to you to force, prevent or encourage a new page.

```
\page [...*...]
```

```
*  yes  makeup  no  preference  bigpreference  left  right  disable  last  quadruple  even  odd  blank
    empty  reset  start  stop
```

The possible set ups are explained in [table 4.3](#). If no setup is used `\page` will result in a new page.

setup	result
yes	force a new page
makeup	the same, without fill
no	when possible, avoid page break
preference	when possible, force page break
bigpreference	when possible, force page break, try harder
left	force a left page
right	force a right page
disable	ignore the next <code>\page</code> command
last	add last page(s)
quadruple	add pages until quadruple number of pages
even	go to the next even page
odd	go to the next odd page
blank	insert a completely blank page
empty	insert an empty page (with headers etc.)
reset	reset the disable command

**Table 4.3** Setups of `\page`.

The setups `last` and `quadruple` can be used in double sided (reduced) typesetting. The first setup up will add pages until an even number is obtained, the second set up will add pages until the next quadruple is reached. When you want to overrule the automatic page numbering you type the `pagenumber` yourself:

```
\page[25]
```

You can also use a relative number like `[+4]`. You can use this feature when you want to be on the safe side and if you don't know at what page you are.

While generating empty pages you have to take doublesidedness into account, for example:

```
\page[right,empty,right]
```

## 4.15 Pagenumbers

At any location in the text the `pagenumber` can be set up with the command:

```
\setuppagenumber [...,*...]
```

\*    number    = NUMBER  
     state     = start stop keep

The `pagenumber` position on the page is defined by:

```
\setuppagenumbering [...,*...]
```

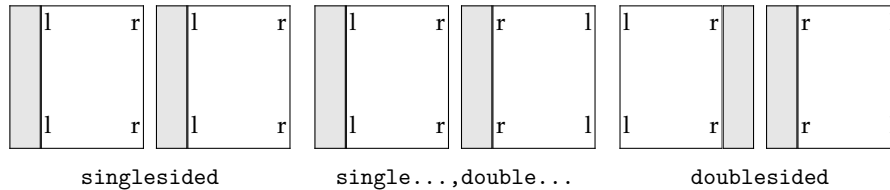
\*    alternative        = singlesided doublesided  
     location         = header footer left right middle margin marginedge inleft inright  
     conversion        = numbers characters Characters romannumerals Romannumerals  
     style             = normal bold slanted boldslanted type cap small... COMMAND  
     left              = TEXT  
     right             = TEXT  
     way               = bytext bycd:section  
     text              = TEXT  
     numberseparator   = TEXT  
     textseparator    = TEXT  
     cd:sectionnumber = yes no  
     separator        = TEXT  
     strut            = yes no  
     state             = start stop  
     width            = DIMENSION  
     command         = \...#1

The position varies with the nature of the document. With `conversion` we state the way we want to display the number. With `location` we define `pagenumber` positions like the bottom or top, left or right side or in the margin. You can use combinations of these options. For example:

```
\setuppagenumbering[location={header,inmargin}]
```

alternative=singlesided	alternative=doublesided
left, right	marginedge
middle	middle
margin	margin

Another alternative is `{singlesided,doublesided}`. In this case headers and footers will be mirrored in a double-sided document. The backspace is not mirrored (see [figure 4.1](#)).



**Figure 4.1** Three ways to mirror.

You can assign text to the parameters `left` and `right`. These texts will enclose the page number:

```
\setuppagenumbering[conversion=romannumerals,left={--~},right={~--}]
```

This will lead to: – viii –. With `style` you define the font and with `state` `pagenumbering` is switched on and off.

Numbering can become very fancy when you use `command` to execute an operation. This command has an argument and will be executed every time a page number is placed. A framed page number can be obtained by:

```
\setuppagenumbering[command=\inframed]
```

or partially framed by:

```
\def\mypagenumber#1%
  {\inframed[frame=off,leftframe=on,rightframe=on]{#1}}
```

```
\setuppagenumbering[command=\mypagenumber]
```

In this we use `\inframed` instead of `\framed`, because the page number must align with the texts of the headers and footers.

With `textseparator` you can define a separator between the section and page number. Default this is a –. When the page number is to appear at the margin the `numberseparator` is placed between the number and the footer text. Default this is a space with a width of 1em.

In interactive documents `subpagenumbering` is frequently used for hyperlinking. When every new section is started on a new page the footer text can be set up with:

```
\setupsubpagenumber
  [way=byparagraph]
\setupfootertexts
  [screen {\subpagenumber} of {\numberofsubpages}] []
```

The setup is done with:

```
\setupsubpagenumber [...,.*,...]
* way    = bytext bycd:section
  state  = start stop none
```

and the numbers themselves can be recalled by `\subpagenumber` and `\numberofsubpages`. These numbers are only reliable in headers and footers. In the case of interactive documents a more abstract definition can be used:

```
\setupfootertexts [] [{\interactionbar[alternative=d]}]
```

In this case one can jump to the previous and following subpages. The subnumbering can be reset with `[reset]`.

In a similar fashion one has access to the page number and the total number of pages: `\pagenumber` and `\totalnumberofpages`.

## 4.16 Headers and footers

Text in the header and footer are set up with the commands:

```
\setupheadertexts [...1.] [...2.] [...3.]
                        OPTIONAL
1  text margin edge
2  TEXT date MARK pagenumber
3  TEXT date MARK pagenumber
```

```
\setupfootertexts [...1.] [...2.] [...3.]
                        OPTIONAL
1  text margin edge
2  TEXT date MARK pagenumber
3  TEXT date MARK pagenumber
```

A large number of setup arguments can be added. When the first setup is left out, the default value (`text`) specifies that the footer and header should be placed under or over the pagebody. The edge is located at the left side of the margin and is only used in interactive documents where an extended pagebody is needed.

The value `date` generates a date and `pagenumber` generates the pagenumber. Part, chapter and section titles can be summoned to appear in the header- and footer text by `part`, `chapter`, `paragraph` etc. By default the mark mechanism is active. Sectionnumbers can also be recalled: `chapternumber` etc.

Setting the state is done for the whole header, so one should use the one-argument version:

```
\setupheader[state=high]
```

Those who want more variations in headers and footers can use four instead of two arguments. Four arguments have only effect in double-sided documents.

```
\setupfootertexts
  [even left][even right]
  [odd left][odd right]
```

So there are different combinations of arguments possible:

```
\setupheadertexts
\setupheadertexts[mid text]
\setupheadertexts[left text][right text]
\setupheadertexts[left text][right text][left .][right .]
\setupheadertexts[location][left text][right text]
\setupheadertexts[location][left text][right text][left .][right .]
```

Instead of text, one can specify keywords like `chapter`, `date` or `pagenumber`. When the `pagenumber` is positioned in this way, one should also say:

```
\setuppagenumbering[location=]
```

The current setups of the headers and footers are cleared when no values are stated in `\setupfootertexts`. Problems can be expected when you use `[ ]` in your setup. These have to be enclosed in curly brackets:

```
\setupfootertexts[chapter][{\currentdate[month,year]}]
```

The type setting of head- and foot texts can be influenced by:

```
\setupheader [.1.] [...,.2.,...]
          OPTIONAL
1  TEXT margin edge
2  state      = normal stop start empty high none nomarking IDENTIFIER
   strut     = yes no
   style     = normal bold slanted boldslanted type cap small... COMMAND
   leftstyle  = normal bold slanted boldslanted type cap small... COMMAND
   rightstyle = normal bold slanted boldslanted type cap small... COMMAND
   leftwidth  = DIMENSION
   rightwidth = DIMENSION
   before    = COMMAND
   after     = COMMAND
```

and

```
\setupfooter [.1.] [...,.2.,...]
          OPTIONAL
1  inherits from \setupheader
2  inherits from \setupheader
```

As with `\setup...texts` the first argument is optional. The keys `state`, `before` and `after` work on all parts of the pagebody, on the main text, the margins and edges.

When `...width` is set up the text is clipped at the given width. The key `strut` is important when footers or headers contain other objects than text. When `strut` is set to `no`, the object is not corrected for linedepth. You could use the command `\showstruts` to get some information on this phenomena.

The setups with state are explained in table ???. You should bear in mind that page numbering will always continue whether or not the pagenumbers are placed.

setup	result
normal	visible
none	invisible, no whitespace
empty	one page invisible, whitespace
high	one page visible, no whitespace
start	visible
nomarking	leave out marks
stop	invisible, whitespace

When setups are done between `\start` and `\stop` they will only work locally. This means that the setups are reset after `\stop`. Headers and footers may appear even while you think new ones should appear. This is due to the way TeX determines valid breakpoints. One can never be certain when such an automatic break will occur. The solution is to force a new page by `\page` before `\stop`.

Headers and footers can be switched off on a page by means of:

```
\noheaderandfooterlines
```

Next to `head-` and `footertexts` there are also `over-` and `bottomtexts`. These are setup in a similar way:

```
\setuptoptexts [.1.] [.2.] [.3.]
                OPTIONAL
1  text margin edge
2  TEXT date MARK pagenumber
3  TEXT date MARK pagenumber
```

```
\setuptexttexts [.1.] [.2.] [.3.]
                OPTIONAL
1  text margin edge
2  TEXT date MARK pagenumber
3  TEXT date MARK pagenumber
```

```
\setupbottomtexts [.1.] [.2.] [.3.]
                  OPTIONAL
1  text margin edge
2  TEXT date MARK pagenumber
3  TEXT date MARK pagenumber
```

```
\setuptop [.1.] [...,2,...]
          OPTIONAL
1  inherits from \setupheader
2  inherits from \setupheader
```

```
\setuptext [.1.] [...,2,...]
          OPTIONAL
1  inherits from \setupheader
2  inherits from \setupheader
```

```
\setupbottom [.1.] [...,2,...]
            OPTIONAL
1  inherits from \setupheader
2  inherits from \setupheader
```

```
\notopandbottomlines
```

When the height of an area equals zero, no text is placed. By default the top and bottom area have zero height, so setting their text areas without setting the height has no effect.

At the instance of a new part or chapter we can deal in a different way with the headers and footers. Suppose that a default setup looks like this:

```
\setupheadertexts [pagenumber]
\setupfootertexts [chapter] [paragraph]
```

At the first page of new chapters this may look not too good. Therefore we could state:

```
\setuphead [chapter] [header=empty, footer=empty]
```

However if we use it in this way we lose the pagenumber. A more adequate solution is:

```
\definertext [chapter] [footer] [pagenumber]
```

with:

```
\setuphead [chapter] [header=high, footer=chapter, page=right]
```

we obtain the desired effect. The pagenumber appears in the foot and the header disappears completely. These kind of commands are essential when you don't want to define all kinds of setups locally in a text, for example before every new chapter. This mechanism only works when going to a new page enabled.



```
\definetext [.1.] [.2.] [.3.] [.4.] [.5.]
                                OPTIONAL OPTIONAL
1  IDENTIFIER
2  header footer
3  TEXT
4  TEXT
5  TEXT
```

## 4.17 Footnotes

In some texts you can't do without footnotes. The footnote marker is placed in the text and the note itself is typeset at another location in the text, usually at the bottom of the page. Most often at the bottom of the page.

```
\footnote [.1.] {?.?}
                OPTIONAL
1  REFERENCE
2  CONTENT
```

A footnote number or –symbol is recalled with:

```
\note [...]
*  REFERENCE
```

An example of footnotes is given below.

The first compositions of the American composer Steve Reich will probably only appreciated by the most \quote {purist} among those who like minimal||music \footnote {A decent minimal is not so much characterized by a minimal use of musical instruments, but more by subtle shifts in polyphonic rhythms.}, his later works, like \quote {The Desert Music}, are compositions for full orchestra, where the orchestra is extended with a for Reich characteristic rhythm section \footnote {In most cases this section consists of pianos, marimbas and xylophones.} and choir. Together with John Adams, \footnote {His \quote {Fearful Symmetries} is a perfect mix of classic, jazz, swing and pop music.} Reich can be considered one of today's leading composers. It is, however, a pity that they can only be seen \footnote {The nice thing about compositions like \quote {Drumming} and \quote {Sextet} is de fact that \quotation {what the ear hears} differs from what the \quotation {eye sees happening}.} and heard at the smaller broad companies, like the \cap {VPRO}. \footnote{A non commercial Dutch broadcast company.} \footnote {Sometimes also at other companies, because

somehow this kind of music is quite suited for impressive and/or melodramatic documentaries.}

Undesired spaces are ignored. Spacing between two footnote numbers or symbols is taken care of. The result looks like this:

The first compositions of the American composer Steve Reich will probably only be appreciated by the most ‘purist’ among those who like minimal–music<sup>7</sup>, his later works, like ‘The Desert Music’, are compositions for full orchestra, where the orchestra is extended with a for Reich characteristic rhythm section<sup>8</sup> and choir. Together with John Adams,<sup>9</sup> Reich can be considered one of today’s leading composers. It is, however, a pity that they can only be seen<sup>10</sup> and heard at the smaller broadcast companies, like the VPRO.<sup>11 12</sup>

The type setting of the footnote can be setup with the command below that is defined in the setup area of your document.

```
\setupfootnotes [...,*,...]

* conversion      = numbers characters Characters romannumerals Romannumerals
  way             = bytext bycd:section
  location        = page TEXT columns firstcolumn lastcolumn high none
  rule           = on off
  before         = COMMAND
  after          = COMMAND
  width          = DIMENSION
  height         = DIMENSION
  bodyfont       = 5pt ... 12pt small big
  style          = normal bold slanted boldslanted type cap small... COMMAND
  distance       = DIMENSION
  columndistance = DIMENSION
  margindistance = DIMENSION
  n              = NUMBER
  numbercommand  = \...#1
  textcommand    = \...#1
  split          = tolerant strict verystRICT NUMBER
  textstyle      = normal bold slanted boldslanted type cap small... COMMAND
  textcolor      = IDENTIFIER
  interaction    = yes no
  factor         = NUMBER
  inherits from \setupframed
```

By default footnotes are placed at the bottom of a page. When using columns you can set location to columns so that the footnotes appear in the last column.

We can frame footnotes, place them in columns and decouple them from a page. The meaning of this last option is explained in an example.

<sup>7</sup> A decent minimal is not so much characterized by a minimal use of musical instruments, but more by subtle shifts in polyphonic rhythms.

<sup>8</sup> In most cases this section consists of pianos, marimbas and xylophones.

<sup>9</sup> His ‘Fearful Symmetries’ is a perfect mix of classic, jazz, swing and pop music.

<sup>10</sup> The nice thing about compositions like ‘Drumming’ and ‘Sextet’ is de fact that “what the ear hears” differs from what the “eye sees happening”.

<sup>11</sup> A non commercial Dutch broadcast company.

<sup>12</sup> Sometimes also at other companies, because somehow this kind of music is quite suited for impressive and/or melodramatic documentaries.

```

\startlocalfootnotes[n=0]
\placetable
  {A (latin) table.}
\placelegend
  {\starttable[|l|r|]
   \HL
   \VL Nota \footnote {Bene} \VL Bene \footnote {Nota} \VL\FR
   \VL Bene \footnote {Nota} \VL Nota \footnote {Bene} \VL\LR
   \HL
   \stoptable}
  {\placelocalfootnotes}
\stoplocalfootnotes

```

The table enables the float placement mechanism, so we don't know on which page the table nor the footnotes will appear. So the footnotes are coupled to the table by using local footnotes.

[n=0]

Nota <sup>1</sup>	Bene <sup>2</sup>
Bene <sup>3</sup>	Nota <sup>4</sup>

- <sup>1</sup> Bene
- <sup>2</sup> Nota
- <sup>3</sup> Nota
- <sup>4</sup> Bene

**Table 4.4** A (latin) table.

```
\startlocalfootnotes ... \stoplocalfootnotes
```

```

\placelocalfootnotes [...,.*,...]
                        OPTIONAL
* inherits from \setupfootnotes

```

Footnotes can be placed at the end of a chapter or a document. The key `location` is set at `text` and we use the following command to place the footnotes:

```

\placefootnotes [...,.*,...]
                  OPTIONAL
* inherits from \setupfootnotes

```

When `n` is set at 2, you can display the footnotes in columns. This should be done at an early stage because  $\TeX$  is using the dimensions of the footnotes to determine the page break. More information can be found in the source code of the `ConTeXt` module: `core-not.tex`.

The next example demonstrates that footnote numbers can be replaced by footnote symbols. In this example `conversion` is set at `3`.

note: use footnotes sparingly<sup>13</sup>

note: be brief<sup>14</sup>

note: no notes are even better<sup>15</sup>

Default the key numbercommand is set `\high`, but other setups are allowed. You can also work with:

```
\setupfootnotedefinition [...,.*,...]
* inherits from \setupdescriptions
```

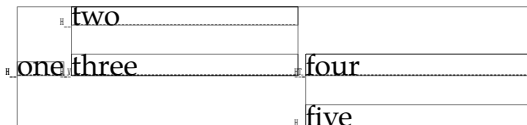
to define the exact way of how to display the footnotes, because the standard definition mechanism is used (see section ??).

## 4.18 Aligned boxes

$\TeX$  is basically aware of two kind of boxes: `\hbox` and `\vbox`. A horizontal `\hbox` can be considered a line, a `\vbox` a paragraph. There are two types of vertical boxes: a `\vbox` aligns on the baseline of the last line, while a `\vtop` aligns on the first line.

```
\hbox{\hbox{one} \vbox{two\par three} \vtop{four\par five}}
```

When we make the frames visible—in this case we said `\showboxes` in advance—the example above becomes:



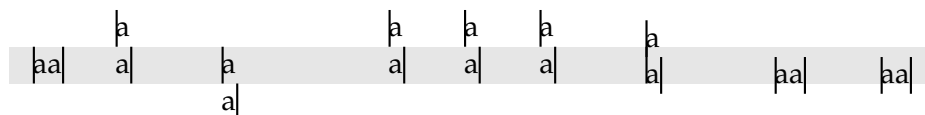
In addition  $\text{Con}\TeX$ t provides a lot of alternative boxes, like: `\cbox`, `\lbox` and `\rbox`. These commands can be used while defining your own macros, but will seldom appear in the running text. Like in `\hbox` and `\vbox` the dimension of the width can be added.

```
\cbox{... text ...}
\lbox to 4cm{... text ...}
```

The reader is invited to experiment with these commands. A new line is forced with `\\`.

For some very dedicated purposes there is `\sbox`. This command is used to give a box the height of a strut. You may forget this command.

To another category of boxes belong `\tbox` and `\bbox`. Both are used within tables. Look at the example below that illustrates their use.



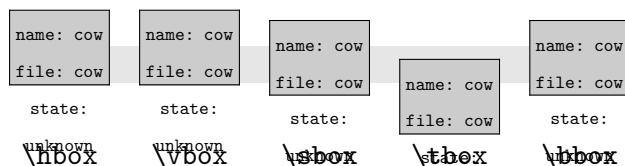
```
\hbox \vbox \vtop \lbox \cbox \rbox \sbox \tbox \bbox
```

The `\tbox` and `\bbox` are also used in figures.

<sup>13</sup> During the development of  $\text{Con}\TeX$ t the footnote mechanism was one of the first real challenges. And I'm challenged still since I just encountered documents with footnotes within footnotes.

<sup>14</sup> Why? See note<sup>13</sup>.

<sup>15</sup> QED.



In ConT<sub>E</sub>Xt a complete repertoire of macros is available that relies on boxes. For example we can add cutmarks to a box:

```
\setbox0=\vbox{The Final Cut\par --- \em Pink Floyd}
\makecutbox0 \box0
```

Be aware of the fact that such marks lie outside the boxes.

We can visualize boxes by using `\ruledhbox`, `\ruledvbox` and `\ruledvtop` instead of `\hbox`, `\vbox` and `\vtop`. With `\showmakeup` we can visualise everything automatically and we can get some insight on the features of ConT<sub>E</sub>Xt and T<sub>E</sub>X.

The next example shows that we can use T<sub>E</sub>X for more than only the straight forward typesetting. However, to be able to do this, one should have some insight in the manipulation of boxes. We use buffers to enhance comprehensibility.

```
\startbuffer[water]
Drink geen water \crlf direct uit de kraan! \blank

\start
\tfx \setupinterlinespace Het drinkwater is tijdelijk niet betrouwbaar.
Kook het water voor consumptie ten minste 2~minuten. Zodra het water
weer betrouwbaar is, krijgt u bericht. \par
\stop

\blank[2*big]

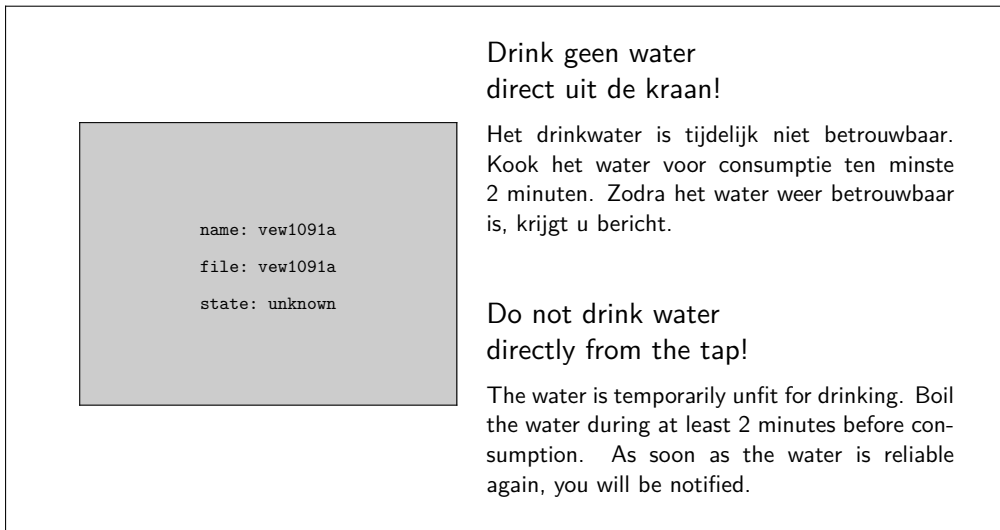
\language[en] Do not drink water \crlf directly from the tap! \blank

\start
\tfx \setupinterlinespace The water is temporarily unfit for drinking.
Boil the water during at least 2~minutes before consumption. As soon
as the water is reliable again, you will be notified. \par
\stop
\stopbuffer
```

This text is typeset in a framed box. We use two temporary boxes. The first determines the height of the second one. Instead of `\tfx\setupinterlinespace` you could use `\switchtobodyfont` to switch to a narrower bodyfont. (`[small]`). The `\par` is essential!

```
\framed[offset=\bodyfontsize]
{\setbox0=\vbox
{\hspace 16em\switchtobodyfont[ss]\getbuffer[water]}
\setbox2=\vbox to \ht0
{\vfill\externalfigure[vew1091a][width=5cm]\vfill}
\hskip1em\box2\hskip1em\box0\hskip1em}
```

The result—an example of a drinking water warning—is shown below.



## 4.19 Makeup

A document may have a titlepage, a colofon and some pages that are not directly related to the main part of the document. Mostly these pages are not numbered and can do without headers and footers. Because their layout needs extra attention we prefer the word `makeup` for defining their specific layout.

The commands `\startstandardmakeup` and `\stopstandardmakeup` exclude text from the standard pagebody and its layout. Below a simple example is given. You will notice commands like `\vfill`, `\blank`, `\tf` and even `\crlf` and `\vskip`.

```
\startstandardmakeup
  \tfd Jobs around the house \blank[2*big]
  \tfb Part 1: Gas, water and electricity \vfill
  \tfb J. Hagen \crlf A.F. Otten \blank
  \tfb Hasselt \crlf \currentdate[month,year]
\stopstandardmakeup
```

In double-sided documents an empty page is generated that functions as the backside of the title page. However sometimes this backside should also be typeset.

```
\startstandardmakeup[doublesided=no]
... the front
\stopstandardmakeup
\startstandardmakeup[page=no]
... the back
\stopstandardmakeup
```

Because double-sided typesetting is turned off, a backside page is not generated. And because the key page is no the next page does not get the layout of a right hand side page (this would be default).

With the command `\showframe` frames can be made visible (temporarily) around the made up text. This is very convenient during the typesetting of separate pages.

Next to the command `\startstandardmakeup` one can define his own layout with different dimensions by means of:

```
\definemakeup [.1.] [...,2.,...]  
1 IDENTIFIER  
2 inherits from \setupmakeup
```

```
\setupmakeup [.1.] [...,2.,...]  
1 IDENTIFIER  
2 width      = DIMENSION  
   height    = DIMENSION  
   voffset   = DIMENSION  
   hoffset   = DIMENSION  
   page      = left yes right  
   commands  = COMMAND  
   doublesided = yes no empty  
   headerstate = normal stop start empty none nomarking  
   footerstate = normal stop start empty none nomarking  
   textstate  = normal stop start empty none nomarking  
   topstate   = stop start  
   bottomstate = stop start  
   pagestate  = stop start  
   color      = IDENTIFIER
```

The first command generates a `\start...stop`-pair between which the new typesetting commands can be typed. By default the result of this new layout is typeset on an empty page. The new layout is marked with `<<name>>`, for selection at a later stage (see section ??).

The commands that are provided after the key commands are executed immediately when a new layout is called. In this local layouts can be defined.

# 5 Typography

## 5.1 Introduction

Throughout the millennia humans have developed and adapted methods for storing facts and thoughts on a variety of different media. A very efficient way of doing this is using logograms, as the Chinese have done for ages. Another method is to represent each syllable in a word by a symbol, as the Japanese do when writing telegrams. However, the most common way of storing characters is by using a limited set of shapes representing basic sounds (a.k.a. phonemes). Such a collection is called an *alphabet*, and the shapes are called *letters*.

T<sub>E</sub>X is primarily meant for typesetting languages that use this third method. The other two methods can also be dealt with, but some extra effort is needed. In this chapter we will focus on languages that use alphabets, the other methods will be explained in later chapters.

The shapes representing the characters that make up an alphabet are more or less standardized, and thereby can be recognized by readers even if their details differ. A collection of pictures representing character shapes is called a *font*, and the pictures in a font are called *glyphs*.

The example below shows (from left to right) a Computer Modern font, a Helvetica lookalike, a Times Roman lookalike and the Antiqua Torunska font, all scaled to 48pt.



As you can see, quite some design variation is possible. It follows that when fonts from different sources (designers) are intermixed, the result is not always pleasing to look at. The term *font collection* refers to a set of fonts combined together in such a way that the overall appearance on a page looks good and reading is as comfortable as possible.

The next example shows an attempt at such a font collection: the fonts were picked such that the glyph sizes and the line thicknesses are roughly the same.



Fonts from a single source often already come in a few variations that are intended to be used together. Such a set of fonts with the same basic design is known as a *font family*. For example, Computer Modern is a font family, as is Lucida.

Within a font family there can be multiple *styles*. In the example below you see five font styles of the Latin Modern family: the Roman, Sans, Typewriter, Smallcaps and Variable Typewriter.

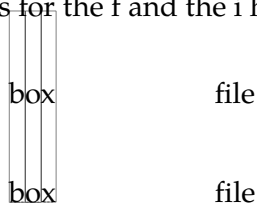




Within a given style, there can be multiple *alternatives* of a font. The example below shows a normal, a bold, an italic, and a bold italic alternative.



The distance between the individual glyphs in a word and the actual glyphs that are used depends on the combinations of these glyphs. In the top line of the next sample, the gap between the b and the o as well as the distance between the o and the x is slightly altered. This is called kerning. Further, the separate glyphs for the f and the i have been combined into a single one. This is called ligaturing.



The font shown here is Computer Modern, the default  $\TeX$  font. This font is designed by Donald Knuth. The Computer Modern has many kerning pairs, while the Palatino-like font that is used for most of the text in this manual has only a few, while both have essentially the same list of ligatures.

Micro-typography like kerning pairs and ligatures are not to be altered by the user, but are part of the font design and the required data is stored inside the font file, together with the drawing routines for the actual pictures. It is possible for the user to alter fonts and interline spacing and some more aspects on the level of macro-typography. The choice of font is the main topic of this chapter.

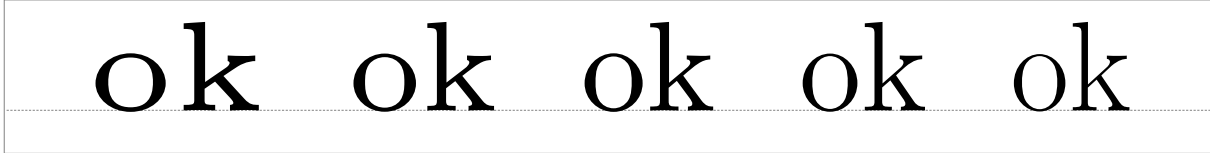
There are many different methods that can be used to classify fonts. There are classification systems based on the period in which the style was first developed; on the characteristics of the font; or the font application, like a newspaper or a book. Often, classification systems mix these characteristics to a certain point.

For example, the Computer Modern family can be classified as a ‘modern’ font. This is a classification that primarily indicates a period (late 18<sup>th</sup> century), but it also implies a particular shape: ‘modern’ fonts have a high contrast between thick and thin strokes, and their stress axis is perfectly vertical.

At the same time, specific fonts in the Computer Modern family can be classified as to their style: ‘serif’ (glyphs strokes have embellishments at the end), ‘sans serif’ (shapes end abruptly), or ‘monospaced’ (all glyphs have the same width).

The Computer Modern family is in fact inspired by one font in particular: ‘Modern 8a’ by the Monotype corporation. Knuth implemented Computer Modern in MetaFont using parameters so that he could generate a whole collection of fonts all closely matching each other in overall style (not necessarily in *style*). In Con $\TeX$ t you will normally use a reimplementation of Computer Modern using a more modern file format (Type 1 or OpenType). This new version is called ‘Latin Modern’, and also features an extended glyph set making it usable for languages that could not be typeset with Knuth’s original fonts.

Computer Modern is one of the few font families that comes with dedicated design sizes. The example below shows the differences of a 5, 7, 9, 12 and 17 point design scaled up to 48 points. Such nuances in font size are seldom seen these days.



As explained earlier, the general appearance of a font style can be classified according to many schemes, and the exact terminology used depends on the background of the user. In **table 5.1** you can see some examples of the terms that are used by various people to identify the three font styles that are most often found together within a single book design (such as for a software manual).

terms	intended usage
regular, serif, roman	main text
support, sans	section headings
teletype, mono, type	code examples

**Table 5.1** Some ways of identifying the font styles in a document design.

Within the lists of terms, the earlier names are normally used by typographers and book designers, the later ones are commonly used in  $\text{\TeX}$ . In  $\text{\ConTeXt}$  all of these terms can be used intermixed because they are all remapped to the same set of internal commands. As will be explained later, the command  $\text{\rm}$  is used to switch to the style used for the main text (this is usually a font style with serifs),  $\text{\ss}$  to switch to the support style (usually a style without serifs) and  $\text{\tt}$  to switch to the code example style (for which usually monospaced fonts are used).

Text can be typeset in different font sizes. The unit  $\text{pt}$ , short for ‘printer’s point’, is normally used to specify the size of a font. There are a little over 72 points per inch (or a little under 2.85 points per millimeter, if you prefer metric units). Traditionally, font designers used to design a glyph collection for each point size, but nowadays most fonts have only a single design size of 10 points, or at most a small set of sizes with names indicating their proposed use, like *caption*, *text*, and *display*.

The next sections will go into the details of switching of font styles and fonts in your documents. Be warned that the font switching mechanism is rather complex. This is due to the different modes like math mode and text mode in  $\text{\ConTeXt}$ . If you want to understand the mechanism fully, you will have to acquaint yourself with the concept of encoding vectors and obtain some knowledge on fonts and their peculiarities. See the next chapter for more information.

## 5.2 The mechanism

Font switching is one of the oldest features of  $\text{\ConTeXt}$  because font switching is indispensable in a macro package. During the years extensions to the font switching mechanism were inevitable. The following starting points have been chosen during the development of this mechanism:

- It must be easy to change font *styles*, e.g., switching between roman (serif, regular), sans serif (support), teletype (monospaced) etc. (`\rm`, `\ss`, `\tt` etc.)
- More than one *alternative* set of glyphs shapes must be available like italic and bold (`\it` and `\bf`).
- Different font *families* like Latin Modern Roman and Lucida Bright must be supported.
- It must be possible to combine different families into font *collections*.
- Different sub- and super-scripts must be available. These script sizes have to be consistent across the switching of family, style and alternative.
- It should be possible to combine all of these requirements into a single definition unit called a *body font*.
- Changing the global font collection as well as the size must also be easy, and so sizes between 8pt and 14.4pt must be available by default.

Before reading further, please stop for a moment to make sure you thoroughly comprehend the above paragraphs. ConTEXt's terminology probably differs from what you are accustomed to, especially if you were previously a LaTEX user.

## 5.3 Font switching

The mechanism to switch from one style to another is somewhat complex, not in the least because the terminology is a bit fuzzy. A quick recap: we call a set of fonts from the same source, with the same basic design, like Lucida or Computer Modern Roman, a *family*. Within such a family, the members can be grouped according to characteristics such as the presence of serifs, or the variability of width. Such a group is called a *style*. Examples of styles within a family are: 'roman', 'sans serif' and 'teletype'. We saw already that there can be other classifications. Within a style there can be *alternatives*, like 'boldface' and 'italic'.

There are different ways to change into a new a style or alternative. You can use `\ss` to switch to a sans serif font style and `\bf` to get a bold alternative. When a different style is chosen, the alternatives adapt themselves to this style.

Often a document will be mostly typeset using just one combination of family and style. This is called the *bodyfont*. Consistent use of alternative commands like `\bf` and `\it` in the text will automatically result in the desired bold and italic alternatives when you change the family or style in the setup area of your input file, since these commands adapt to the specified family and style.

### 5.3.1 Font style switching

Switching to another font style is done by one of five two-letter commands that are listed in [table 5.2](#).

The 'handwritten' and 'calligraphic' font styles are sometimes useful when dealing with very elaborate document layout definitions. In the ConTEXt distribution only the Lucida font family uses these styles; in any other font set they are simply ignored. You could use them in your own font setups if you so desire. See the next chapter for font setup definitions.

There is a sixth internal style that is only ever referred to as 'mm'. This style handles math fonts. It does not make sense to use this style directly so there is no command attached to it, but it is quite important internally so it makes sense to introduce it right away.

command	keyword equivalents
<code>\rm</code>	serif, regular, roman, rm
<code>\ss</code>	sans, support, sansserif, ss
<code>\tt</code>	mono, type, teletype, tt
<code>\hw</code>	handwritten, hw
<code>\cg</code>	calligraphic, cg
–	mm

**Table 5.2** Font style switching commands and their keyword equivalents. For more on keywords, see [subsection 5.3.3](#).

### 5.3.2 Font alternative switching

The alternatives within a style are given in [table 5.3](#). Not all fonts have both italic and slanted or the bold alternatives of each. Some other fonts do not have small caps or have only one set of digits. When an alternative is not known, Con $\TeX$ t will attempt to choose a suitable replacement automatically. For instance, the italic alternative may be used for if slanted is not available or vice versa.

command	keyword equivalents
<code>\bf</code>	bold
<code>\it</code>	italic
<code>\bi</code>	bolditalic, italicbold
<code>\sl</code>	slanted
<code>\bs</code>	boldslanted, slantedbold
<code>\sc</code>	smallcaps
<code>\os</code>	mediaeval (from <i>oldstyle</i> )
<code>\tf</code>	normal (from <i>typeface</i> )

**Table 5.3** Font alternative switching commands and their keyword equivalents. With `\os` you tell Con $\TeX$ t that you prefer mediaeval or old-style numbers as in 139 over 139.

Note that, while these alternatives can sometimes seem to be ‘combined,’ as in `bolditalic`, it is important to recognize that only one alternative can actually be active at a time. In this regard alternatives are like ‘radio buttons.’ `bolditalic` is in fact one predefined alternative, not a combination of two. Alternatives cannot be arbitrarily combined, or turned on and off independently of each other.

Besides these two-letter commands, there is a series of font selector commands with a size suffix attached. Some examples of that are:

```
\tfx \bfx \slx \itx
\tfa \tfa \tfc \tfd \tfx
```

The `a` suffix selects a somewhat larger font size than the default. Each of the ordered alphabetic suffixes `a`, `b`, ... select a somewhat larger actual font than the previous suffix. The `x` and `xx`

suffixes select smaller and yet smaller versions. Note that these commands select font sizes relative to the default, not relative to whatever font size is currently in effect.

<code>\bfx</code>	smallbold
<code>\itx</code>	smallitalic
<code>\bix</code>	smallbolditalic, smallitalicbold
<code>\slx</code>	smallslanted
<code>\bsx</code>	smallboldslanted, smallslantedbold
<code>\tfx</code>	small, smallnormal

**Table 5.4** Small alternative switching commands and their keyword equivalents.

The ‘small’ (single *x* suffix) switches mentioned in [table 5.4](#), such as `\tfx`, are always available. The availability of other commands like `\ita`, `\bfxx`, `\bfc`, etc. depends on the completeness of the font definition files. For the core ConT<sub>E</sub>Xt fonts, you can count on at least `\tfa`, `\tfb`, `\tfc`, `\tfd`, and `\tfx` being defined. For the others, just try and see what happens.

When you have chosen a larger character size, for example `\tfb`, then `\tf` equals `\tfb`, `\bf` equals `\bfb`, etc. This behavior is almost always preferable over returning to the original character size, but it may catch you off-guard.

More generic font scaling commands are also available:

```
\tx \txx
\setsmallbodyfont \setbigbodyfont
```

The command `\tx` adapts itself to both the style and the alternative. This command is rather handy when one wants to write macros that act like a chameleon. Going one more step smaller, is possible too: `\txx`. Using `\tx` when `\tx` is already given, is equivalent to `\txx`.

The commands `\setsmallbodyfont` and `\setbigbodyfont` switch to the ‘small’ and ‘big’ body font sizes. These relative sizes are defined via the ‘body font environment’, see [section 5.9](#).

The various commands will adapt themselves to the actual setup of font and size. For example:

```
{\rm test {\sl test} {\bf test} \tfc test {\tx test} {\bf test}}
{\ss test {\sl test \tx test} {\bf test \tx test}}
```

will result in:

```
test test test test test test
test test test test test
```

When the `\rm` style is active, ConT<sub>E</sub>Xt will interpret the command `\tfd` as if it was `\rmd`, when the style `\ss` is active, `\tfd` as is treated as `\ssd`. All default font setups use `tf`-setups so they will automatically adapt to the current font style.

The remainder of this section is for the sake of completeness. Use of the following commands in new documents is discouraged.

Frequent font switching leads to longer processing times. When no sub- or superscripts are used and you are very certain what font you want to use, you can perform fast font switches with: `\rmsl`, `\ssbf`, `\tttf`, etc.

The plain T<sub>E</sub>X compatible font switches `\vi`, `\vii`, `\viii`, `\ix`, `\x`, and `\xii` are also defined, these have local effects like `\tfx` and `\tfa`.

### 5.3.3 Switching font styles in setup commands

A number of ConT<sub>E</sub>Xt commands use the parameter `style` to set the used font. The parameter mechanism is rather flexible so that within the parameter `style` you can use any of the font switching commands like `\bf` or `bf` or `\switchtobodyfont`, but also a number of keywords like

```
normal bold italic bolditalic slanted boldslanted type
small smallbold smallitalic ... smallslanted ... smalltype
capital
```

Most of these keywords have already been listed in the tables 5.3 and 5.4, but a few predefined ones have not been mentioned yet. These are displayed in table 5.5, together with the commands they execute. As is normal in ConT<sub>E</sub>Xt, you can extend the list of accepted keywords by defining your own. This will be explained in?? in the next chapter.

<code>\tt</code>	type, mono
<code>\ttx</code>	smalltype
<code>\ss</code>	sans, sansserif
<code>\ss \bf</code>	sansbold
<code>\setsmallbodyfont</code>	smallbodyfont
<code>\setbigbodyfont</code>	bigbodyfont
<code>\smallcapped</code>	cap, capital
<code>\WORD</code>	WORD

**Table 5.5** Remaining font alternative keywords.

## 5.4 Emphasize

Within most macro–packages the command `\em` is available. This command behaves like a chameleon which means that it will adapt to the actual typeface. In ConT<sub>E</sub>Xt `\em` has the following characteristics:

- a switch to *italic* or *slanted* is possible
- a switch within `\bf` results in ***bold italic*** or ***bold slanted*** (when available)
- a so called *italic correction* is performed automatically (`\/`)

The bold italic or bold slanted characters are supported only when `\bs` and `\bi` are available.

```
The mnemonic {\em em} means {\em emphasis}.
{\em The mnemonic {\em em} means {\em emphasis}.}
{\bf The mnemonic {\em em} means {\em emphasis}.}
{\em \bf The mnemonic {\em em} means {\em emphasis}.}
{\it The mnemonic em {\em means \bf emphasis}.}
{\sl The mnemonic em {\em means \bf emphasis}.}
```

This results in:

The mnemonic *em* means *emphasis*.

The mnemonic *em* means emphasis.

**The mnemonic *em* means *emphasis*.**

**The mnemonic **em** means **emphasis**.**

The mnemonic *em* means **emphasis**.

The mnemonic *em* means **emphasis**.

The advantage of the use of `\em` over `\it` and/or `\sl` is that consistent typesetting is enforced.

By default emphasis is set at *slanted*, but in this text it is set at *italic*. This setting is made via `\setupbodyfontenvironment`, see [section 5.9](#) for more details:

```
\setupbodyfontenvironment
  [default]
  [em=italic]
```

## 5.5 Line spacing

In  $\text{T}_{\text{E}}\text{X}$  linespacing is determined by a number of variable dimensions like `\topskip`, `\parskip` and `\baselineskip`. However, in  $\text{ConT}_{\text{E}}\text{Xt}$  these variables are related to the bodyfont size.

A line has a height and a depth. The distance between two lines is normally equal to the sum of the maximum height and maximum depth:



This sum is in  $\text{ConT}_{\text{E}}\text{Xt}$  equal to `2.8ex`, so almost three times the height of an `x`. This is about 1.2 times the bodyfont height. The proportion between maximum height and depth is `.72 : .28` by default. Linespacing alters when a new bodyfont is used or when linespacing is defined explicitly by `\setupinterlinespace` (which is explained later):

Sometimes a line does not have the maximum height or depth. The next example illustrates this:



It says:

The height and depth of lines differs.

When we put two of these lines above each other we will get:



You can see that the distance is somewhat bigger than the sum of the height and depth of each separate line. This distance is called the baseline distance (`\baselineskip`) and is in this document `13.8292pt`. If we add some extra height to the line we see this:



To prevent the lines from touching  $\text{T}_{\text{E}}\text{X}$  adds a `\lineskip`, in our example `1.0pt`. In a similar way  $\text{T}_{\text{E}}\text{X}$  is taking care of the first line of a page to have at least a height of `\topskip` (here `11.0pt` plus `55.0pt`).

Linespacing is set up by:

```
\setupinterlinespace [...]
                        OPTIONAL
*   reset small medium auto big on off
```

```
\setupinterlinespace [...,.*,...]
*   height = NUMBER
    depth  = NUMBER
    line   = DIMENSION
    top    = NUMBER
    bottom = NUMBER
```

Linespacing adapts to the size of the actual bodyfont automatically. This means that the user can leave this command untouched, unless a different linespacing is wanted. Instead of a factor one of the predetermined values `small` (1.0), `medium` (1.25) or `big` (1.5) can be given. Below an example is given of a text with a linespacing of 1.25: `\setupinterlinespace[medium]`.

Whenever it comes to my mind that “everything that comes in quantities, will somehow survive”, I also got the feeling that in a few hundred years people will draw the saddening conclusion that all those top–ten hits produced by computers represent the some of todays musical and instrumental abilities. Isn’t it true that archaeologists can spend a lifetime on speculating about some old coins from the first century? On the other hand, the mere fact that one can have success with this type of non–music success of some top–hit musicians demonstrates both the listeners inability to rate the product and the lack of self criticism of the performers. In principle the future archaeologist will therefore draw the right conclusion.

When you make a font switch the linespacing is adapted when you give the command `\setupinterlinespace` without any setup parameters and also when you add the key `reset`, for example

```
\setupinterlinespace[reset,medium]
```

The text below is typeset in the fontsize `\tfa`, using the following input:

```
\start \tfa \setupinterlinespace
In books meant for children we often find
a somewhat ... when needed. \par \stop
```

In this example the `\par` is necessary because  $\TeX$  operates on whole paragraphs. Within a group one has to close the paragraph explicitly with an empty line or `\par` otherwise  $\TeX$  will have forgotten the linespacing before the paragraph is finished (as in that case, the paragraph is ended by the empty line after the `\stop`).

The word `height` is typeset inside a bare `\tfd` group, to illustrate why `\setupinterlinespace` is required.



In books meant for children we often find a somewhat bigger typeface, for instance because we are convinced that this enables them to read the book themselves. On the other hand, I can also imagine that it is a cheap way to increase the number of pages. Unfortunately scaling up will also uncover the lack of quality of the typesetting used and/or the lack of typographic knowledge of the user of such a system. The interline space sometimes differs on a line by line basis, and depends on the **height** of the current line. Therefore, when changing the style, something that should only be done on purpose, also change the baseline distance when needed.

Instead of a keyword, one can pass a key–value pair to define the characteristics of a line.

The default settings are:

```
\setupinterlinespace
  [height=.72,
   depth=.28,
   top=1.0,
   bottom=0.4,
   line=2.8ex]
```

The `height` and `depth` determine the ratio between the height and depth of a line. The baseline distance is set to `2.8ex`. The parameters `top` and `bottom` specify the relation between the bodyfont size and the height of the first line and the depth of the last line on a page. They are related to T<sub>E</sub>X's `\topskip` and `\maxdepth`.

We will see later that instead of setting the spacing at the document level, i.e. for each font, you can set the spacing per body font environment:

```
\setupbodyfontenvironment
  [modern] [12pt]
  [interlinespace=14pt]
```

## 5.6 Capitals

Some words and abbreviations are typeset in capitals (uppercase). ConT<sub>E</sub>Xt provides the following commands for changing both upper- and lowercase characters into capitals.

```
\cap {.*.}
* CONTENT
```

```
\Cap {.*.}
* CONTENT
```

```
\CAP {.*.}
```

```
* CONTENT
```

```
\Caps {... *. ...}
```

```
* WORD
```

The command `\cap` converts all letters to capitals at the size of `\tx`. If you switch to italic (`\it`), bold (`\bf`), etc. the capital letter will also change. Since `\cap` has a specific meaning in math mode, the formal implementation is called `\smallcapped`. However in text mode one can use `\cap`.

Capitals for `\cap {UK}` are `\cap {OK}` and capitals for `\cap {USA}` are okay. But what about capitals in `\cap {Y2K}`.

this results in:

Capitals for UK are OK and capitals for USA are okay. But what about capitals in Y2K.

A `\cap` within a `\cap` will not lead to any problems:

```
\cap {People that have gathered their \cap {capital} at the cost of other
people are not seldom \nocap {decapitated} in revolutionary times.}
```

or:

PEOPLE THAT HAVE GATHERED THEIR CAPITAL AT THE COST OF OTHER PEOPLE ARE NOT SELDOM decapitated IN REVOLUTIONARY TIMES.

In this example you can see that `\cap` can be temporarily revoked by `\nocap`.

```
\nocap {.*.}
```

```
* CONTENT
```

The command `\Cap` changes the first character of a word into a capital and `\CAP` changes letters that are preceded by `\` into capital letters. With `\Caps` you can change the first character of several words into a capital letter.

```
\setupcapitals [...,.*,...]
```

```
* title = yes no
  sc     = yes no
```

With this command the capital mechanism can be set up. The key `sc=yes` switches to real SMALL CAPS. The key `title` determines whether capitals in titles are changed.

Next to the former `\cap`-commands there are also:

```
\Word {...}
```

```
* WORD
```

and

```
\Words {... ..}
```

```
* WORD
```

These commands switch the first characters of a word or words into capitals. All characters in a word are changed with:

```
\WORD {...}
```

```
* WORD
```

Let's end this section with real small capitals. When these are available the real small caps `\sc` are preferred over the pseudo-capital in abbreviations and logos.

In a manual on `\TeX` and `Con\TeX t` there is always the question whether to type `\cap{\TeX}` and `\cap{Con\TeX t}` or `{\sc \TeX}` and `{\sc Con\TeX t}`. Both are defined as a logo in the style definition so we type `\type {\TeX}` and `\type {\CONTEXT}`, which come out as `\TeX` and `\CONTEXT`.

Results in:

In a manual on `TEX` and `ConTEXt` there is always the question whether to type `TEX` and `CONTEXT` or `TEX` and `ConTEXt`. Both are defined as a logo in the style definition so we type `\TeX` and `\CONTEXT`, which come out as `TEX` and `ConTEXt`.

IT IS ALWAYS POSSIBLE TO TYPESET TEXT IN SMALL CAPITALS. HOWEVER, REALIZE THAT LOWER CASE CHARACTERS DISCRIMINATE MORE AND MAKE FOR AN EASIER READ.

An important difference between `\cap` and `\sc` is that the latter command is used for a specific designed font type. The command `\cap` on the other hand adapts itself to the actual typeface: *KAP, KAP, KAP*, etc.

## 5.7 Character spacing

Some typesetting packages stretch words (inter character spacing) to reach an acceptable alignment. In `ConTEXt` this not supported. On purpose! Words in titles can be stretched by:

```
\stretched {...}
```

```
* WORD
```

```
\hbox to \hsize {\stretched{there\\is\\much\\stretch\\in ...}}
\hbox to 20em {\stretched{... and\\here\\somewhat\\less}}
```

With `\\` you can enforce a space (`{}` is also allowed).

there is much stretch in ...  
... and here somewhat less

These typographically non permitted actions are only allowed in heads. The macros that take care of stretching do this by processing the text character by character.

This chapter will not go into the details of underlining because using underlining for typographical purposes is a bad practice. Instead, the commands related to under- and over-lining are discussed in [section 14.5](#) (“**Underline**”).

## 5.8 Selecting bodyfonts

The bodyfont (main font), font style and size is set up with:

```
\setupbodyfont [...,*,...]

* IDENTIFIER serif regular roman sans support sansserif mono type teletype handwritten
  calligraphic 5pt ... 12pt
```

In a running text a temporary font switch is done with the command:

```
\switchtobodyfont [...,*,...]

* IDENTIFIER serif regular roman sans support sansserif mono type teletype handwritten
  calligraphic 5pt ... 12pt small big
```

This command doesn’t change the bodyfont in headers and footers. With `small` and `big` you switch to a smaller or larger font.

In most cases, the command `\setupbodyfont` is only used once: in the style definition, and font switching inside the document is done with `\switchtobodyfont`. Don’t confuse these two because that may lead to some rather strange but legitimate effects.

### 5.8.1 Body font sizes

Body font sizes actually consist of two components: the font size and a number of indirect parameters. Think of things like the font size used in headers, footers, footnotes, sub- and superscripts, as well as the interline space and a few others.

This is why in ConT<sub>E</sub>Xt there is the concept of a *body font environment* (expressed as a dimension), and that is what you pass as an argument to `\setupbodyfont` or `\switchtobodyfont`. The definitions as presented above indicate `5pt ... 12pt` for the body font environment, but actually any dimension is acceptable.

The most frequently used sizes are predefined as body font environments: `4pt ... 12pt`, `14.4pt`, and `17.3pt`. But when you use a different, not-yet-defined size specification—for example in a title page—ConT<sub>E</sub>Xt will define a body font environment for that size automatically. While doing so, ConT<sub>E</sub>Xt normally works with a precision of 1 decimal to prevent unnecessary loading of font sizes with only small size differences.

Be warned that in this case, the results may be a less than ideal. The reason is that ConT<sub>E</sub>Xt not just has to load the actual font, but it also has to guess at the various other settings like

the relative font sizes and the interline space. It does so by using the values from the nearest smaller body font environment is that is already defined.

You can extend the list of predefined body font environments and even alter the precision in body font matching. See [section 5.9](#) for detailed information about how to tweak or define your own body font sizes.

To end this section, the example below demonstrates how the interline space is adapted automatically, when changing the size of the bodyfont. Consider this input:

```
{\switchtobodyfont[14.4pt] with these commands \par}
{\switchtobodyfont[12pt]   for font switching \par}
{\switchtobodyfont[10pt]  it is possible to \par}
{\switchtobodyfont[8pt]   produce an eye test: \par}
{\switchtobodyfont[6pt]   a x c e u i w m q p \par}
```

The actual ConTEXt behaviour is shown below on the left. On the right you can see what would have happened if the interline space were not automatically adapted.

with these commands  
for font switching  
it is possible to  
produce an eye test:  
a x c e u i w m q p

with these commands  
for font switching  
it is possible to  
produce an eye test:  
a x c e u i w m q p

## 5.8.2 Body font identifiers

In the definition block of `setupbodyfont` there was a list of words given besides the special marker `IDENTIFIER`. These words are the symbolic ConTEXt names for the font styles that we ran into earlier, with a few aliases so that you do not have to worry about the actual naming convention used. The symbolic names are mapped to two-letter internal style abbreviations that are used internally. See [table 5.2](#) for an overview.

Although the macro syntax does not say so, you can use two-letter internal style abbreviations (`ss`, `rm`) as well as the longer names, if you prefer.

We have seen already that there are other and easier ways to switch the font style, so if `\setupbodyfont` could only be used for this purpose it would not be all that useful. But luckily there is more: the optional `IDENTIFIER` can be a ‘body font name’ (aka ‘typeface’). Such names have to be predefined, perhaps in a font support file, or simply on earlier lines in the style definition.

A ‘typeface’ is a symbolic name that links a single font style to actual font families. Such symbolic names are typically grouped together in a definition block that sets up values that link the four styles `\rm`, `\ss`, `\tt` and `\mm` to fonts in a ‘font collection’, and such definition blocks are called ‘typescripts’.

ConTEXt expects you to define your own font setups, but there are quite a few examples predefined in various typescript files. Not all of those are perpetually loaded, so you usually have to execute a typescript explicitly to get the typeface names predefined. To this end, typescripts *themselves* also have names.

Executing a typescript is done by `\usetypescript`. We will get back to `\usetypescript` later because it is in fact a very flexible command, but let’s discuss simple usage first.

```

\usenamescript [...1,...] [...2,...] [...3,...]
                OPTIONAL      OPTIONAL
1  IDENTIFIER
2  IDENTIFIER
3  IDENTIFIER

```

A typical input sequence for selecting the predefined ‘palatino’ set of typefaces in MkII will look like this:

```

\usenamescript [palatino] [ec]
\setupbodyfont [palatino, 12pt]

```

In this example the typescript named `palatino` is asked for in the `ec` font encoding, and that defines a set of typefaces under the name `palatino`. These are then used by `\setupbodyfont` and eventually this makes pdf $\TeX$  load the free Type 1 font URW Palladio in the correct encoding. URW Palladio is a font that looks a lot like the commercial font Linotype Palatino by Hermann Zapf, which explains the name of the typescript and typefaces.

Font encodings will be handled fully in the [section 5.15](#). For now, please take for granted the fact that pdf $\TeX$  needs a second argument to `\usenamescript` that specifies an encoding name, and that there is a fixed set of acceptable names that depends on the typescript that is being requested.

In  $\X\TeX$  and MkIV the situation is a little bit different because fonts are reencoded to match Unicode whenever that is possible. That in turn means that  $\X\TeX$  and MkIV prefer to use OpenType fonts over Type 1 fonts, so different typescript definitions are used behind the scenes, and the second argument to `\usenamescript` becomes optional.

For example,

```

\usenamescript [palatino]
\setupbodyfont [palatino, 12pt]

```

will make  $\X\TeX$  and Lua $\TeX$  load the OpenType font Pagella. This is a free font from the  $\TeX$  Gyre project, that also looks just like the commercial font Linotype Palatino. You may as well leave the second argument in place: while it will always be ignored by Lua $\TeX$ ,  $\X\TeX$  will actually use that encoding if the typescript uses Type 1 fonts instead of the more modern OpenType or TrueType font formats.

All predefined typescripts attach meaning to (at least) the three basic text font styles (serif, sans, and mono), so you can e.g. do this:

```

\usenamescript [times] [ec]
\setupbodyfont [times, sans, 12pt]

```

and end up using the OpenType font  $\TeX$  Gyre Heros or the Type 1 font URW Nimbus Sans L. Both fonts are very similar in appearance to Linotype Helvetica, by the way.

The typescripts that come with the Con $\TeX$ t distribution are placed in source files that have names that start with `type-`. Some of these files are automatically loaded when needed, but most have to be loaded explicitly. There is a list in [table 5.6](#)

Some of the internal building blocks for typescripts are themselves located in yet other files (font size and font map file information, for example). Normally, when Con $\TeX$ t has to load

typescript information from files, it will try to save memory by only executing the typescript it needs at that moment and discarding all other information. If you have enough memory at your disposal, you can speed up typescript use considerably by adding

`\preloadtypescripts`

in your preamble or your `cont-usr.tex`. This will make ConTeXt store all the typescript information in internal token registers the first (and therefore only) time it loads the actual files.

File	Loaded by pdfTeX	Loaded by XeTeX	Loaded by MkIV	Description
type-akb	no	no	no	PostScript fonts using psnfss names (Type 1)
type-buy	no	no	no	Various commercial fonts (Type 1)
type-cbg	no	no	no	Greek free fonts (Type 1)
type-cow	no	no	no	The ConTeXt cow font (Type 1)
type-exp	no	no	no	Commercial Zapf fonts (OpenType)
type-fsf	no	no	no	Commercial Fontsite 500 fonts (Type 1)
type-ghz	no	no	no	Commercial Zapf fonts (Type 1)
type-gyr	no	no	no	The TeX Gyre project fonts (Type 1)
type-hgz	no	no	no	Commercial Zapf fonts (OpenType)
type-msw	no	no	no	Fonts that come with Microsoft Windows (Type 1)
type-omg	no	no	no	Omega free fonts (Type 1)
type-one	yes	no	no	Various free fonts (Type 1)
type-otf	no	yes	yes	Various free fonts (OpenType)
type-ctx	no	yes	no	Fonts that come with MacOSX (OpenType)

**Table 5.6** The typescript source files that are part of ConTeXt.

Explicit loading one of those files is done via the macro `\usetypescriptfile`.

The predefined typescripts, the typefaces they define, the files in which they are contained in the ConTeXt distribution, and the encodings they support in MkII mode are listed in [table 5.7](#). In the following section there is a table ([5.8](#)) that explains what font set each typescript attaches to each of the font styles.

```
\usetypescriptfile [...,*...]
* FILE
```

For example, the following

```
\usetypescriptfile[type-buy]
\usetypescript[lucida][texnansi]
\setupbodyfont[lucida,12pt]
```

will make pdfTeX use the Lucida Bright font family. Because this is a commercial font, this only works correctly if you have actually bought and installed the fonts. This uses the `texnansi` encoding because that is the preferred encoding of the actual fonts.

This is a good moment to explain a little trick: because the various `type-xxx` files define the building blocks for typescripts as well as the actual typescripts, it is sometimes possible to alter the effect of a typescript by loading an extra typescript file. For example,

```
\usetypescriptfile[type-gyr]
\usetypescript[palatino][ec]
```

<b>Typescript</b>	<b>Typeface</b>	<b>File</b>	<b>Encodings</b>
antykwa-torunska	antykwa	type-one, type-otf	texnansi,ec,8r,t2a
fourier	fourier	type-one	ec
iwona	iwona	type-one, type-otf	texnansi,ec,8r,t2a
iwona-heavy	iwona-heavy	type-one, type-otf	texnansi,ec,8r,t2a
iwona-light	iwona-light	type-one, type-otf	texnansi,ec,8r,t2a
iwona-medium	iwona-medium	type-one, type-otf	texnansi,ec,8r,t2a
modern	modern	type-one, type-otf	texnansi,ec,qx,t5,default
modern-base	modern	type-one, type-otf	texnansi,ec,qx,t5,default,t2a/b/c
modernvariable	modernvariable	type-one, type-otf	texnansi,ec,qx,8r,t5
palatino	palatino	type-one, type-otf	texnansi,ec,qx,8r,t5
postscript	postscript	type-one, type-otf	texnansi,ec,qx,8r,t5
times	times	type-one, type-otf	texnansi,ec,qx,8r,t5
OmegaLGC	omlgc	type-omg	(unspecified)
cbgreek	cbgreek	type-cbg	(unspecified)
cbgreek-all	cbgreek-all	type-cbg	(unspecified)
cbgreek-medium	cbgreek-medium	type-cbg	(unspecified)
cow	cow	type-cow	default
sheep	sheep	type-cow	default
<b>lucida</b>	lucida	type-buy	texnansi,ec,8r
<b>lucidabfm</b>	lucida	type-buy	texnansi,ec,8r
<b>lucidabfm</b>	lucidabfm	type-buy	texnansi,ec,8r
<b>lucidaboldmath</b>	lucida	type-buy	texnansi,ec,8r
<b>lucidaboldmath</b>	lucidaboldmath	type-buy	texnansi,ec,8r
<b>optima</b>	optima	type-one	texnansi,ec,qx
<b>optima</b>	optima	type-ghz	texnansi,ec,qx
<b>optima-nova</b>	optima	type-ghz, type-hgz	texnansi,ec
<b>optima-nova-os</b>	optima-os	type-ghz, type-hgz	texnansi,ec
<b>palatino</b>	palatino	type-hgz	(cannot be used in MkII)
<b>palatino-informal</b>	palatino-informal	type-hgz	(cannot be used in MkII)
<b>palatino-light</b>	palatino-light	type-exp	(cannot be used in MkII)
<b>palatino-medium</b>	palatino-medium	type-exp	(cannot be used in MkII)
<b>palatino-normal</b>	palatino-normal	type-exp	(cannot be used in MkII)
<b>palatino-nova</b>	palatino	type-hgz	(cannot be used in MkII)
<b>palatino-sans</b>	palatino	type-hgz	(cannot be used in MkII)

**Table 5.7** The typescripts. Typescripts that use commercial fonts are typeset in bold. Typescripts above the horizontal line are preloaded.

```
\setupbodyfont [palatino,12pt]
```

will result in pdfTeX using the Type 1 font Pagella from the TeX Gyre project instead of the older and less complete URW Palladio, because the definition of the building blocks for the `palatino` typescript that is in the `type-gyr` file overwrites the preloaded definition from the `type-one` file.

Two of the files in the ConTeXt distribution exist precisely for this reason:

```
type-gyr.tex
```

maps the typical PostScript font names for the free URW fonts to the TeX Gyre set;

```
type-akb.tex
```

maps the same names to the commercial Adobe fonts.

For the definitions in the second file to work, you also need to execute an extra typescript:

```
\usetypescriptfile [type-akb]
```



```
\usetypescript [adobekb] [ec]
\usetypescript [palatino] [ec]
\setupbodyfont [palatino,12pt]
```

### 5.8.3 Typeface definitions

Defining a typeface goes like this:

```
\starttypescript [palatino] [texnansi,ec,qx,t5,default]
\definetypescript [palatino] [rm] [serif] [palatino] [default]
\definetypescript [palatino] [ss] [sans] [modern] [default] [rscale=1.075]
\definetypescript [palatino] [tt] [mono] [modern] [default] [rscale=1.075]
\definetypescript [palatino] [mm] [math] [palatino] [default]
\stoptypescript
```

This defines a typescript named `palatino` in five different encodings. When this typescript is executed via `\usetypescript`, it will define four typefaces, one of each of the four basic styles `rm`, `ss`, `tt`, and `mm`.

```
\definetypescript [.1.] [.2.] [.3.] [.4.] [.5.] [.6.]
                                OPTIONAL OPTIONAL
1 TEXT
2 rm ss tt mm hw cg
3 IDENTIFIER
4 IDENTIFIER
5 IDENTIFIER
6 features = IDENTIFIER
  rscale  = NUMBER
  encoding = IDENTIFIER
  text    = IDENTIFIER
```

The third and fourth arguments to `\definetypescript` are pointers to already declared font sets; these are defined elsewhere. [Table 5.8](#) gives the full list of predefined typescripts (the first argument of `\starttypescript`) and font sets that are attached to the styles (the third and fourth argument of each `\definetypescript`).

The names in the third argument (like `serif` and `sans`) do *not* have the same meaning as the names used in `\setupbodyfont`. Inside `\setupbodyfont`, they were keywords that were internally remapped to one of the two-letter internal styles. Inside `\definetypescript`, they are nothing more than convenience names that are attached to a group of fonts by the person that wrote the font definition. They only reflect a grouping that the person believed that could be a single font style. Oftentimes, these names are identical to the official style keywords, just as the typescript and typeface names are often the same, but there can be (and sometimes are) different names altogether.

How to define your own font sets will be explained in the next chapter, but there are quite a few predefined font sets that come with ConTeXt; these are all listed in the four tables [5.9](#), [5.10](#), [5.11](#), and [5.12](#).

Typescript	Style <b>rm</b>	Style <b>ss</b>	Style <b>tt</b>	Style <b>mm</b>
OmegaLGC	omega	–	omega	–
antykwa-torunska	antykwa-torunska	modern	modern	antykwa-torunska
cbgreek	cbgreek	cbgreek	cbgreek	–
cbgreek-all	cbgreek	cbgreek	cbgreek	–
cbgreek-medium	cbgreek	cbgreek	cbgreek	–
cow	cow	cow serif	modern	cow
fallback	modern	modern	modern	modern
fourier	fourier	modern	modern	fourier
iwona	modern	iwona	modern	iwona
iwona-heavy	modern	iwona-heavy	modern	iwona-heavy
iwona-light	modern	iwona-light	modern	iwona-light
iwona-medium	modern	iwona-medium	modern	iwona-medium
lucida	lucida	lucida	lucida	lucida
lucidabfm	lucida	lucida	lucida	lucida bfm $\mathbf{t}$
lucidaboldmath	lucida	lucida	lucida	lucida boldmath
modern	modern	modern	modern	modern
modern-base	(computer-)modern	(computer-)modern	(computer-)modern	(computer-)modern
modernvariable	simple	modern	modern	modern
optima	palatino	optima-nova	modern	palatino
optima-nova	optima-nova sans	optima-nova	latin-modern	latin-modern
optima-nova-os	optima-nova-os sans	optima-nova-os	latin-modern	latin-modern
palatino	palatino-nova	palatino-sans	latin-modern	latin-modern
palatino	palatino	modern	modern	palatino
palatino-informal	palatino-nova	palatino-informal	latin-modern	latin-modern
palatino-light	palatino-nova	palatino-sans-light	latin-modern	latin-modern
palatino-medium	palatino-nova	palatino-sans-medium	latin-modern	latin-modern
palatino-normal	palatino-nova	palatino-sans-normal	latin-modern	latin-modern
palatino-nova	palatino-nova	palatino-sans	latin-modern	latin-modern
palatino-sans	palatino-nova	palatino-sans	latin-modern	latin-modern
postscript	times	helvetica	courier	times
sheep	sheep	sheep serif	modern	sheep
times	times	helvetica	modern	times

**Table 5.8** The typescripts.

Unless stated otherwise, style **rm** uses a group named serif, style **ss** uses sans, style **tt** uses mono, and style **mm** uses math. A single dash in a cell means that the typescript does not define that style; you should refrain from using the style. The lucida, lucidabfm, and lucidaboldmath typescripts also define **hw** and **cg** as ‘lucida handwriting’ and ‘lucida calligraphy’. The modern-base typescript switches back to computer-modern for a few legacy encodings: t2a, t2b, and t2c.

For everything to work properly in MkII, the predefined font sets also have to have an encoding attached, you can look those up in the relevant tables as well.

The fifth argument to `\def inetypeface` specifies specific font size setups (if any), these will be covered in section ?? in the next chapter. Almost always, specifying `default` will suffice.

The optional sixth argument is used for tweaking font settings like the specification of font features or adjusting parameters. In this case, the two modern font sets are loaded with a small magnification, this evens out the visual heights of the font styles.

A note for the lazy: if the sixth argument is not given and the fifth argument happens to be `default`, then the fifth argument can be omitted as well.

There are four possible keys in the sixth argument:

Identifier	file	Encodings	Supported styles
modern	type-one	ec, qx, texnansi, t5	serif, sans, mono, math, boldmath, bfmath
latin-modern	type-one	ec, qx, texnansi, t5	serif, sans, mono, math, boldmath, bfmath
computer-modern	type-one	t2a/b/c	serif, sans, mono, math, boldmath, bfmath
simple	type-one	– synonyms only –	serif
concrete	type-one	– hardcoded –	serif
euler	type-one	– hardcoded –	math, boldmath, bfmath
ams	type-one	– hardcoded –	math
fourier	type-one	ec	math, serif
courier	type-one	8r, ec, qx, texnansi, t5	mono
helvetica	type-one	8r, ec, qx, texnansi, t5	sans
times	type-one	8r, ec, qx, texnansi, t5	serif, math
palatino	type-one	8r, ec, qx, texnansi, t5	serif, math
bookman	type-one	8r, ec, qx, texnansi, t5	serif
schoolbook	type-one	8r, ec, texnansi, t5	serif
chancery	type-one	8r, ec, qx, texnansi	calligraphy
charter	type-one	8r, ec, texnansi	serif
utopia	type-one	ec, texnansi	serif
antykwa-torunska	type-one	ec, qx, texnansi, t5, t2a/b/c, greek	serif, math
antykwa-torunska-light	type-one	ec, qx, texnansi, t5, t2a/b/c, greek	serif, math
antykwa-torunska-cond	type-one	ec, qx, texnansi, t5, t2a/b/c, greek	serif, math
antykwa-torunska-lightcond	type-one	ec, qx, texnansi, t5, t2a/b/c, greek	serif, math
antykwa-poltawskiego	type-one	8r, ec, texnansi	serif
iwona	type-one	ec, qx, texnansi, t5	sans, math
iwona-light	type-one	ec, qx, texnansi, t5	sans, math
iwona-medium	type-one	ec, qx, texnansi, t5	sans, math
iwona-heavy	type-one	ec, qx, texnansi, t5	sans, math
iwona-cond	type-one	ec, qx, texnansi, t5	sans
iwona-light-cond	type-one	ec, qx, texnansi, t5	sans
iwona-medium-cond	type-one	ec, qx, texnansi, t5	sans
iwona-heavy-cond	type-one	ec, qx, texnansi, t5	sans
kurier	type-one	ec, qx, texnansi, t5	sans, math
kurier-light	type-one	ec, qx, texnansi, t5	sans, math
kurier-medium	type-one	ec, qx, texnansi, t5	sans, math
pagella	type-gyr	ec, qx, texnansi, t5, t2a/b/c	serif
palatino	type-gyr	ec, qx, texnansi, t5, t2a/b/c	serif
termes	type-gyr	ec, qx, texnansi, t5, t2a/b/c	serif
times	type-gyr	ec, qx, texnansi, t5, t2a/b/c	serif
bonum	type-gyr	ec, qx, texnansi, t5, t2a/b/c	serif
bookman	type-gyr	ec, qx, texnansi, t5, t2a/b/c	serif
schola	type-gyr	ec, qx, texnansi, t5, t2a/b/c	serif
schoolbook	type-gyr	ec, qx, texnansi, t5, t2a/b/c	serif
heros	type-gyr	ec, qx, texnansi, t5, t2a/b/c	sans
helvetica	type-gyr	ec, qx, texnansi, t5, t2a/b/c	sans
adventor	type-gyr	ec, qx, texnansi, t5, t2a/b/c	sans
cursor	type-gyr	ec, qx, texnansi, t5, t2a/b/c	mono
courier	type-gyr	ec, qx, texnansi, t5, t2a/b/c	mono
omega	type-omg	– hardcoded –	naskh, serif, mono
cbgreek	type-cbg	– hardcoded –	serif, sans, mono
cbgreek-medium	type-cbg	– hardcoded –	serif, sans, mono
cbgreek-all	type-cbg	– hardcoded –	serif, sans, mono
cow	type-cow	– hardcoded –	math, serif
sheep	type-cow	– hardcoded –	math, serif

**Table 5.9** The predefined body font identifiers for free Type 1 and MetaFont fonts

Identifier	file	Encodings	Supported styles
lucida	type-buy	8r, ec, texnansi	serif, sans, mono, handwriting, calligraphy, math, boldmath, bfmath, casual, fax
informal	type-buy	– hardcoded –	casual, math
officina	type-buy	8r, ec, texnansi	serif, sans
meta	type-buy	8r, ec, texnansi	serif, sans, expert
meta-medium	type-buy	8r, ec, texnansi	sans
meta-lf	type-buy	8r, ec, texnansi	sans
meta-book	type-buy	8r, ec, texnansi	sans
meta-book-lf	type-buy	8r, ec, texnansi	sans
meta-bold	type-buy	8r, ec, texnansi	sans
meta-bold-lf	type-buy	8r, ec, texnansi	sans
meta-normal	type-buy	8r, ec, texnansi	sans
meta-normal-lf	type-buy	8r, ec, texnansi	sans
meta-medium	type-buy	8r, ec, texnansi	sans
meta-medium-lf	type-buy	8r, ec, texnansi	sans
meta-black	type-buy	8r, ec, texnansi	sans
meta-black-lf	type-buy	8r, ec, texnansi	sans
univers	type-buy	8r, ec, texnansi	sans
univers-light	type-buy	8r, ec, texnansi	sans
univers-black	type-buy	8r, ec, texnansi	sans
mendoza	type-buy	8r, ec, texnansi	serif
frutiger	type-buy	8r, ec, texnansi	sans
kabel	type-buy	8r, ec, texnansi	sans
thesans	type-buy	8r, ec, texnansi	sans, mono, expert
sabon	type-buy	8r, ec, texnansi	serif
stone	type-buy	ec, texnansi	serif, sans
stone-oldstyle	type-buy	– synonyms only –	serif, sans
industria	type-buy	ec, texnansi	sans
bauhaus	type-buy	ec, texnansi	sans
swift	type-buy	ec, texnansi	serif
swift-light	type-buy	– synonyms only –	serif
syntax	type-buy	ec, texnansi	sans
linoletter	type-buy	ec, texnansi	serif
zapfino	type-ghz	8r, ec, texnansi	serif, handwriting
palatino-sans-light	type-exp	texnansi, ec	sans
palatino-sans-normal	type-exp	texnansi, ec	sans
palatino-sans-medium	type-exp	texnansi, ec	sans
opus	type-fsf	8r, ec, texnansi	sans
typewriter	type-fsf	8r, ec, texnansi	mono
garamond	type-fsf	8r, ec, texnansi	serif
optima	type-ghz	8r, ec, texnansi	sans
optima-nova	type-ghz	8r, ec, texnansi	sans
optima-nova-os	type-ghz	8r, ec, texnansi	sans
optima-nova-light	type-ghz	8r, ec, texnansi	sans
optima-nova-medium	type-ghz	8r, ec, texnansi	sans
palatino	type-ghz	8r, ec, texnansi	serif
palatino-nova	type-ghz	8r, ec, texnansi	serif
palatino-nova-os	type-ghz	8r, ec, texnansi	serif
palatino-nova-light	type-ghz	8r, ec, texnansi	serif
palatino-nova-medium	type-ghz	8r, ec, texnansi	serif
aldus-nova	type-ghz	8r, ec, texnansi	serif
melior	type-ghz	8r, ec, texnansi	serif
verdana	type-msw	texnansi	sans
arial	type-msw	texnansi	sans

**Table 5.10** The predefined body font identifiers for commercial Type 1 fonts

Identifier	file	Supported styles	Identifier	file	Supported styles
modern	type-otf	serif, sans, mono, math, boldmath, bfmath	palatino	type-otf	serif, math
			times	type-otf	serif, math
			bookman	type-otf	serif
latin-modern	type-otf	serif, sans, mono, math, boldmath, bfmath	schoolbook	type-otf	serif
			chancery	type-otf	calligraphy
			helvetica	type-otf	sans
modern-vari	type-otf	mono	courier	type-otf	mono
latin-modern-vari	type-otf	mono	antykwa-torunska	type-otf	serif, math
modern-cond	type-otf	mono	antykwa-torunska-light	type-otf	serif, math
latin-modern-cond	type-otf	mono	antykwa-torunska-cond	type-otf	serif, math
computer-modern	type-otf	serif, sans, mono, math, boldmath, bfmath	antykwa-torunska-lightcond	type-otf	serif, math
			antykwa-poltawskiego	type-otf	serif
			iwona-light	type-otf	sans, math
concrete	type-otf	serif	iwona	type-otf	sans, math
euler	type-otf	math, boldmath, bfmath	iwona-medium	type-otf	sans, math
			iwona-heavy	type-otf	sans, math
			iwona-cond	type-otf	sans
ams	type-otf	math	iwona-light-cond	type-otf	sans
pagella	type-otf	serif	iwona-medium-cond	type-otf	sans
termes	type-otf	serif	iwona-heavy-cond	type-otf	sans
bonum	type-otf	serif	kurier	type-otf	sans, math
schola	type-otf	serif	kurier-light	type-otf	sans, math
chorus	type-otf	serif	kurier-medium	type-otf	sans, math
heros	type-otf	sans	charter	type-otf	serif
adventor	type-otf	sans	gentium	type-otf	serif
cursor	type-otf	sans		type-otf	serif

**Table 5.11** The predefined body font identifiers for free Opentype fonts

Identifier	file	Supported styles	Identifier	file	Supported styles
zapfino	type-hgz	serif, handwriting	times	type-otf	serif
optima-nova	type-hgz	sans	palatino	type-otf	serif
optima-nova-os	type-hgz	sans	helvetica	type-otf	sans
optima-nova-light	type-hgz	sans	courier	type-otf	mono
optima-nova-medium	type-hgz	sans	hoefler	type-otf	serif
palatino-nova	type-hgz	serif	lucidagrande	type-otf	sans
palatino-nova-os	type-hgz	serif	optima	type-otf	sans
palatino-nova-light	type-hgz	serif	gillsans	type-otf	sans
palatino-nova-medium	type-hgz	serif	gillsanslt	type-otf	sans
palatino-sans	type-hgz	sans	zapfino	type-otf	handwriting, serif
palatino-informal	type-hgz	sans	applechancery	type-otf	calligraphy, serif
melior	type-hgz	serif	timesnewroman	type-otf	serif
– all four-variant fonts –	type-otf	Xserif	arial	type-otf	sans
– all four-variant fonts –	type-otf	Xsans	lucida	type-otf	serif, sans, mono, handwriting, fax, calligraphy
– all four-variant fonts –	type-otf	Xmono			

**Table 5.12** The predefined body font identifiers for commercial Opentype fonts

key	default value	explanation
rscale	1	a scaling factor for this typescript relative to the selected body font size
encoding	\defaultencoding	the encoding for the typeface, normally inherited from the typescript automatically

features                                   this applies a predefined font feature set (see [section 5.10](#))  
text                                       sets up the forced math text style

If you look closely, in [table 5.12](#) you will notice three very special items: `Xserif`, `Xsans` and `Xmono`. These belong to a special  $\LaTeX$ -only trick called ‘wildcard typescripts’.

$\LaTeX$  offers some nice features in terms of automatically finding related fonts in a family, namely the italic, bold, and bolditalic alternatives. To take advantage of that, there’s a set of wildcard typescripts that take an arbitrary Macintosh font name as input, and provide as many of the alternatives it can find. To set these typescripts (and the calling conventions) apart from the familiar ones, the typescripts are identified with `Xserif`, `Xsans`, and `Xmono`.

To call these special typescripts, it’s most convenient to define a typeface that uses these features. The named font slot should contain the display name of the Regular alternative (not the family name) of the font in question. For example, you could have the following mix:

```
\starttypescript [myface]
\definetypface [myface] [rm] [Xserif] [Baskerville] [default]
\definetypface [myface] [tt] [Xmono] [Courier] [default] [rscale=.87]
\definetypface [myface] [ss] [Xsans] [Optima Regular] [default]
\stoptypescript
```

As you can see, you can activate relative scaling of face sizes. The above definitions look very much like any other typeface definition, except that the serif/sans/mono identifier is preceded with X, and that there is no underlying "Optima Regular" defined anywhere. Those missing bits of the definitions are handled by typescript and  $\LaTeX$  magic.

## 5.9 Body font environments

Earlier we saw that within a single body font there are in fact different font sizes such as super- and subscripts. The relations between these sizes are defined by *body font environments*.

For all regular font sizes, environments are predefined that fulfill their purpose adequately. However when you want to do some extra defining yourself there is:

```
\definebodyfontenvironment [.1.] [.2.] [.3.] [.4.] [.5.] [.6.] [.7.] [.8.] [.9.]
                        OPTIONAL                OPTIONAL
1 IDENTIFIER
2 5pt ... 12pt default
3 text          = DIMENSION
  script        = DIMENSION
  scriptscript  = DIMENSION
  x             = DIMENSION
  xx           = DIMENSION
  a            = DIMENSION
  b            = DIMENSION
  c            = DIMENSION
  d            = DIMENSION
  small        = DIMENSION
  big          = DIMENSION
  interlinespace = DIMENSION
  em          = normal bold slanted boldslanted type cap small... COMMAND
```

The first argument is optional, and specifies the typeface identifier that this particular body font environment setup is for. It defaults to the current typeface.

The second argument is the size of the body font environment that is being defined. This argument is not really optional, the macro syntax description is a little misleading.

The third argument once again is optional, and contains the actual settings as key-value pairs. If it is missing, defaults will be guessed at by ConTeXt itself. Although the macro syntax says the type is DIMENSION, floating point numbers are also acceptable. Such numbers are multipliers that are applied to the font size when the body font environment is applied.

<code>text</code>	Math text size or multiplier (default is 1.0)
<code>script</code>	Math script size (default is 0.7)
<code>scriptscript</code>	Math scriptscript size (default is 0.5)
<code>x</code>	The size used for commands like <code>\tfx</code> (default is 0.8)
<code>xx</code>	The size used for the <code>\tfxx</code> command (default is 0.6)
<code>a</code>	The size for commands like <code>\tfa</code> (default is 1.200)
<code>b</code>	The size for commands like <code>\tfb</code> (default is 1.440)
<code>c</code>	The size for commands like <code>\tfc</code> (default is 1.728)
<code>d</code>	The size for commands like <code>\tfd</code> (default is 2.074)
<code>big</code>	The 'larger' font size (default is 1.2)
<code>small</code>	The 'smaller' font size (default is 0.8)
<code>interlinespace</code>	Distance between lines in a paragraph (default is 2.8ex)
<code>em</code>	The style to use for emphasis (default is <code>slanted</code> )

So, when you want to have a somewhat bigger font size for just a few words (e.g. for a book title) you can type:

```
\definebodyfontenvironment [24pt]
\switchtobodyfont [24pt]
```

For longer stretches of text you will probably want to set up most of the values explicitly, using something like this

```
\definebodyfontenvironment
[22pt]
[
    text=22pt,
    script=17.3pt,
    scriptscript=14.4pt,
    x=17.3pt,
    xx=14.4pt,
    big=28pt,
    small=17.3pt]
```

To tweak already defined sizes, there is an accompanying setup command with the same parameter conventions:

```

\setupbodyfontenvironment [.1.] [.2.] [...,3.,...]
                        OPTIONAL                OPTIONAL
1  inherits from \definebodyfontenvironment
2  inherits from \definebodyfontenvironment
3  inherits from \definebodyfontenvironment

```

## 5.10 Font feature sets

As mentioned already, some fonts contain extra information besides the actual glyph shapes. In traditional T<sub>E</sub>X fonts, the extra information is roughly limited to kerning pairs and ligature information, and both of these ‘features’ are automatically applied to the text that is being typeset. In the odd case where one of the two needs to be suppressed, a little bit of macro trickery can do the job without too many complicating factors.

But with the new OpenType font format that is used by X<sub>Y</sub>T<sub>E</sub>X and LuaT<sub>E</sub>X, the list of possible features has increased enormously. OpenType fonts have not just kerning information and ligature information, but there can also be other features like optional oldstyle figures, caps and smallcaps glyphs, decorative swashes, etc. all inside a single font file.

Not only that, but some of these features are not even supposed to be active all the time. Certain features should only be activated if the user asks for it, while other features depend on the script and language that is in use for the text that is being typeset.

This is a big step forward in that there are now far fewer fonts needed to achieve the same level of quality than before, all that extra font information also poses a big challenge for macro writers. And add to that the fact that at the core, the two engines (X<sub>Y</sub>T<sub>E</sub>X and LuaT<sub>E</sub>X) handle OpenType fonts completely different from each other.

ConT<sub>E</sub>Xt has a new subsystem called ‘font features’ to create order in this forest of features. The most important command is `\definefontfeature`. This command can be used to group various font features under a single symbolic name, that can then be used as e.g. the argument to the features key of `\definetypface`.

```

\definefontfeature [.1.] [.2.] [.3.]
                        OPTIONAL
1  TEXT
2  IDENTIFIER
3  compose   = no yes
   mode      = node base
   tlig      = no yes
   trep      = no yes
   script    = IDENTIFIER
   language  = IDENTIFIER
   ..tag..   = no yes

```

```

\definefontfeature
  [default-base]
  [script=latn,language=dflt,liga=yes,kern=yes,tlig=yes,trep=yes]

```



As you can probably guess, the first argument is the symbolic name that is being defined. The second argument is a mix of a-hoc settings and OpenType font features.

<code>compose</code>	Use fallback composition in MkIV (experimental, undocumented)
<code>protrusion</code>	Character protrusion in MkIV (see <a href="#">section 5.14</a> )
<code>expansion</code>	Character expansion in MkIV (see <a href="#">section 5.14</a> )
<code>script</code>	An OpenType script identifier
<code>language</code>	An OpenType script language identifier
<code>tlig</code>	A virtual feature for legacy (T <sub>E</sub> X-style) automatic ligatures (for compatibility, there is an alias for this key called <code>texligatures</code> )
<code>trep</code>	A virtual feature for legacy (T <sub>E</sub> X-style) automatic ligatures (for compatibility, there is an alias for this key called <code>texquotes</code> ) (only works in MkIV)
<code>mode</code>	Processing mode for MkIV. <code>node</code> and <code>base</code> allowed, <code>base</code> is default
<code>&lt;tag&gt;</code>	Any OpenType feature tag is acceptable, but in MkIV only a ‘known’ subset actually has any effect, and then only in <code>node</code> mode. This list is given in <a href="#">table 5.13</a> . In X <sub>Y</sub> T <sub>E</sub> X, processing depends on the internal subengine that is used by X <sub>Y</sub> T <sub>E</sub> X, and that is outside of ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt’s control.

A few fontfeatures are predefined by context:

<code>default</code>	<code>liga=yes,kern=yes,tlig=yes,trep=yes</code>
<code>smallcaps</code>	<code>liga=yes,kern=yes,tlig=yes,trep=yes,smcp=yes</code>
<code>oldstyle</code>	<code>liga=yes,kern=yes,tlig=yes,trep=yes,onum=yes</code>

At the moment, `smallcaps` and `oldstyle` only work in X<sub>Y</sub>T<sub>E</sub>X (in MkIV, it would need an extra `mode=node` pair).

## 5.11 Displaying the current font setup

With the command `\showbodyfont` an overview is generated of the available characters, and an overview of the different fontsize within a family can be summoned with `\showbodyfontenvironment`.

```
\showbodyfont [...]
                OPTIONAL
* inherits from \setupbodyfont
```

```
\showbodyfontenvironment [...]
                            OPTIONAL
* inherits from \setupbodyfont
```

Specifying actual IDENTIFIERS to these commands is currently unreliable because they internally are still counting on an older system of body font definitions, but you can safely use a size argument to get the information for the current font set.

Below an example of the possible output is shown, for `\showbodyfont [12pt]`

aalt	Access All Alternates	ital	Italics	smcp	Small Capitals
abvf	Above-Base Forms	jalt	Justification Alternatives	smp1	Simplified Forms
abvm	Above-Base Mark Positioning	jp04	JIS2004 Forms	ss01	Stylistic Set 1
abvs	Above-Base Substitutions	jp78	JIS78 Forms	ss02	Stylistic Set 2
afrc	Alternative Fractions	jp83	JIS83 Forms	ss03	Stylistic Set 3
akhn	Akhands	jp90	JIS90 Forms	ss04	Stylistic Set 4
blwf	Below-Base Forms	kern	Kerning	ss05	Stylistic Set 5
blwm	Below-Base Mark Positioning	lfbf	Left Bounds	ss06	Stylistic Set 6
blws	Below-Base Substitutions	liga	Standard Ligatures	ss07	Stylistic Set 7
c2pc	Petite Capitals From Capitals	ljmo	Leading Jamo Forms	ss08	Stylistic Set 8
c2sc	Small Capitals From Capitals	lnum	Lining Figures	ss09	Stylistic Set 9
calt	Contextual Alternates	locl	Localized Forms	ss10	Stylistic Set 10
case	Case-Sensitive Forms	mark	Mark Positioning	ss11	Stylistic Set 11
ccmp	Glyph Composition/Decomposition	medi	Medial Forms	ss12	Stylistic Set 12
cjct	Conjunct Forms	med2	Medial Forms #2	ss13	Stylistic Set 13
clig	Contextual Ligatures	mgrk	Mathematical Greek	ss14	Stylistic Set 14
cpsp	Capital Spacing	mkmk	Mark to Mark Positioning	ss15	Stylistic Set 15
cswh	Contextual Swash	mset	Mark Positioning via Substitution	ss16	Stylistic Set 16
curs	Cursive Positioning	na1t	Alternate Annotation Forms	ss17	Stylistic Set 17
dflt	Default Processing	na1t	Alternate Annotation Forms	ss18	Stylistic Set 18
dist	Distances	nlck	NLC Kanji Forms	ss19	Stylistic Set 19
dlig	Discretionary Ligatures	nukt	Nukta Forms	ss20	Stylistic Set 20
dnom	Denominators	numr	Numerators	subs	Subscript
expt	Expert Forms	onum	Old Style Figures	supr	Superscript
falt	Final glyph Alternates	opbd	Optical Bounds	swsh	Swash
fin1	Terminal Forms	ordn	Ordinals	titl	Titling
fin2	Terminal Forms #2	ornm	Ornaments	tjmo	Trailing Jamo Forms
fin3	Terminal Forms #3	pa1t	Proportional Alternate Width	tnam	Traditional Name Forms
frac	Fractions	pcap	Petite Capitals	tnum	Tabular Figures
fwid	Full Width	pnum	Proportional Figures	trad	Traditional Forms
half	Half Forms	pref	Pre-base Forms	twid	Third Widths
haln	Halant Forms	pres	Pre-base Substitutions	unic	Unicase
halt	Alternate Half Width	pstf	Post-base Forms	valt	Alternate Vertical Metrics
hist	Historical Forms	psts	Post-base Substitutions	vatu	Vattu Variants
hkna	Horizontal Kana Alternates	pwid	Proportional Widths	vert	Vertical Writing
hlig	Historical Ligatures	qwid	Quarter Widths	vhal	Alternate Vertical Half Metrics
hngl	Hangul	rand	Randomize	vjmo	Vowel Jamo Forms
hojo	Hojo Kanji Forms	rkrf	Rakar Forms	vkna	Vertical Kana Alternates
hwid	Half Width	rlig	Required Ligatures	vkern	Vertical Kerning
init	Initial Forms	rphf	Reph Form	vpal	Proportional Alternate Vertical Metrics
isol	Isolated Forms	rtbd	Right Bounds	vrt2	Vertical Rotation
		rtla	Right-To-Left Alternates	zero	Slashed Zero
		ruby	Ruby Notation Forms		
		salt	Stylistic Alternates		
		sinf	Scientific Inferiors		
		size	Optical Size		

**Table 5.13** The OpenType features that are understood by MkIV in mode=node processing mode

[palatino] [12pt]										\mr : Ag			
	\tf	\sc	\sl	\it	\bf	\bs	\bi	\tfx	\tfixx	\tfa	\tfb	\tfc	\tfd
\rm	Ag	Ag	Ag	Ag	<b>Ag</b>	Ag	Ag	Ag	Ag	Ag	Ag	Ag	<b>Ag</b>
\ss	Ag	Ag	Ag	Ag	<b>Ag</b>	<b>Ag</b>	<b>Ag</b>	Ag	Ag	Ag	Ag	Ag	<b>Ag</b>
\tt	Ag	Ag	Ag	Ag	Ag	Ag	Ag	Ag	Ag	Ag	Ag	Ag	<b>Ag</b>

And the output of `\showbodyfontenvironment [12pt]` is:

[palatino] [12pt]							
text	script	scriptscript	x	xx	small	big	interlinespace
20.7pt	14.4pt	12pt	17.3pt	14.4pt	17.3pt	20.7pt	
17.3pt	12pt	10pt	14.4pt	12pt	14.4pt	20.7pt	
14.4pt	11pt	9pt	12pt	10pt	12pt	17.3pt	
12pt	9pt	7pt	10pt	8pt	10pt	14.4pt	
11pt	8pt	6pt	9pt	7pt	9pt	12pt	
10pt	7pt	5pt	8pt	6pt	8pt	12pt	
9pt	7pt	5pt	7pt	5pt	7pt	11pt	
8pt	6pt	5pt	6pt	5pt	6pt	10pt	
7pt	6pt	5pt	6pt	5pt	5pt	9pt	
6pt	5pt	5pt	5pt	5pt	5pt	8pt	
5pt	5pt	5pt	5pt	5pt	5pt	7pt	
4pt	4pt	4pt	4pt	4pt	4pt	6pt	

## 5.12 Math fonts

There are only a few font families in existence that can handle math properly because such fonts have to carry a complete set of characters and symbols for mathematical typesetting. Among these, the Computer Modern Roman distinguishes itself by its many design sizes; that really pays off when typesetting complicated math formulas.

Many  $\TeX$  users have chosen  $\TeX$  for its superb math typesetting.

This chapter will not go into any details but in math mode, the central concept is the *math family* (not to be confused with the *font families* discussed earlier). There are math families for `\bf`, `\it`, etc. as well as for the special math symbols. Within each family, there are always exactly three member fonts: `text`, `script` and `scriptscript`, or a normal, smaller and smallest font. The normal font size is used for running text and the smaller ones for sub and superscripts. The next example will show what the members of a math family can do.

```

 $\tf x^2+\bf x^2+\sl x^2+\it x^2+\bs x^2+ \bi x^2 =\rm 6x^2\$$ 
 $\tf x^2+\bf x^2+\sl x^2+\it x^2+\bs x^2+ \bi x^2 =\tf 6x^2\$$ 
 $\tf x^2+\bf x^2+\sl x^2+\it x^2+\bs x^2+ \bi x^2 =\bf 6x^2\$$ 
 $\tf x^2+\bf x^2+\sl x^2+\it x^2+\bs x^2+ \bi x^2 =\sl 6x^2\$$ 

```

When this is typeset you see this:

$$\begin{aligned} x^2 + x^2 + x^2 + x^2 + x^2 + x^2 &= 6x^2 \\ x^2 + x^2 + x^2 + x^2 + x^2 + x^2 &= 6x^2 \\ x^2 + x^2 + x^2 + x^2 + x^2 + x^2 &= \mathbf{6x^2} \\ x^2 + x^2 + x^2 + x^2 + x^2 + x^2 &= 6x^2 \end{aligned}$$

As you can see, the alphabetic characters adapt to the selected font family but the symbols are all typeset in the same font regardless. Technically this means that the symbols are set in the fixed font family 0 whereas the alphabetic characters are typeset using variable family numbers.

Typesetting math formulas can also be done somewhat differently, as we will see in the next example.

$$\begin{aligned} \text{\texttt{\textbackslashmf}} x^2 + x^2 + x^2 + x^2 + x^2 + x^2 &= 6x^2\$ \\ \text{\texttt{\textbackslashbf}} x^2 + x^2 + x^2 + x^2 + x^2 + x^2 &= 6x^2\$ \\ \text{\texttt{\textbackslashsl}} x^2 + x^2 + x^2 + x^2 + x^2 + x^2 &= 6x^2\$ \\ \text{\texttt{\textbackslashbs}} x^2 + x^2 + x^2 + x^2 + x^2 + x^2 &= 6x^2\$ \\ \text{\texttt{\textbackslashit}} x^2 + x^2 + x^2 + x^2 + x^2 + x^2 &= 6x^2\$ \\ \text{\texttt{\textbackslashbi}} x^2 + x^2 + x^2 + x^2 + x^2 + x^2 &= 6x^2\$ \end{aligned}$$

A new command is used: `\mf`, which stands for *math font*. This command takes care of the symbols in such a way that they are also set in the actually selected font, just like the characters.

$$\begin{aligned} x^2 + x^2 + x^2 + x^2 + x^2 + x^2 &= 6x^2 \\ x^2 + x^2 + x^2 + x^2 + x^2 + x^2 &= 6x^2 \\ x^2 + x^2 + x^2 + x^2 + x^2 + x^2 &= 6x^2 \\ x^2 + x^2 + x^2 + x^2 + x^2 + x^2 &= 6x^2 \\ x^2 + x^2 + x^2 + x^2 + x^2 + x^2 &= 6x^2 \\ x^2 + x^2 + x^2 + x^2 + x^2 + x^2 &= 6x^2 \end{aligned}$$

You should take into account that  $\TeX$  typesets a formula as a whole. In some cases this means that setups at the end of the formula have an effect that starts already at the beginning of the formula.

For example, the exact location of `\mf` is not that important. We also could have typed:

$$\text{\texttt{\textbackslashbf}} x^2 + x^2 + x^2 + x^2 + x^2 + x^2 = \text{\texttt{\textbackslashmf}} 6x^2\$$$

There is much more to be said about math, but it is better to do that in chapter ??, about math.

## 5.13 Em and Ex

In specifying dimensions we can distinguish physical units like `pt` and `cm` and internal units like `em` and `ex`. These last units are related to the actual fontsize. When you use these internal units in specifying for example horizontal and vertical spacing you don't have to do any recalculating when fonts are switched in the style definition.

Some insight in these units does not hurt. The width of an `em` is not the width of an `M`, but that of an `—` (an `em-dash`). When this glyph is not available in the font another value is used.

**Table 5.14** shows some examples. We see that the width of a digit is about `.5em`. In Computer Modern Roman a digit is exactly half an `em` wide.

<code>\tf</code>	<code>\bf</code>	<code>\sl</code>	<code>\tt</code>	<code>\ss</code>	<code>\tfx</code>
12	<b>12</b>	12	12	12	12
M	<b>M</b>	M	M	M	M
_	_	_	_	_	_

**Table 5.14** The width of an em.

In most cases we use `em` for specifying width and `ex` for height. An `ex` equals the height of a lowercase `x`. **Table 5.15** shows some examples.

<code>\tf</code>	<code>\bf</code>	<code>\sl</code>	<code>\tt</code>	<code>\ss</code>	<code>\tfx</code>
==x	== <b>x</b>	== <i>x</i>	==x	==x	==x

**Table 5.15** The height of an ex.

## 5.14 Font handling

Almost all users of typesetting systems based on  $\text{T}_{\text{E}}\text{X}$  do so because of the quality of the output it produces. `pdf $\text{T}_{\text{E}}\text{X}$`  (and through inheritance `Lua $\text{T}_{\text{E}}\text{X}$`  as well) contains a few extensions to the typesetting engine that make the output even better than the results achieved by Knuth’s original  $\text{T}_{\text{E}}\text{X}$ . Although the extensions are made available by `pdf $\text{T}_{\text{E}}\text{X}$` , they are not limited to the pdf output, they will work with the `dvi` backend just as well. And when the extensions are defined but not enabled, then the typeset output is 100% identical to when the feature is not present at all.

### 5.14.1 Character protrusion

In the following fake paragraph, you can see a hyphenation point, a secondary sentence, separated by a comma, and a last sentence, ending with a period. Miraculously, this paragraph fits into lines. Although exaggerated, these lines demonstrate that visually the hyphen and punctuation characters make the margin look ragged.



Before computers started to take over the traditional typesetter’s job, it was common practice to move hyphens and punctuation into the margin, like in:



In this alternative, the margin looks less ragged, and this becomes more noticeable once you get aware of this phenomenon.

Sometimes, shifting the characters completely into the margin is too much for the sensitive eye, for instance with an italic font, where the characters already hang to the right. In such cases, we need to compromise.



pdf $\TeX$  (and Lua $\TeX$ , that has inherited this feature) has provisions to move characters into the margin when they end up at the end of a line. Such characters are called protruding characters. pdf $\TeX$  takes protruding into account when breaking a paragraph.

We will demonstrate protruding using a quote from Hermann Zapf's article "About micro-typography and the *hz*-program" in *Electronic Publishing*, vol 6 (3), 1993.

After  $\TeX$  has typeset this paragraph (using a specific font size and line width) it may have constructed the following lines.

Coming back to the use of typefaces in electronic publishing: many of the new typographers receive their knowledge and information about the rules of typography from books, from computer magazines or the instruction manuals which they get with the purchase of a PC or software. There is not so much basic instruction, as of now, as there was in the old days, showing the differences between good and bad typographic design. Many people are just fascinated by their PC's tricks, and think that a widely-praised program, called up on the screen, will make everything automatic from now on.

As you can see, the height and depth of the lines depend on the characters, but their width equals what  $\TeX$  calls `\hspace`. However, the natural width of the lines may differ from `\hspace`.

Coming back to the use of typefaces in electronic publishing: many of the new typographers receive their knowledge and information about the rules of typography from books, from computer magazines or the instruction manuals which they get with the purchase of a PC or software. There is not so much basic instruction, as of now, as there was in the old days, showing the differences between good and bad typographic design. Many people are just fascinated by their PC's tricks, and think that a widely-praised program, called up on the screen, will make everything automatic from now on.

Here the inter-word space is fixed to what  $\TeX$  considers to be a space. This example also demonstrates that  $\TeX$  does not have spaces, but stretches the white area between words to suit its demands. When breaking lines,  $\TeX$ 's mind is occupied by boxes, glue and penalties, or in more common language: (parts of) words, stretchable white space, and more or less preferred breakpoints.

Coming back to the use of typefaces in electronic publishing: many of the new typographers receive their knowledge and information about the rules of typography from books, from computer magazines or the instruction man-

uals which they get with the purchase of a PC or software. There is not so much basic instruction, as of now, as there was in the old days, showing the differences between good and bad typographic design. Many people are just fas-

inated by their PC's tricks, and think that a widely-praised program, called up on the screen, will make everything automatic from now on.

This time we have enabled pdfTeX's protruding mechanism. The characters that stick into the margin are taken into account when breaking the paragraph into lines, but in the final result, they do not count in the width. Here we used an ugly three column layout so that we got a few more hyphens to illustrate the principle.

When that same text is typeset in the traditional way in two columns, it looks like this:

Coming back to the use of typefaces in electronic publishing: many of the new typographers receive their knowledge and information about the rules of typography from books, from computer magazines or the instruction manuals which they get with the purchase of a PC or software. There is not so much basic instruc-

tion, as of now, as there was in the old days, showing the differences between good and bad typographic design. Many people are just fascinated by their PC's tricks, and think that a widely-praised program, called up on the screen, will make everything automatic from now on.

As you can see, the hyphens and punctuation fit snugly into the line and as a result the line endings look a bit ragged. With protrusion turned on, it looks like this:

Coming back to the use of typefaces in electronic publishing: many of the new typographers receive their knowledge and information about the rules of typography from books, from computer magazines or the instruction manuals which they get with the purchase of a PC or software. There is not so much basic instruction,

as there was in the old days, showing the differences between good and bad typographic design. Many people are just fascinated by their PC's tricks, and think that a widely-praised program, called up on the screen, will make everything automatic from now on.

Now the punctuation protrudes a little into the margin. Although the margin is now geometrically uneven it looks straighter to the human eye because not so much whitespace 'pushes into' the text.

## 5.14.2 Font expansion

In typesetting the two characters hz are tightly connected to Hermann Zapf and the next couple of pages we will discuss a method for optimizing the look and feel of a paragraph using a mechanism that is inspired by his work. Although official qualified in pdfTeX as font adjusting, we will use the short qualification hz since this is how it is called in the pdfTeX community.

First, here is again the same example text that was used in the previous section, typeset using normal TeX-comptibale font settings:

Coming back to the use of typefaces in electronic publishing: many of the new typographers receive their knowledge and information about the rules of typography from books, from computer magazines or the instruction manuals which they get with the purchase of a PC or software. There is not so much basic instruc-

tion, as of now, as there was in the old days, showing the differences between good and bad typographic design. Many people are just fascinated by their PC's tricks, and think that a widely-praised program, called up on the screen, will make everything automatic from now on.

The example below shows hz in action. This paragraph is typeset with hz enabled and has a more even spacing than the text above.

Coming back to the use of typefaces in electronic publishing: many of the new typographers receive their knowledge and information about the rules of typography from books, from computer magazines or the instruction manuals which they get with the purchase of a PC or software. There is not so much basic instruction,

as there was in the old days, showing the differences between good and bad typographic design. Many people are just fascinated by their PC's tricks, and think that a widely-praised program, called up on the screen, will make everything automatic from now on.

The average reader will not notice the trick, but those sensitive to character shapes will see that some glyphs are widened slightly and others are narrowed slightly. Ideally the programs that built the glyph should be defined in such a way that this goes unnoticed, but in practice glyph

programs are not that clever and so a brute force horizontal scaling is applied. As long as the used percentage is small, the distortion will go unnoticed and the paragraph will look slightly better because the whitespace distribution is more even.

### 5.14.3 Other font handlings

In addition to the two handlings documented in the previous paragraphs (protruding and hz), ConT<sub>E</sub>Xt also provides the `noligs` handling (handy when one processes xml), `flexspacing` and `prespacing` (meant for languages like French that need spacing around for instance `:` and `;`). These handlings are experimental.

### 5.14.4 How to use font handlings

Before we go into the details of the actual extensions, let's see what is provided by ConT<sub>E</sub>Xt as the user-level interface. The ConT<sub>E</sub>Xt interface to those new features is through a subsystem called 'font handling', and at the top that subsystem is seamlessly integrated into the normal alignment macros.

For example, assuming the system is set up already to support protrusion, you can simply say

```
\setupalign[hanging]
```

to turn protrusion on. However, this will only work correctly if a number of special setups have taken place internally. The command `\setupalign` only toggles a switch, and the required setups have to be done elsewhere.

The list of font handling-related keys for `\setupalign` is:

<code>hanging</code>	turns on character protrusion
<code>nohanging</code>	turns off character protrusion
<code>hz</code>	turns on font expansion
<code>nohz</code>	turns off font expansion
<code>spacing</code>	turns on special spacing rules
<code>nospacing</code>	turns off special spacing

Largely because of the tight connection with the font itself, the method of defining and setting font handling is a little different between pdfT<sub>E</sub>X and MkIV.

### 5.14.5 Setting up font handlings in MkII

Now, let's move on to how to set up the system for font handling properly. Most of the underlying features of pdfT<sub>E</sub>X cannot be turned *merely* on or off, it is possible to tweak the machinery on the font as well as on the individual glyph level. You can define those settings all on your own, but ConT<sub>E</sub>Xt comes with a handy set of predefined values.

name	<code>\setupalign</code>	description
<code>pure</code>	<code>hanging</code>	full protrusion of only selected punctuation
<code>normal</code>	<code>hanging</code>	partial protrusion of punctuation and some asymmetrical letters
<code>hz</code>	<code>hz</code>	variable correction of character widths
<code>quality</code>	<code>hanging,hz</code>	combination of <code>hz</code> and <code>pure</code>
<code>highquality</code>	<code>hanging,hz</code>	combination of <code>hz</code> and <code>normal</code>
<code>flexspacing</code>	<code>spacing</code>	automatic extra spacing around various punctuation characters
<code>prespacing</code>	<code>spacing</code>	like <code>flexspacing</code> , but ignoring <code>.</code> and <code>,</code> and with smaller effects
<code>noligs</code>	<code>--</code>	suppresses ligatures; because this is irreversible it is not controlled via <code>\setupalign</code>



You need to be aware of the fact that at the moment that you actually define a font, you need to tell what handling you want to apply.

Note: setting up font handling involves a few low-level font definition commands, so you may want to read the chapter about font definitions first.

Say that we want to hang only the serif fonts and say that we use Palatino as main typeface.

```
\setupfontsynonym [Serif] [handling=pure]
\definetypface [palatino] [rm] [serif] [palatino] [default]
```

In the above example, the font loader is instructed to treat fonts with the virtual name `Serif` in a special way by applying the font handling named `pure`. After that, the typeface collection `palatino` is (re)defined and by that process the font tagged as `Serif` will get the ‘hanging’ settings attached it.

Now enable this typeface collection can be enabled by:

```
\setupbodyfont [palatino]
```

and finally, don’t forget to turn on hanging by:

```
\setupalign [hanging]
```

However, this only takes care of the `Serif` font. Normally, that is the virtual name for the combination `\rm\tf`. If you also want the bold variants to hang, you have to add an extra line:

```
\setupfontsynonym [SerifBold] [handling=pure]
```

And so on for all the alternatives. This is tedious, so `ConTeXt` provides a shortcut. If you want to set all serif weights at once, you can call on a predefined typescript component before defining the typeface:

```
\usetypescript [serif] [handling] [pure]
```

for hanging punctuation, or for all characters:

```
\usetypescript [serif] [handling] [normal]
```

The full example then becomes:

```
\usetypescript [serif] [handling] [pure]
\definetypface [palatino] [rm] [serif] [palatino] [default]
\setupbodyfont [palatino]
\setupalign [hanging]
```

The first argument can be one of three named typescript groups: `serif` (for the virtual font synonyms whose names begin with `Serif`), `sans` (for `Sans`), or `mono` (for `Mono`). The second argument should always be `handling`. The third argument has to be one of named font handlings that are listed in the table at the start of this section.

The typescripts that are used in these examples work by altering the font synonyms for virtual symbolic font names like `Serif` and `SerifBold` en bloc. They will even work with your own typescripts if (but only if) these typescripts use the same font naming conventions as the `ConTeXt` core.

The definition of font handlings is actually a two-step process. A named font handling consists of one or more handling vectors that have to be defined first, those are then combined under a single name.

This is not the right place to describe how to define the low-level vector definitions in detail, for that you are referred to the documented source of the main handling definition file `hand-def.tex`. But to give you an idea of what it looks like, here is a small excerpt of that file. The pure handling vector is defined as:

```
\startfonthandling [pure]
  \defineprotrudefactor , 0 1
  \defineprotrudefactor . 0 1
  \defineprotrudefactor : 0 1
  \defineprotrudefactor ; 0 1
  \defineprotrudefactor - 0 1

  \defineprotrudefactor hyphen 0 1
  \defineprotrudefactor endash 0 .5
  \defineprotrudefactor emdash 0 .33 % .5

\stopfonthandling
```

The pure font handling itself is then defined as follows:

```
\definefonthandling [pure] [pure] [type=hanging]
```

The hz setup runs along the same lines. First here is a vector:

```
\startfonthandling [hz]
  \defineadjustfactor A .5
  \defineadjustfactor B .7
  \defineadjustfactor C .7
  ...

\stopfonthandling
```

And then the definition of the hz handling is as follows:

```
\definefonthandling [hz] [hz,extended] [type=hz]
```

To wrap this up, here is the macro syntax for the font handling definition and setup.

```
\definefonthandling [.1.] [...2,...] [.3.]

1 IDENTIFIER
2 IDENTIFIER
3 type    = hanging hz spacing tag
  right  = NUMBER
  left   = NUMBER
  factor = NUMBER
  min    = NUMBER
  max    = NUMBER
  step   = NUMBER
```

As you can see, the `\definefonthandling` command accepts three arguments. The first is the handling to be defined, the second is a list of handling vectors to be used, and the third sets up a number of settings.

`type` the type of this font handling feature, for use by `\setupalign`  
`right` used by `type=hanging`, default 1  
`left` used by `type=hanging`, default 1  
`factor` used by `type=spacing`, default 1  
`min` used by `type=hz`, default 20  
`max` used by `type=hz`, default 20  
`step` used by `type=hz`, default 5

On top of the list at the beginning of this paragraph, a few more elaborate font handlings are also predefined:

```

\definefonthandling [purebold] [pure] [type=hanging]
\definefonthandling [pureitalic] [pure] [type=hanging,right=1.5]
\definefonthandling [pureslanted] [pure] [type=hanging,right=1.5]
\definefonthandling [purebolditalic] [pure] [type=hanging,right=1.5]
\definefonthandling [pureboldslanted] [pure] [type=hanging,right=1.5]
    
```

The `right` parameter (there is also `left`) is a multiplication factor that is applied to the values in the associated vector. Such definitions can be more extensive, like:

```

\definefonthandling
  [normalitalic]
  [punctuation,alpha,extended]
  [type=hanging,right=1.5]
    
```

Here we have combined three vectors into one handling. For these extended font handlings, there are no predefined typescripts, so you either have to use the font synonyms directly, or define your own typescripts. Now, if you think this is overly complicated, you are probably right. Normally you will just invoke protruding handlings defined previously, but the mechanisms are there to fine-tune the handlings to your precise wishes.

In case you want to alter some of the settings of an already defined font handling, there is

```

\setupfonthandling [.1.] [.2.]
1 IDENTIFIER
2 inherits from \definefonthandling
    
```

The first argument is the handling to be altered, the second sets up the settings.

### 5.14.6 Setting up font handlings in MkIV

In MkIV, font handling is merged with the font features (because these already have a low-level connection to the font), so you can set up the font-side of things with the sixth argument of `\definetypface`, like so:

```

\definefontfeature
  [hz] [default]
  [protrusion=pure, mode=node, script=latn]
\definetypface [palatino] [rm] [serif] [palatino] [default] [features=hz]
\setupbodyfont [palatino]
\setupalign [hanging]
    
```

or by redefining the feature set that is used by the typescript you are using and then (re-)executing the typescript, like so:

```
\definefontfeature
  [default] [default]
  [protrusion=pure, expansion=quality, mode=node, script=latn]
\usetypescript[palatino]
\setupbodyfont [palatino]
\setupalign [hanging]
```

There is a list of predefined font handling feature values that you can use:

For protrusion, there is:

<b>name</b>	<b>\setupalign</b>	<b>description</b>
pure	hanging	full protrusion of only selected punctuation
punctuation	hanging	partial protrusion of punctuation
alpha	hanging	partial of some asymmetrical letters
quality	hanging	the combination of punctuation and alpha

For expansion, there is:

<b>name</b>	<b>\setupalign</b>	<b>description</b>
quality	hz	variable correction of character widths

These are defined in the file `font-ext.lua`. The low-level definitions look like

```
fonts.protrusions.vectors['pure'] = {
  [0x002C] = { 0, 1 }, -- comma
  [0x002E] = { 0, 1 }, -- period
  [0x003A] = { 0, 1 }, -- colon
  [0x003B] = { 0, 1 }, -- semicolon
  [0x002D] = { 0, 1 }, -- hyphen
  [0x2013] = { 0, 0.50 }, -- endash
  [0x2014] = { 0, 0.33 }, -- emdash
}
fonts.protrusions.classes['pure'] = {
  vector = 'pure', factor = 1
}
```

That was the complete definition of `protrusion=pure`. The key `classes` has the same function as the macro call `\definefonthandling` in MkII. It references the named vector `pure` and sets up a parameter.

For protrusion, there is only the one parameter `factor`, but for expansion there are a few more:

```
\startLUA
fonts.expansions.classes['quality'] = {
  stretch = 2, shrink = 2, step = .5, vector = 'default', factor = 1
}
fonts.expansions.vectors['default'] = {
  [byte('A')] = 0.5,
```

```
[byte('B')] = 0.7,
... -- many more characters follow
}
\stopLUA
```

As you can see, the definition order of vector vs. class is not important, and the format of the vector is a little different. The use of `byte()` is just so that that keying in hex numbers can be avoided. The values are bare numbers instead of hashes because there is only one per-character parameter involved with character expansion.

Also note that the values for the parameters `stretch`, `shrink` and `step` are divided by a factor 10 compared to the MkII definition.

In MkIV, there is no support for the `spacing` key to `\setupalign` yet. That is because the low-level features in pdfTeX are not present in LuaTeX, and there is no replacement yet. The font handling `noLigs` is, of course, replaced by the OpenType font feature tags for ligatures: simply leave all of the relevant font features turned off.

## 5.15 Encodings and mappings

This section only applies to pdfTeX. If you are exclusively using XeTeX or MkIV, you can safely ignore the following text.

Not every language uses the (western) Latin alphabet. Although in most languages the basic 26 characters are somehow used, they can be combined with a broad range of accents placed in any place.

In order to get a character representation, also called glyph, in the resulting output, you have to encode it in the input. This is no problem for a..z, but other characters are accessed by name, for instance `\eacute`. The glyph `é` can be present in the font but when it's not there, TeX has to compose the character from a letter e and an accent `´`.

In practice this means that the meaning of `\eacute` depends on the font and font encoding used. There are many such encodings, each suited for a subset of languages.

encoding	usage	status
8r	a (strange) mixture of encodings	useless
default	the 7 bit ascii encoding as used by plain TeX	obsolete
ec	the preferred encoding of TeX distributions	okay
greek	an encoding for modern greek	okay
qx	an encoding that covers most eastern european languages	okay
t2a	a cyrillic TeX font encoding	?
t2b	another cyrillic TeX font encoding	?
t2c	another another cyrillic TeX font encoding	?
t5	an encoding dedicated to vietnamese (many (double) accents)	okay
texansi	a combination of TeX and Adobe standard encoding	okay

These encodings are font related as is demonstrated in [figure 5.1](#), [5.2](#), [5.3](#), and [5.4](#). Here we used the `\showfont` command.

0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	
000	000001	01002	02003	03004	04005	05006	06007	07010	08011	09012	0a013	0b014	0c015	0d016	0e017	0f018
16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26	27	28	29	30	31	
020	10021	11022	12023	13024	14025	15026	16027	17030	18031	19032	1a033	1b034	1c035	1d036	1e037	1f038
32	33	34	35	36	37	38	39	40	41	42	43	44	hyph	45	46	47
040	20041	21042	22043	23044	24045	25046	26047	27050	28051	29052	2a053	2b054	2c055	2d056	2e057	2f058
48	49	50	51	52	53	54	55	56	57	58	59	60	61	62	63	64
060	30061	31062	32063	33064	34065	35066	36067	37070	38071	39072	3a073	3b074	3c075	3d076	3e077	3f078
64	65	66	67	68	69	70	71	72	73	74	75	76	77	78	79	80
100	40101	41102	42103	43104	44105	45106	46107	47110	48111	49112	4a113	4b114	4c115	4d116	4e117	4f118
80	81	82	83	84	85	86	87	88	89	90	91	92	93	94	95	96
120	50121	51122	52123	53124	54125	55126	56127	57130	58131	59132	5a133	5b134	5c135	5d136	5e137	5f138
96	97	98	99	100	101	102	103	104	105	106	107	108	109	110	111	112
140	60141	61142	62143	63144	64145	65146	66147	67150	68151	69152	6a153	6b154	6c155	6d156	6e157	6f158
112	113	114	115	116	117	118	119	120	121	122	123	124	125	126	127	128
160	70161	71162	72163	73164	74165	75166	76167	77170	78171	79172	7a173	7b174	7c175	7d176	7e177	7f178
128	129	130	131	132	133	134	135	136	137	138	139	140	141	142	143	144
200	80201	81202	82203	83204	84205	85206	86207	87210	88211	89212	8a213	8b214	8c215	8d216	8e217	8f218
144	145	146	147	148	149	150	151	152	153	154	155	156	157	158	159	160
220	90221	91222	92223	93224	94225	95226	96227	97230	98231	99232	9a233	9b234	9c235	9d236	9e237	9f238
160	161	162	163	164	165	166	167	168	169	170	171	172	173	174	175	176
240	a0241	a1242	a2243	a3244	a4245	a5246	a6247	a7250	a8251	a9252	aa253	ab254	ac255	ad256	ae257	af258
176	177	178	179	180	181	182	183	184	185	186	187	188	189	190	191	192
260	b0261	b1262	b2263	b3264	b4265	b5266	b6267	b7270	b8271	b9272	ba273	bb274	bc275	bd276	be277	bf278
192	193	194	195	196	197	198	199	200	201	202	203	204	205	206	207	208
300	c0301	c1302	c2303	c3304	c4305	c5306	c6307	c7310	c8311	c9312	ca313	cb314	cc315	cd316	ce317	cf318
208	209	210	211	212	213	214	215	216	217	218	219	220	221	222	223	224
320	d0321	d1322	d2323	d3324	d4325	d5326	d6327	d7330	d8331	d9332	da333	db334	dc335	dd336	de337	df338
224	225	226	227	228	229	230	231	232	233	234	235	236	237	238	239	240
340	e0341	e1342	e2343	e3344	e4345	e5346	e6347	e7350	e8351	e9352	ea353	eb354	ec355	ed356	ee357	ef358
240	241	242	243	244	245	246	247	248	249	250	251	252	253	254	255	256
360	f0361	f1362	f2363	f3364	f4365	f5366	f6367	f7370	f8371	f9372	fa373	fb374	fc375	fd376	fe377	ff378

name: ec-lmr10 at 11.Opt encoding: ec mapping: ec handling: default

Figure 5.1 The Latin Modern Roman font in ec encoding.

The situation is even more complicated than it looks, since the font may be virtual, that is, built from several fonts.

The advantage of using specific encodings is that you can let TeX hyphenate words in the appropriate way. The hyphenation patterns are applied to the internal data structures that represent the sequence of glyphs. In spite of what you may expect, they are font-dependent! Even more confusing: they not only depend on the font encoding, but also on the mapping from lower to uppercase characters, or more precise, on the existence of such a mapping.

Unless you want to play with these encodings and mappings, in most cases you can forget their details and rely on what other TeX experts tell you to do. Normally switching from one to another encoding and/or mapping takes place with the change in fonts or when some special

0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	
000	00001	01002	02003	03004	04005	05006	06007	07010	08011	09012	0a013	0b014	0c015	0d016	0e017	0f018
16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26	27	28	29	30	31	
020	10021	11022	12023	13024	14025	15026	16027	17030	18031	19032	1a033	1b034	1c035	1d036	1e037	1f038
32	33	34	35	36	37	38	39	40	41	42	43	44	hyph	45	46	47
040	20041	21042	22043	23044	24045	25046	26047	27050	28051	29052	2a053	2b054	2c055	2d056	2e057	2f058
48	49	50	51	52	53	54	55	56	57	58	59	60	61	62	63	
060	30061	31062	32063	33064	34065	35066	36067	37070	38071	39072	3a073	3b074	3c075	3d076	3e077	3f078
64	65	66	67	68	69	70	71	72	73	74	75	76	77	78	79	
100	40101	41102	42103	43104	44105	45106	46107	47110	48111	49112	4a113	4b114	4c115	4d116	4e117	4f118
80	81	82	83	84	85	86	87	88	89	90	91	92	93	94	95	
120	50121	51122	52123	53124	54125	55126	56127	57130	58131	59132	5a133	5b134	5c135	5d136	5e137	5f138
96	97	98	99	100	101	102	103	104	105	106	107	108	109	110	111	
140	60141	61142	62143	63144	64145	65146	66147	67150	68151	69152	6a153	6b154	6c155	6d156	6e157	6f158
112	113	114	115	116	117	118	119	120	121	122	123	124	125	126	127	
160	70161	71162	72163	73164	74165	75166	76167	77170	78171	79172	7a173	7b174	7c175	7d176	7e177	7f178
128	129	130	131	132	133	134	135	136	137	138	139	140	141	142	143	
200	80201	81202	82203	83204	84205	85206	86207	87210	88211	89212	8a213	8b214	8c215	8d216	8e217	8f218
144	145	146	147	148	149	150	151	152	153	154	155	156	157	158	159	
220	90221	91222	92223	93224	94225	95226	96227	97230	98231	99232	9a233	9b234	9c235	9d236	9e237	9f238
160	161	162	163	164	165	166	167	168	169	170	171	172	173	174	175	
240	a0241	a1242	a2243	a3244	a4245	a5246	a6247	a7250	a8251	a9252	aa253	ab254	ac255	ad256	ae257	af258
176	177	178	179	180	181	182	183	184	185	186	187	188	189	190	191	
260	b0261	b1262	b2263	b3264	b4265	b5266	b6267	b7270	b8271	b9272	ba273	bb274	bc275	bd276	be277	bf278
192	193	194	195	196	197	198	199	200	201	202	203	204	205	206	207	
300	c0301	c1302	c2303	c3304	c4305	c5306	c6307	c7310	c8311	c9312	ca313	cb314	cc315	cd316	ce317	cf318
208	209	210	211	212	213	214	215	216	217	218	219	220	221	222	223	
320	d0321	d1322	d2323	d3324	d4325	d5326	d6327	d7330	d8331	d9332	da333	db334	dc335	dd336	de337	df338
224	225	226	227	228	229	230	231	232	233	234	235	236	237	238	239	
340	e0341	e1342	e2343	e3344	e4345	e5346	e6347	e7350	e8351	e9352	ea353	eb354	ec355	ed356	ee357	ef358
240	241	242	243	244	245	246	247	248	249	250	251	252	253	254	255	
360	f0361	f1362	f2363	f3364	f4365	f5366	f6367	f7370	f8371	f9372	fa373	fb374	fc375	fd376	fe377	ff378

name: texnansi-lmr10 at 11.0pt encoding: texnansi mapping: texnansi handling: default

Figure 5.2 The Latin Modern Roman font in texnansi encoding.

output encoding is needed, for instance in pdf annotations and/or unicode vectors that enable searching in documents. So, to summarize this: encodings and mappings depend on the fonts used as well have consequences for the language specific hyphenation patterns. Fortunately ConTeXt handles this for you automatically.

0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15
000	001	002	003	004	005	006	007	008	009	00a	00b	00c	00d	00e	00f
16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26	27	28	29	30	31
020	021	022	023	024	025	026	027	028	029	02a	02b	02c	02d	02e	02f
32	33	34	35	36	37	38	39	40	41	42	43	44	45	46	47
040	041	042	043	044	045	046	047	048	049	04a	04b	04c	04d	04e	04f
48	49	50	51	52	53	54	55	56	57	58	59	60	61	62	63
060	061	062	063	064	065	066	067	068	069	06a	06b	06c	06d	06e	06f
64	65	66	67	68	69	70	71	72	73	74	75	76	77	78	79
100	101	102	103	104	105	106	107	108	109	10a	10b	10c	10d	10e	10f
80	81	82	83	84	85	86	87	88	89	90	91	92	93	94	95
120	121	122	123	124	125	126	127	128	129	12a	12b	12c	12d	12e	12f
96	97	98	99	100	101	102	103	104	105	106	107	108	109	110	111
140	141	142	143	144	145	146	147	148	149	14a	14b	14c	14d	14e	14f
112	113	114	115	116	117	118	119	120	121	122	123	124	125	126	127
160	161	162	163	164	165	166	167	168	169	16a	16b	16c	16d	16e	16f
128	129	130	131	132	133	134	135	136	137	138	139	140	141	142	143
200	201	202	203	204	205	206	207	208	209	20a	20b	20c	20d	20e	20f
144	145	146	147	148	149	150	151	152	153	154	155	156	157	158	159
220	221	222	223	224	225	226	227	228	229	22a	22b	22c	22d	22e	22f
160	161	162	163	164	165	166	167	168	169	170	171	172	173	174	175
240	241	242	243	244	245	246	247	248	249	24a	24b	24c	24d	24e	24f
176	177	178	179	180	181	182	183	184	185	186	187	188	189	190	191
260	261	262	263	264	265	266	267	268	269	26a	26b	26c	26d	26e	26f
192	193	194	195	196	197	198	199	200	201	202	203	204	205	206	207
300	301	302	303	304	305	306	307	308	309	30a	30b	30c	30d	30e	30f
208	209	210	211	212	213	214	215	216	217	218	219	220	221	222	223
320	321	322	323	324	325	326	327	328	329	32a	32b	32c	32d	32e	32f
224	225	226	227	228	229	230	231	232	233	234	235	236	237	238	239
340	341	342	343	344	345	346	347	348	349	34a	34b	34c	34d	34e	34f
240	241	242	243	244	245	246	247	248	249	250	251	252	253	254	255
360	361	362	363	364	365	366	367	368	369	36a	36b	36c	36d	36e	36f
f0	f1	f2	f3	f4	f5	f6	f7	f8	f9	fa	fb	fc	fd	fe	ff

name: qx-lmr10 at 11.Opt encoding: qx mapping: qx handling: default

Figure 5.3 The Latin Modern Roman font in qx encoding.



0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	
000	000001	01002	02003	03004	04005	05006	06007	07010	08011	09012	0a013	0b014	0c015	0d016	0e017	0f018
16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26	27	28	29	30	31	
020	10021	11022	12023	13024	14025	15026	16027	17030	18031	19032	1a033	1b034	1c035	1d036	1e037	1f038
32	33	34	35	36	37	38	39	40	41	42	43	44	45	46	47	
040	20041	21042	22043	23044	24045	25046	26047	27050	28051	29052	2a053	2b054	2c055	2d056	2e057	2f058
48	49	50	51	52	53	54	55	56	57	58	59	60	61	62	63	
060	30061	31062	32063	33064	34065	35066	36067	37070	38071	39072	3a073	3b074	3c075	3d076	3e077	3f078
64	65	66	67	68	69	70	71	72	73	74	75	76	77	78	79	
100	40101	41102	42103	43104	44105	45106	46107	47110	48111	49112	4a113	4b114	4c115	4d116	4e117	4f118
80	81	82	83	84	85	86	87	88	89	90	91	92	93	94	95	
120	50121	51122	52123	53124	54125	55126	56127	57130	58131	59132	5a133	5b134	5c135	5d136	5e137	5f138
96	97	98	99	100	101	102	103	104	105	106	107	108	109	110	111	
140	60141	61142	62143	63144	64145	65146	66147	67150	68151	69152	6a153	6b154	6c155	6d156	6e157	6f158
112	113	114	115	116	117	118	119	120	121	122	123	124	125	126	127	
160	70161	71162	72163	73164	74165	75166	76167	77170	78171	79172	7a173	7b174	7c175	7d176	7e177	7f178
128	129	130	131	132	133	134	135	136	137	138	139	140	141	142	143	
200	80201	81202	82203	83204	84205	85206	86207	87210	88211	89212	8a213	8b214	8c215	8d216	8e217	8f218
144	145	146	147	148	149	150	151	152	153	154	155	156	157	158	159	
220	90221	91222	92223	93224	94225	95226	96227	97230	98231	99232	9a233	9b234	9c235	9d236	9e237	9f238
160	161	162	163	164	165	166	167	168	169	170	171	172	173	174	175	
240	a0241	a1242	a2243	a3244	a4245	a5246	a6247	a7250	a8251	a9252	aa253	ab254	ac255	ad256	ae257	af258
176	177	178	179	180	181	182	183	184	185	186	187	188	189	190	191	
260	b0261	b1262	b2263	b3264	b4265	b5266	b6267	b7270	b8271	b9272	ba273	bb274	bc275	bd276	be277	bf278
192	193	194	195	196	197	198	199	200	201	202	203	204	205	206	207	
300	c0301	c1302	c2303	c3304	c4305	c5306	c6307	c7310	c8311	c9312	ca313	cb314	cc315	cd316	ce317	cf318
208	209	210	211	212	213	214	215	216	217	218	219	220	221	222	223	
320	d0321	d1322	d2323	d3324	d4325	d5326	d6327	d7330	d8331	d9332	da333	db334	dc335	dd336	de337	df338
224	225	226	227	228	229	230	231	232	233	234	235	236	237	238	239	
340	e0341	e1342	e2343	e3344	e4345	e5346	e6347	e7350	e8351	e9352	ea353	eb354	ec355	ed356	ee357	ef358
240	241	242	243	244	245	246	247	248	249	250	251	252	253	254	255	
360	f0361	f1362	f2363	f3364	f4365	f5366	f6367	f7370	f8371	f9372	fa373	fb374	fc375	fd376	fe377	ff378

name: t5-lmr10 at 11.Opt encoding: t5 mapping: t5 handling: default

Figure 5.4 The Latin Modern Roman font in t5 encoding.

If you want to know to what extent a font is complete and characters need to be composed on the fly, you can typeset a couple of tables. The (current) composition is shown by `\showaccents`, as shown in [figure 5.5](#)

	ec	ec-upl	r8a	at	11.0pt:	composed	bottom	char	raw	
<code>\'</code>	á	Á	á	á	á	á	á	á	á	á
<code>\'</code>	à	À	à	à	à	à	à	à	à	à
<code>\~</code>	â	Â	â	â	â	â	â	â	â	â
<code>\~</code>	ã	Ã	ã	ã	ã	ã	ã	ã	ã	ã
<code>\"</code>	ä	Ä	ä	ä	ä	ä	ä	ä	ä	ä
<code>\H</code>	á	Á	á	á	á	á	á	á	á	á
<code>\r</code>	â	Â	â	â	â	â	â	â	â	â
<code>\v</code>	ă	Ă	ă	ă	ă	ă	ă	ă	ă	ă
<code>\u</code>	ǎ	Ǎ	ǎ	ǎ	ǎ	ǎ	ǎ	ǎ	ǎ	ǎ
<code>\=</code>	ā	Ā	ā	ā	ā	ā	ā	ā	ā	ā
<code>\.</code>	á	Á	á	á	á	á	á	á	á	á
<code>\b</code>	a	A	a	a	a	a	a	a	a	a
<code>\d</code>	à	À	à	à	à	à	à	à	à	à
<code>\k</code>	a	A	a	a	a	a	a	a	a	a
<code>\c</code>	ç	Ç	ç	ç	ç	ç	ç	ç	ç	ç

Figure 5.5 Output of `\showaccents` for the current (palatino) font in pdfTeX

# 6 Fonts

## 6.1 Introduction

This chapter will cover the details of defining fonts and collections of fonts, and it will explain how to go about installing fonts in both MkII and MkIV. It helps if you know what a font is, and are familiar with the ConT<sub>E</sub>Xt font switching macros.

The original ConT<sub>E</sub>Xt font model was based on plain T<sub>E</sub>X, but evolved into a more extensive one primarily aimed at consistently typesetting Pragma ADE's educational documents. The fact that pseudo caps had to be typeset in any font shape in the running text as well as superscripts, has clearly determined the design. The font model has been relatively stable since 1995.

Currently there are three layers of font definitions:

- simple font definitions: such definitions provide `\named` access to a specific font in a predefined size
- body font definitions: these result in a coherent set of fonts, often from a same type foundry or designer, that can be used intermixed as a 'style'
- typescript definitions: these package serif, sans serif, mono spaced and math and other styles in such a way that you can conveniently switch between different combinations

These three mechanisms are actually build on top of each other and all rely on a low level mapping mechanism that is responsible for resolving the real font file name and the specific font encoding used.

When T<sub>E</sub>X users install one of the T<sub>E</sub>X distributions, like T<sub>E</sub>X-live, automatically a lot of fonts will be installed on their system. Unfortunately it is not that easy to get a clear picture of what fonts are there and what is needed to use them. And although the `texmf` tree is prepared for commercial fonts, adding newly bought fonts is not trivial. To compensate this, ConT<sub>E</sub>Xt MkII comes with `texfont.pl`, a program that can install fonts for you. And if the global setup is done correctly, MkIV and X<sub>Y</sub>T<sub>E</sub>X can use the fonts installed in your operation system without the need for extra installation work.

## 6.2 Font files and synonyms

In ConT<sub>E</sub>Xt, whenever possible you should define symbolic names for fonts. The mapping from such symbolic names onto real font names can be done such that it takes place unnoticed by the user. This is good, since the name can depend on the encoding, in which case the name is obscure and hard to remember. The trick is knowing how to use the `\definefontsynonym` command.

The first argument is the synonym that is being defined or redefined. This synonym should be something simpler than the original name that's easier to use. Redefinition is not only allowed but often very useful. The second argument is the replacement of the synonym. This replacement can be a real font name, but it can also be another synonym. The optional third argument can be used for to specify font settings.

```

\definefontsynonym [.1.] [.2.] [.3.]
                                OPTIONAL
1  TEXT
2  IDENTIFIER
3  encoding = IDENTIFIER
   features = IDENTIFIER
   handling = IDENTIFIER
   mapping  = IDENTIFIER

```

**Figure 6.1** none

There is no limit on the number of synonyms that can be chained together, but the last one in the chain has to be a valid font name. ConT<sub>E</sub>Xt knows it has reached the bottom level when there is no longer any replacement possible.

Font settings actually take place at the bottom level, since they are closely related to specific instances of fonts. Any settings that are defined higher up in the chain percolate down, unless they are already defined at the lower level.

**encoding** The font file encoding for tfm-based (MkII) fonts.  
**handling** The font handling for MkII (see previous chapter).  
**features** The font handling for MkIV and X<sub>Y</sub>T<sub>E</sub>X (see previous chapter).  
**mapping** letter case change mapping for MkII that may be used in special cases; never actually used in the ConT<sub>E</sub>Xt core. See [chapter 10](#) on languages for details.

Here is an example of the use of font synonyms:

```
\definefontsynonym [Palatino] [uplr8t] [encoding=ec]
```

In this example, the argument `uplr8t` is the real font (the actual file name is `uplr8t.tfm`, but file extensions are normally omitted), and it contains the metrics for the Type 1 font URW Palladio L in EC encoding. From now on, the name `Palatino` can be used in further font definitions to identify this font, instead of the dreadfully low-level (and hard to remember) name `uplr8t` and its accompanying encoding.

## 6.2.1 Font names

In pdfT<sub>E</sub>X, the real font is the name of the T<sub>E</sub>X metrics file, minus the extension, as we saw already. In X<sub>Y</sub>T<sub>E</sub>X and MkIV a font name is a bit more complex, because in both cases OpenType fonts can be accessed directly by their official font name (but with any embedded spaces stripped out) as well as via the disk file name.

In these two systems, ConT<sub>E</sub>Xt first attempts to find the font using the official font name. If that doesn't work, then it tries to use the font by file name as a fallback. Since this is not very efficient and also because it may generate (harmless, but alarming looking) warnings, it is possible to force ConT<sub>E</sub>Xt into one or the other mode by using a prefix, so you will most often see synonym definitions like this:

```

\definefontsynonym [MSTimes] [name:TimesNewRoman] [features=default]
\definefontsynonym [Iwona-Regular] [file:Iwona-Regular] [features=default]

```

In  $\text{\XeTeX}$ , the file prefix implies that  $\text{\XeTeX}$  will search for an OpenType font (with extension `otf` or `ttf`) and if that fails it will try to find a  $\text{\TeX}$  font (with extension `tfm`). In  $\text{\MkIV}$ , the list is a little longer: OpenType (`otf`, `ttf`), Type 1 (`afm`), Omega (`ofm`), and finally  $\text{\TeX}$  (`tfm`).

The use of aliases to hide the complexity of true font names is already very useful, but  $\text{\ConTeXt}$  goes further than that. An extra synonym level is normally defined that attaches this font name to a generic name like `Serif` or `Sans`.

```
\definefontsynonym [Serif] [Palatino]
```

An important advantage of using names like `Serif` in macro and style definitions is that it can easily be remapped onto a completely different font than `Palatino`. This is often useful when you are experimenting with a new environment file for a book or when you are writing a  $\text{\ConTeXt}$  module.

In fact, inside an environment file it is useful to go even further and define new symbolic names that map onto `Serif`.

```
\definefontsynonym [TitleFont] [Serif]
```

By using symbolic names in the main document and in style and macro definitions, you can make them independent of a particular font and let them adapt automatically to the main document fonts. That is of course assuming these are indeed defined in terms of `Serif`, `Sans`, etcetera. All the  $\text{\ConTeXt}$  predefined typescripts are set up this way, and you are very much encouraged to stick to the same logic for your own font definitions as well.

The list of ‘standard’ symbolic names is given in [table 6.1](#)

## 6.2.2 Adjusting font settings

As mentioned earlier, the items in the third argument of `\definefontsynonym` percolate down the chain of synonyms. Occasionally, you may want to splice some settings into that chain, and that is where `\setupfontsynonym` comes in handy.

```
\setupfontsynonym [.\1.] [.\2.]
1 IDENTIFIER
2 inherits from \definefontsynonym
```

For example, the predefined  $\text{\MkII}$  typescripts for font handling that we saw in the previous chapter contain a sequence of commands like this:

```
\setupfontsynonym [Serif] [handling=pure]
\setupfontsynonym [SerifBold] [handling=pure]
\setupfontsynonym [SerifItalic] [handling=pure]
...
```

The first line means ‘adjust the `handling` setting of only the `Serif` font to `pure`’. Any font lower down in the synonym chain won’t receive this setting. Another example might be setting a font variant for `SMALL CAPS`:

```
\setupfontsynonym [SerifSmallCaps] [features=smallcaps]
```

<b>name</b>	<b>style, alternative</b>	<b>explanation</b>
Blackboard	--	Used by the <code>\bbd</code> macro
Calligraphic	--	Used by the <code>\cal</code> macro
Fraktur	--	Used by the <code>\frak</code> macro
Gothic	--	Used by the <code>\goth</code> macro
OldStyle	--	Used by the <code>\os</code> macro
MPtxtfont	--	The default font for MetaPost
Calligraphy	<code>cg,tf</code>	
Handwriting	<code>hw,tf</code>	
MathRoman(Bold)	<code>mm,mr(bf)</code>	
MathItalic(Bold)	<code>mm,mi(bf)</code>	
MathSymbol(Bold)	<code>mm,sy(bf)</code>	
MathExtension(Bold)	<code>mm,ex(bf)</code>	
MathAlpha(Bold)	<code>mm,ma(bf)</code>	
MathBeta(Bold)	<code>mm,mb(bf)</code>	
MathGamma(Bold)	<code>mm,mc(bf)</code>	
MathDelta(Bold)	<code>mm,md(bf)</code>	
Mono	<code>tt,tf</code>	
MonoBold	<code>tt,bf</code>	
MonoItalic	<code>tt,it</code>	
MonoBoldItalic	<code>tt,bi</code>	
MonoSlanted	<code>tt,sl</code>	
MonoBoldSlanted	<code>tt,bs</code>	
MonoCaps	<code>tt,sc</code>	
Sans	<code>ss,tf</code>	
SansBold	<code>ss,bf</code>	
SansItalic	<code>ss,it</code>	
SansBoldItalic	<code>ss,bi</code>	
SansSlanted	<code>ss,sl</code>	
SansBoldSlanted	<code>ss,bs</code>	
SansCaps	<code>ss,sc</code>	
Serif	<code>rm,tf</code>	
SerifBold	<code>rm,bf</code>	
SerifItalic	<code>rm,it</code>	
SerifBoldItalic	<code>rm,bi</code>	
SerifSlanted	<code>rm,sl</code>	
SerifBoldSlanted	<code>rm,bs</code>	
SerifCaps	<code>rm,sc</code>	

**Table 6.1** Standard symbolic font names, and the style–alternative pair they belong to.

## 6.3 Simple font definitions

The most simple font definition takes place with `\definefont`.

```
\definefont [.1.] [.2.] [.3.]
                OPTIONAL
1  IDENTIFIER
2  FILE
3  TEXT
```

This macro defines a font with the same name as the first argument and you can use its name as an identifier to select that font. The second argument works in the same way as the second argument to `\definefontsynonym`: you can use either a font synonym or a real font. There is an optional third argument that can be either a bare number like 1.5 , or a named setup (see section ??). In case of a bare number, that is a local setting for the interline space. In case of a setup, that setup can do whatever it wants.

For instance:

```
\loadmapfile [koeieletters]
\definefont [ContextLogo] [koeielogos at 72pt]
\ContextLogo \char 2
```

will result in

If you want a fixed size font like in the example above, you can define a font using the primitive `\TeX` at or scaled modifiers.

Be warned that `at` is often useful, but `scaled` is somewhat unreliable since it scales the font related to its internal design size, and that is often unknown. Depending on the design size is especially dangerous when you use symbolic names, since different fonts have different design sizes, and designers differ in their ideas about what a design size is. Compare for instance the 10pt instance of a Computer Modern Roman with Lucida Bright (which more looks like a 12pt then).

```
\definefont [TitleFont] [Serif scaled 2400]
```

Hardcoded sizes can be useful in many situations, but they can be annoying when you want to define fonts in such a way that their definitions adapt themselves to their surroundings. That is why Con`TEX`t provides an additional way of scaling:

```
\definefont [TitleFont] [Serif sa 2.4]
```

The `sa` directive means as much as ‘scaled at the body font size’. Therefore this definition will lead to a 24pt scaling when the (document) body font size equals 10pt. Because the definition has a lazy nature, the font size will adapt itself to the current body font size.

There is an extra benefit to using `sa` instead of `at`. Instead of a numeric multiplier, you can also use the identifiers that were defined in the body font environment that specified the related dimensions. For example, this scales the font to the `b` size, being 1.440 by default:

```
\definefont [TitleFont] [Serif sa b]
```

In fact, if you use a bare name like in

```
\definefont [TitleFont] [Serif]
```

it will internally be converted to

```
\definefont [TitleFont] [Serif sa *]
```

which in turn expands into the current actual font size, after the application of size corrections for super- and subscripts etc.

For example

```
\definefont [TitleFont] [Sans]
{\TitleFont test} and {\tfc \TitleFont test}
```

gives

test and test

A specialized alternative to `sa` that is sometimes useful is `mo`. Here the size maps onto to body font size only after it has passed through an optional size remapping. Such remappings are defined by the macro `\mapfontsize`:

```
\mapfontsize [.!.] [!.?.]
1 DIMENSION
2 DIMENSION
```

Such remapping before applying scaling is sometimes handy for math fonts, where you may want to use slightly different sizes than the ones given in the body font environment. In the ConTeXt distribution, this happens only with the Math Times fonts, where the predefined typescript contains the following lines:

```
\mapfontsize [5pt] [6.0pt]
\mapfontsize [6pt] [6.8pt]
\mapfontsize [7pt] [7.6pt]
\mapfontsize [8pt] [8.4pt]
\mapfontsize [9pt] [9.2pt]
\mapfontsize [10pt] [10pt]
\mapfontsize [11pt] [10.8pt]
\mapfontsize [12pt] [11.6pt]
\mapfontsize [14.4pt] [13.2pt]
```

As we have seen, `\definefont` creates a macro name for a font switch. For ease of use, there is also a direct method to access a font:

```
\definedfont [!.*.]
* inherits from \definefont
```

Where the argument has exactly the same syntax as the second argument to `\definefont`. In fact, this macro executes `\definefont` internally, and then immediately switches to the defined font.



## 6.4 Defining body fonts

In older versions of ConT<sub>E</sub>Xt, the model for defining fonts that will be described in this section was the top-level user interface. These days, typescripts are used at the top-level, and the body font definitions are wrapped inside of those.

Most commercial fonts have only one design size, and when you create a typescript for such fonts, you can simply reuse the predefined size definitions. Later on we will see that this means you can just refer to a default definition.

Still, you may need (or want) to know the details of body font definitions if you create your own typescripts, especially if the fonts are not all that standard. For example, because Latin Modern comes in design sizes, there was a need to associate a specific font with each bodyfont size. You may find yourself in a similar situation when you attempt to create a typescript for a ‘professional’ commercial font set.

The core of this intermediate model is the `\definebodyfont` command that is used as follows:

```
\definebodyfont [10pt] [rm] [tf=tir at 10pt]
```

This single line actually defines two font switches `\tf` for use after a `\rm` command, and `\rmtf` for direct access.

As one can expect, the first implementation of a font model in T<sub>E</sub>X is also determined and thereby complicated by the fact that the Computer Modern Roman fonts come in design sizes. As a result, definitions can look rather complex and because most T<sub>E</sub>X users start with those fonts, font definitions are considered to be complex.

Another complicating factor is that in order to typeset math, even more (font) definitions are needed. Add to that the fact that sometimes fonts with mixed encodings have to be used, i.e. with the glyphs positioned in different font slots, and you can understand why font handling in T<sub>E</sub>X is often qualified as ‘the font mess’. Flexibility simply has its price.

Like most other T<sub>E</sub>X users, Hans Hagen started out using the Computer Modern Roman fonts. Since these fonts have specific design sizes, ConT<sub>E</sub>Xt supports extremely accurate `\definebodyfont` definitions with specific font names and sizes for each combination. The following is an example of that:

```
\definebodyfont [12pt] [rm]
[ tf=cmr12,
  tfa=cmr12 scaled \magstep1,
  tfb=cmr12 scaled \magstep2,
  tfc=cmr12 scaled \magstep3,
  tfd=cmr12 scaled \magstep4,
  bf=cmbx12,
  it=cmti12,
  sl=cmsl12,
  bi=cmbxti10 at 12pt,
  bs=cmbxsl10 at 12pt,
  sc=cmcsc10 at 12pt]
```

It should be clear to you that for fonts with design sizes, similar `\definebodyfont` commands will have to be written for each of the requested body font sizes. But many commercial fonts

do not come in design sizes at all. In fact, many documents have a rather simple design and use only a couple of fonts for all sizes.

The previous example used the available  $\TeX$ -specifications `scaled` and `at`, but (as we say already) `ConTeXt` supports special keyword that is a combination of both: `sa` (scaled at).

For example, for the Helvetica Type 1 font definition we could define:

```
\definebodyfont [12pt] [ss]
  [tf=hv sa 1.000,
   bf=hvb sa 1.000,
   it=hvo sa 1.000,
   sl=hvo sa 1.000,
   tfa=hv sa 1.200,
   tfb=hv sa 1.440,
   tfc=hv sa 1.728,
   tfd=hv sa 2.074,
   sc=hv sa 1.000]
```

The scaling is done in relation to the bodyfont size. In analogy with  $\TeX$ 's `\magstep` we can use `\magfactor`: instead of `sa 1.440` we could specify `sa \magfactor2`.

If you are happy with the relative sizes as defined in the body font environment (and there is no reason not to), the `\definebodyfont` can be four lines shorter. That is because `ConTeXt` predeclares a whole collection of names that combine the styles `rm`, `ss`, `tt`, `tf`, `hw` and `cg` with the alternatives `bf`, `it`, `sl`, `bi`, `bs`, and `sc` with the postfixes `a`, `b`, `c`, `d`, `x` and `xx`.

For the combination of `ss` and `sl`, the following identifiers are predeclared:

```
\ss \ssa \ssb \ssc \ssd \ssx \ssxx
\sl \sla \slb \slc \sld \slx \slxx
\sssl \sssla \ssslb \ssslc \ssslld
```

And because there are no more sizes in the definition any more, we can just as well combine all of the requested sizes in a single `\definebodyfont` by using a list of sizes as the first argument. This means exactly the same as repeating that whole list five (or more) times, but saves a lot of typing:

```
\definebodyfont [12pt,11pt,10pt,9pt,8pt] [ss]
  [tf=hv sa 1.000,
   bf=hvb sa 1.000,
   it=hvo sa 1.000,
   sl=hvo sa 1.000,
   sc=hv sa 1.000]
```

Because the font names (may) depend on the encoding vector, we had better use the previously discussed method for mapping symbolic names. So, any one of the three following lines can be used, but the third one is best:

```
\definebodyfont [10pt,11pt,12pt] [ss] [tf=hv sa 1.000]
\definebodyfont [10pt,11pt,12pt] [ss] [tf=Helvetica sa 1.000]
\definebodyfont [10pt,11pt,12pt] [ss] [tf=Sans sa 1.000]
```

And in the actual ConTeXt core, the default body fonts are in fact defined with commands like this:

```
\definebodyfont [default] [rm]
  [ tf=Serif      sa 1,
    ...
    it=SerifItalic sa 1,
    ... ]
```

We saw that `\tf` is the default font. Here `\tf` is defined as `Serif sa 1` which means that it is a serif font, scaled to a normal font size. This `Serif` is mapped elsewhere on for example `Palatino` which in turn is mapped on the actual filename `uplr8t`, as demonstrated earlier.

```
\definebodyfont [...1;...] [...2.] [...3.,...]
                                OPTIONAL
1  5pt ... 12pt small big
2  rm ss tt hw cg mm
3  tf = FILE
   bf = FILE
   sl = FILE
   it = FILE
   bs = FILE
   bi = FILE
   sc = FILE
   mr = FILE
   ex = FILE
   mi = FILE
   sy = FILE
   ma = FILE
   mb = FILE
   mc = FILE
   md = FILE
```

The macro syntax for `\definebodyfont` is a bit abbreviated. Besides the two-letter keys that are listed for the third argument, it is also possible to assign values to font identifiers with the alphabetic suffixes `a` through `d` like `tfa` as well as the ones with an `x` or `xx` suffix like `bfxx`. You can even define totally new keywords, if you want that.

As an example we will define a bigger font size of `\tf`:

```
\definebodyfont [10pt,11pt,12pt] [rm]
  [tfe=Serif at 48pt,
   ite=SerifItalic at 48pt]
\tfe Big {\it Words}.
```

This becomes:

**Big Words.**

Note that there is a small trick here: the assignment to `ite` is needed for the command `\it` to work properly. Without that, the command `\it` would run the ‘normal’ version of `it` and that has a size of 11pt.

The keywords `mr`, `ex`, `mi`, `sy`, `ma`, `mb`, `mc` and `md` all relate to math families. As was already hinted at in [table 6.1](#), these have extended relatives suffixed by `bf` for use within bold math environments.

Calls of `\definebodyfont` for the `mm` style look quite different from the other styles, because they set up these special keywords, and nothing else. The first four keys are required in all math setups just to do basic formula typesetting, the other four (`ma` ...`md`) can be left undefined. Those are normally used for fonts with special symbols or alphabets like the AMS symbol fonts `msam` and `msbm`.

Here is what a setup for a fairly standard `mm` could look like:

```
\definebodyfont [10pt] [mm]
  [mr=cmr10,
   ex=cmex10,
   mi=cmmi10,
   sy=cmsy10]

\definebodyfont [17.3pt,14.4pt,12pt,11pt,10pt,9pt] [mm]
  [ma=msam10 sa 1,
   mb=msbm10 sa 1]
```

The keys `mc` and `md` are left undefined. This example explicitly shows how multiple `\definebodyfont`s are combined by ConTeXt automatically and that there is no need to do everything within a single definition (in fact this was already implied by the `tfe` trick above.)

Apart from the calling convention as given in the macro syntax that has already been shown, there are a few alternative forms of `\definebodyfont` that can be used to defined and call body fonts by name:

```
\definebodyfont [.1.] [.2.] [.3.]

1 IDENTIFIER
2 inherits from \setupbodyfont
3 inherits from \setupbodyfont
```

This was used in the default serif font definition shown above: the first argument to `\definebodyfont` was the identifier default because these definitions were to be used from within other definitions.

An actual size will be provided by the commands at the top-level in the calling chain, the third argument in that `\definebodyfont` call will also be `default` instead of actually specifying settings.

```
\definebodyfont [.1.] [.2.] [.3.]
1 inherits from \setupbodyfont
2 inherits from \setupbodyfont
3 IDENTIFIER
```

The use of the default actually happens deep inside ConT<sub>E</sub>Xt so there is clear code that can be shown, but if it was written out, a call would for example look like this:

```
\definebodyfont
  [17.3pt,14.4pt,12pt,11pt,10pt,9pt,8pt,7pt,6pt,5pt,4pt]
  [rm,ss,tt,mm]
  [default]
```

To end this section: for advanced T<sub>E</sub>X users there is the dimension-register `\bodyfontsize`. This variable can be used to set fontwidths. The number (rounded) points is available in `\numberofpoints\bodyfontsize`.

This way of defining fonts has been part of ConT<sub>E</sub>Xt from the beginning, but as more complicated designs started to show up, we felt the need for a more versatile mechanism.

## 6.5 Typescripts and typefaces

On top of the existing traditional font module, ConT<sub>E</sub>Xt now provides a more abstract layer of typescripts and building blocks for definitions and typefaces as font containers. The original font definition files have been regrouped into such typescripts thereby reducing the number of files involved.

As we saw earlier, ‘using’ a typescript is done via the a call to the macro `\usetypescript`. Here is the macro syntax setup again:

```
\usetypescript [...1,...] [...2,...] [...3,...]
                OPTIONAL      OPTIONAL
1 IDENTIFIER
2 IDENTIFIER
3 IDENTIFIER
```

Typescripts are in fact just organized definitions, and ‘using’ a typescript therefore actually means nothing more than executing the set of definitions that is contained within a particular typescript.

The main defining command for typescripts is a start–stop pair that wraps the actual macro definitions.

```
\starttypescript [...] [...] [...]
  ....
\stoptypescript
```

As with `\usetypescript`, there can be up to three arguments, and these two sets of arguments are linked to each other: the values of the first and second argument in the call to `\starttypescript` of

```
\starttypescript [palatino] [texnansi,ec,qx,t5,default]
...
\stoptypescript
```

are what make the MkII-style call to `\usetypescript`

```
\usetypescript [palatino] [ec]
...
```

possible and meaningful: the first argument in both cases is the same so that this matches, and the second argument of `\usetypescript` appears in the list that is the second argument of `\starttypescript`, so this also matches. Con $\TeX$ t will execute all matching blocks it knows about: there may be more than one.

To perform the actual matching, Con $\TeX$ t scans through the list of known `\starttypescript` blocks for each of the combinations of items in the specified arguments of `\usetypescript`. These blocks can be preloaded definitions in  $\TeX$ 's memory, or they may come from a file.

There is a small list of typescript files that is tried always, and by using `\usetypescriptfile` you actually add extra ones at the end of this list.

The automatically loaded files for the three possible engines are, in first to last order:

pdftex	xetex	luatex	explanation
type-tmf	type-tmf	type-tmf	Core $\TeX$ community fonts
type-siz	type-siz	type-siz	Font size setups
type-one			Type 1 free fonts
	type-otf	type-otf	OpenType free fonts
	type-xtx		MacOSX font support
type-akb			Basic Adobe Type 1 mappings
type-loc	type-loc	type-loc	A user configuration file

Extra arguments to `\usetypescript` are ignored, and that is why that same two-argument call to `\usetypescript` works correctly in MkIV as well, even though the typescript itself uses only a single argument:

```
\starttypescript [palatino]
...
\stoptypescript
```

On the other hand, extra arguments to `\starttypescript` are not ignored: a `\starttypescript` with two specified arguments will not be matched by a `\usetypescript` that has only one specified argument.

However, you can force any key at all to match by using the special keyword `all` in your `\usetypescript` or `\starttypescript`. We will see later that this use of a wildcard is sometimes handy.

### 6.5.1 A typescript in action

Before we can go on and explain how to write `\starttypescript` blocks, we have to step back for a moment to the macro `\definetypface`, and especially to the third, fourth and fifth argument:

```
\starttypescript [palatino] [texnansi,ec,qx,t5,default]
\definetypface[palatino] [rm] [serif] [palatino] [default]
...
```

Remember how in the previous chapter there were the tables that listed all the predefined combinations? It was said there that these ‘...are nothing more than convenience names that are attached to a group of fonts by the person that wrote the font definition’.

Here is how that works: these arguments of `\definetypface` are actually used as parts of `\usetypescript` calls. To be precise, inside the macro definition of `\definetypface`, there are the following lines:

```
\def\definetypface
...
\usetypescript[#3,map] [#4] [name,default,\typefaceencoding,special]
\usetypescript[#3] [#5] [size]
...
```

In our example #3 is `serif`, #4 is `palatino`, and #5 is `default`. The value of `\typefaceencoding` is inherited from the calling `\usetypescript`. That means that the two lines expand into:

```
\usetypescript[serif,map] [palatino] [name,default,ec,special]
\usetypescript[serif] [default] [size]
```

And those typescripts will be searched for. This example is using MkII, so the list of typescript files is `type-tmf`, `type-siz`, `type-one`, `type-akb`, and `type-loc`. The first two arguments of `\usetypescript` are handled depth first, so first all ‘serif’ typescripts are tried against all the files in the list and then all the ‘map’ typescripts.

Not all of the searched typescript blocks are indeed present in the list of files that have to be scanned, but a few are, and one apparently even more than once:

```
type-tmf.tex serif palatino name
type-one.tex serif palatino texnansi,ec,8r,t5
type-one.tex serif palatino ec,texnansi,8r
type-one.tex map all -
type-siz.tex serif default size
```

All of the found blocks are executed, so let’s look at them in order

```
\starttypescript [serif] [palatino] [name]
\definefontsynonym [Serif] [Palatino]
\definefontsynonym [SerifBold] [Palatino-Bold]
\definefontsynonym [SerifItalic] [Palatino-Italic]
\definefontsynonym [SerifSlanted] [Palatino-Slanted]
\definefontsynonym [SerifBoldItalic] [Palatino-BoldItalic]
\definefontsynonym [SerifBoldSlanted] [Palatino-BoldSlanted]
\definefontsynonym [SerifCaps] [Palatino-Caps]
```

```
\stoptypescript
```

This block has mapped the standard symbolic names to names in the ‘Palatino’ family, one of the standard font synonym actions as explained in the beginning of this chapter.

```
\starttypescript [serif] [palatino] [texnansi,ec,8r,t5]
\definefontsynonym [Palatino]
  [\typescriptthree-uplr8a] [encoding=\typescriptthree]
\definefontsynonym [Palatino-Italic]
  [\typescriptthree-uplri8a] [encoding=\typescriptthree]
\definefontsynonym [Palatino-Bold]
  [\typescriptthree-uplb8a] [encoding=\typescriptthree]
\definefontsynonym [Palatino-BoldItalic]
  [\typescriptthree-uplbi8a] [encoding=\typescriptthree]
\definefontsynonym [Palatino-Slanted]
  [\typescriptthree-uplr8a-slanted-167] [encoding=\typescriptthree]
\definefontsynonym [Palatino-BoldSlanted]
  [\typescriptthree-uplb8a-slanted-167] [encoding=\typescriptthree]
\definefontsynonym [Palatino-Caps]
  [\typescriptthree-uplr8a-capitalized-800] [encoding=\typescriptthree]
\loadmapfile[\typescriptthree-urw-palatino.map]
\stoptypescript
```

This maps the Palatino names onto the actual font files. Some further processing is taking place here: the calling `\usetypescript` that was called from within the `\definetypeface` knows that it wants `ec` encoding. Because this is the third argument, it becomes the replacement of `\typescriptthree`. The body of the `typescript` therefore reduces to:

```
\definefontsynonym [Palatino] [ec-uplr8a] [encoding=ec]
\definefontsynonym [Palatino-Italic] [ec-uplri8a] [encoding=ec]
\definefontsynonym [Palatino-Bold] [ec-uplb8a] [encoding=ec]
\definefontsynonym [Palatino-BoldItalic] [ec-uplbi8a] [encoding=ec]
\definefontsynonym [Palatino-Slanted] [ec-uplr8a-slanted-167] [encoding=ec]
\definefontsynonym [Palatino-BoldSlanted] [ec-uplb8a-slanted-167] [encoding=ec]
\definefontsynonym [Palatino-Caps] [ec-uplr8a-capitalized-800] [encoding=ec]
\loadmapfile [ec-urw-palatino.map]
```

Incidentally, this also loads a font map file. In earlier versions of ConTeXt, this was done by separate `typescripts` in the file `type-map.tex`, but nowadays all map loading is combined with the definition of the synonyms that link to the true fonts on the harddisk. This way, there is a smaller chance of errors creeping in. See [section 6.9](#) for more details on font map files.

The third match is a block that sets up ‘TeXPalladioL’ font synonyms. These will not actually be used, but it is a match so it will be executed anyway.

```
\starttypescript [serif] [palatino] [ec,texnansi,8r]
\definefontsynonym [TeXPalladioL-BoldItalic0sF]
  [\typescriptthree-fplbij8a] [encoding=\typescriptthree]
...
\stoptypescript
```



The next matched entry loads the font map files for the default fonts:

```
\starttypescript [map] [all]
  \loadmapfile[original-base.map]
  \loadmapfile[original-ams-base.map]
\stoptypescript
```

this will not really be needed for the palatino `\rm typescript`, but it ensures that even if there is something horribly wrong with the used typescripts, at least pdfTeX will be able to find the Latin Modern (the default font set) on the harddisk.

The last match is the missing piece of the font setup:

```
\starttypescript [serif] [default] [size]
  \definebodyfont
    [4pt,5pt,6pt,7pt,8pt,9pt,10pt,11pt,12pt,14.4pt,17.3pt]
    [rm] [default]
\stoptypescript
```

and now the typescript is complete.

As explained earlier, that last block references a named `\definebodyfont` that is defined in `type-unk.tex`:

```
\definebodyfont [default] [rm]
  [tf=Serif sa 1,
   bf=SerifBold sa 1,
   it=SerifItalic sa 1,
   sl=SerifSlanted sa 1,
   bi=SerifBoldItalic sa 1,
   bs=SerifBoldSlanted sa 1,
   sc=SerifCaps sa 1]
```

similar default blocks are defined for the other five font styles also.

Looking back, you can see that the Palatino-specific typescripts did actually do anything except defining font synonyms, loading a map file, and calling a predefined `bodyfont`.

## 6.5.2 Some more information

As we saw already, typescripts and its invocations have up to three specifiers. An invocation matches the script specification when the three arguments have common keywords, and the special keyword `all` is equivalent to any match.

Although any keyword is permitted in any of the three arguments, the current definitions (and macros like `\definetypeface`) make heavy use of some keys in particular:

pattern	application
[serif] [*] [*]	serif fonts
[sans] [*] [*]	sans serif fonts
[mono] [*] [*]	mono spaced fonts
[math] [*] [*]	math fonts
[*] [*] [size]	size specifications
[*] [*] [name]	symbolic name mapping

```
[*] [*] [special]  special settings
[*] [all] [*]      default case(s)
[map] [*] [*]      map file specifications
```

---

When you take a close look at the actual files in the distribution you will notice a quite a few other keywords. One in particular is worth mentioning: instead of the predefined sizes in default, you can use the dtp size scripts with their associated body font environments by using

```
\usetypescript [all] [dtp] [size]
```

or

```
\definetypeface[palatino] [rm] [serif] [palatino] [dtp]
```

In the top-level typescript for the palatino, we had a bunch of `\definetypeface` commands, as follows:

```
\definetypeface [funny] [rm] [serif] [palatino] [default] [encoding=texansi]
\definetypeface [funny] [ss] [sans] [palatino] [default] [encoding=texansi]
\definetypeface [funny] [tt] [mono] [palatino] [default] [encoding=texansi]
\definetypeface [funny] [mm] [math] [palatino] [default] [encoding=texansi]
```

Once these commands are executed (wether or not as part of a typescript), `\funny` will enable this specific collection of fonts. In a similar way we can define a collection `\joke`.

```
\definetypeface [joke] [rm] [serif] [times] [default] [encoding=texansi]
\definetypeface [joke] [ss] [sans] [helvetica] [default] [rscale=0.9,
                                                                encoding=texansi]
\definetypeface [joke] [tt] [mono] [courier] [default] [rscale=1.1,
                                                                encoding=texansi]
\definetypeface [joke] [mm] [math] [times] [default] [encoding=texansi]
```

And the familiar Computer Modern Roman as `\whow`:

```
\definetypeface [whow] [rm] [serif] [modern] [latin-modern] [encoding=ec]
\definetypeface [whow] [ss] [sans] [modern] [latin-modern] [encoding=ec]
\definetypeface [whow] [tt] [mono] [modern] [latin-modern] [encoding=ec]
\definetypeface [whow] [mm] [math] [modern] [latin-modern] [encoding=ec]
```

Now has become possible to switch between these three font collections at will. Here is a sample of some text and a little bit of math:

```
Who is {\it fond} of fonts?
Who claims that $t+e+x+t=m+a+t+h$?
Who {\ss can see} {\tt the difference} here?
```

When typeset in `\funny`, `\joke`, and `whow`, the samples look like:

```
Who is fond of fonts?
Who claims that  $t + e + x + t = m + a + t + h$ ?
Who can see the difference here?

Who is fond of fonts?
Who claims that  $t + e + x + t = m + a + t + h$ ?
Who can see the difference here?
```

Who is fond of fonts?

Who claims that  $t + e + x + t = m + a + t + h$ ?

Who can see the difference here?

With `\showbodyfont` you can get an overview of this font.

[funny]													\mr : Ag	
	\tf	\sc	\sl	\it	\bf	\bs	\bi	\tfx	\tfxx	\tfa	\tfb	\tfc	\tfd	
\rm	Ag	Ag	Ag	Ag	<b>Ag</b>	<b>Ag</b>	<b>Ag</b>	Ag	Ag	Ag	Ag	Ag	<b>Ag</b>	
\ss	Ag	Ag	Ag	Ag	Ag	Ag	Ag	Ag	Ag	Ag	Ag	Ag	Ag	
\tt	Ag	Ag	Ag	Ag	Ag	Ag	Ag	Ag	Ag	Ag	Ag	Ag	Ag	

Figure 6.2 The funny typeface collection.

[joke]													\mr : Ag	
	\tf	\sc	\sl	\it	\bf	\bs	\bi	\tfx	\tfxx	\tfa	\tfb	\tfc	\tfd	
\rm	Ag	Ag	Ag	Ag	<b>Ag</b>	<b>Ag</b>	<b>Ag</b>	Ag	Ag	Ag	Ag	Ag	<b>Ag</b>	
\ss	Ag	Ag	Ag	Ag	<b>Ag</b>	<b>Ag</b>	<b>Ag</b>	Ag	Ag	Ag	Ag	Ag	<b>Ag</b>	
\tt	Ag	Ag	Ag	Ag	<b>Ag</b>	<b>Ag</b>	<b>Ag</b>	Ag	Ag	Ag	Ag	Ag	<b>Ag</b>	

Figure 6.3 The joke typeface collection.

[whow]													\mr : Ag	
	\tf	\sc	\sl	\it	\bf	\bs	\bi	\tfx	\tfxx	\tfa	\tfb	\tfc	\tfd	
\rm	Ag	Ag	Ag	Ag	Ag	Ag	Ag	Ag	Ag	Ag	Ag	Ag	Ag	
\ss	Ag	Ag	Ag	Ag	Ag	Ag	Ag	Ag	Ag	Ag	Ag	Ag	Ag	
\tt	Ag	Ag	Ag	Ag	Ag	Ag	Ag	Ag	Ag	Ag	Ag	Ag	Ag	

Figure 6.4 The whow typeface collection.

When defining the joke typeface collection, we used a scale directive. The next sample demonstrates the difference between the non scaled and the scaled alternatives.

Who is *fond* of fonts?

Who claims that  $t + e + x + t = m + a + t + h$ ?

Who can see the difference here?

Who is *fond* of fonts?

Who claims that  $t + e + x + t = m + a + t + h$ ?

Who can see the difference here?

It may not be immediately clear from the previous examples, but a big difference between using typeface definitions and the old method of redefining over and over again, is that the new method uses more resources. This is because each typeface gets its own name space assigned. As an intentional side effect, the symbolic names also follow the typeface. This means that for instance:

```
\definefont[MyBigFont][Serif sa 1.5] \MyBigFont A bit larger!
```

will adapt itself to the currently activated serif font shape, here `\funny`, `\joke` and `\whow`.

A bit larger!

A bit larger!

A bit larger!

### 6.5.3 A bit more about math

Math is kind of special in the sense that it has its own set of fonts, either or not related to the main text font. By default, a change in style, for instance bold, is applied to text only.

```
$          \sqrt{625} =      5\alpha$
$\bf      \sqrt{625} =      5\alpha$
$          \sqrt{625} = \bf 5\alpha$
$\bfmath  \sqrt{625} =      5\alpha$
```

The difference between these four lines is as follows:

```
 $\sqrt{625} = 5\alpha$ 
 $\sqrt{625} = 5\alpha$ 
 $\sqrt{625} = 5\alpha$ 
 $\sqrt{625} = 5\alpha$ 
```

In order to get a bold  $\alpha$  symbol, we need to define bold math fonts.<sup>16</sup> Assuming the font's typescripts support bold math, the most convenient way of doing this is the following:

```
\definetypface [whow] [mm]
  [math,boldmath] [modern] [default] [encoding=texnansi]
```

Bold math looks like this:

```
 $\sqrt{625} = 5\alpha$ 
 $\sqrt{625} = 5\alpha$ 
 $\sqrt{625} = 5\alpha$ 
 $\sqrt{625} = 5\alpha$ 
```

The definitions are given on the next page. Such definitions are normally collected in the project bound file, for instance called `typeface.tex`, that is then manually added to the list of typescript files:

```
\usetypescriptfile[typeface] % project scripts
```

It is also possible to avoid typescripts. When definitions are used only once, it makes sense to use a more direct method. We will illustrate this with a bit strange example.

Imagine that you want some math formulas to stand out, but that you don't have bold fonts. In that case you can for instance scale them. A rather direct method is the following.

<sup>16</sup> Bold math is already prepared in the core modules, so normally one can do with less code

```
\definebodyfont
[funny]
[12pt,11pt,10pt,9pt,8pt,7pt] [mm]
[mrbf=MathRoman      mo 2,
 exbf=MathExtension mo 2,
 mibf=MathItalic     mo 2,
 sybf=MathSymbol     mo 2]
```

Our math sample will now look like:

$$\sqrt{625} = 5\alpha$$

$$\sqrt{625} = 5\alpha$$

$$\sqrt{625} = 5\alpha$$

$$\sqrt{625} = 5\alpha$$

We can also use an indirect method:

```
\definebodyfont
[smallmath] [mm]
[mrbf=MathRoman      mo .5,
 exbf=MathExtension mo .5,
 mibf=MathItalic     mo .5,
 sybf=MathSymbol     mo .5]

\definebodyfont
[funny]
[12pt,11pt,10pt,9pt,8pt,7pt]
[mm] [smallmath]
```

This method is to be preferred when we have to define more typefaces since it saves keystrokes.

$$\sqrt{625} = 5\alpha$$

$$\sqrt{625} = 5\alpha$$

$$\sqrt{625} = 5\alpha$$

$$\sqrt{625} = 5\alpha$$

For efficiency reasons, the font definitions (when part of a typeface) are frozen the first time they are used. Until that moment definitions will adapt themselves to changes in for instance scaling and (mapped) names. Freezing definitions is normally no problem because typefaces are defined for a whole document and one can easily define more instances. When you redefine it, a frozen font is automatically unfrozen.

## 6.6 Predefined font, style and alternative keywords

Some of the internal commands are worth mentioning because they define keywords and you may want to add to the list.

Font size switching is done with keywords like `twelvepoint` and commands like `\twelvepoint` or `\xii`, which is comparable to the way it is done in plain T<sub>E</sub>X. These commands are defined with:

```
\definebodyfontswitch [fourteenpointfour] [14.4pt]
```

```

\definebodyfontswitch [twelvepoint] [12pt]
\definebodyfontswitch [elevenpoint] [11pt]
\definebodyfontswitch [tenpoint] [10pt]
\definebodyfontswitch [ninepoint] [9pt]
\definebodyfontswitch [eightpoint] [8pt]
\definebodyfontswitch [sevenpoint] [7pt]
\definebodyfontswitch [sixpoint] [6pt]
\definebodyfontswitch [fivepoint] [5pt]
\definebodyfontswitch [fourpoint] [4pt]
\definebodyfontswitch [xii] [12pt]
\definebodyfontswitch [xi] [11pt]
\definebodyfontswitch [x] [10pt]
\definebodyfontswitch [ix] [9pt]
\definebodyfontswitch [viii] [8pt]
\definebodyfontswitch [vii] [7pt]
\definebodyfontswitch [vi] [6pt]

```

But be warned that `\xi` is later redefined as a greek symbol.

The keys in `\setupbodyfont` are defined in terms of:

```

\definefontstyle [rm,roman,serif,regular] [rm]
\definefontstyle [ss,sansserif,sans,support] [ss]
\definefontstyle [tt,teletype,type,mono] [tt]
\definefontstyle [hw,handwritten] [hw]
\definefontstyle [cg,calligraphic] [cg]

```

In many command setups we encounter the parameter `style`. In those situations we can specify a key. These keys are defined with `\definealternativestyle`. The third argument is only of importance in chapter and section titles, where, apart from `\cap`, we want to obey the font used there.

```

\definealternativestyle [mediaeval] [\os] []
\definealternativestyle [normal] [\tf] []
\definealternativestyle [bold] [\bf] []
\definealternativestyle [type] [\tt] []
\definealternativestyle [mono] [\tt] []
\definealternativestyle [slanted] [\sl] []
\definealternativestyle [italic] [\it] []
\definealternativestyle [boldslanted,
                        slantedbold] [\bs] []
\definealternativestyle [bolditalic,
                        italicbold] [\bi] []
\definealternativestyle [small,
                        smallnormal] [\tfx] []
\definealternativestyle [smallbold] [\bfx] []
\definealternativestyle [smalltype] [\ttx] []
\definealternativestyle [smallslanted] [\slx] []
\definealternativestyle [smallboldslanted,
                        smallslantedbold] [\bsx] []

```

```

\definealternativestyle [smallbolditalic,
                        smallitalicbold] [\bix]          []
\definealternativestyle [sans,
                        sansserif]         [\ss]          []
\definealternativestyle [sansbold]        [\ss\bf]        []
\definealternativestyle [smallbodyfont]   [\setsmallbodyfont] []
\definealternativestyle [bigbodyfont]     [\setbigbodyfont] []
\definealternativestyle [cap,
                        capital]          [\smallcapped]   [\smallcapped]
\definealternativestyle [smallcaps]       [\sc]             [\sc]
\definealternativestyle [WORD]           [\WORD]          [\WORD]

```

In [section 5.4](#) we have already explained how *emphasizing* is defined. With oldstyle digits this is somewhat different. We cannot on the forehand in what font these can be found. By default we have the setup:

```
\definefontsynonym [OldStyle] [MathItalic]
```

As we see they are obtained from the same font as the math italic characters. The macro `\os` fetches the runtime setting by executing `\symbolicfont{OldStyle}`, which is just a low-level version of `\definedfont[OldStyle sa *]`. A few other macros behave just like that:

macro	synonym	default value
<code>\os</code>	OldStyle	MathItalic (lmmi10)
<code>\frak</code>	Fraktur	eufm10
<code>\goth</code>	Gothic	eufm10
<code>\cal</code>	Calligraphic	cmsy10 (lmsy10)
<code>\bbd</code>	Blackboard	msbm10

In addition to all the already mentioned commands there are others, for example macros for manipulating accents. These commands are discussed in the file `font-ini`. More information can also be found in the file `core-fnt` and specific gimmicks in the file `supp-fun`. So enjoy yourself.

## 6.7 Symbols and glyphs

Some day you may want to define your own symbols, if possible in such a way that they nicely adapt themselves to changes in style and size. A good example are the € symbols. You can take a look in `symb-eur.tex` to see how such a glyph is defined.

```

\definefontsynonym [EuroSerif]          [eurose]
\definefontsynonym [EuroSerifBold]     [euroseb]
...
\definefontsynonym [EuroSans]           [eurosa]
\definefontsynonym [EuroSansBold]      [eurosab]
...
\definefontsynonym [EuroMono]           [euromo]
\definefontsynonym [EuroMonoBold]      [euromob]

```

Here we use the free Adobe euro fonts, but there are alternatives available. The symbol itself is defined as:

```
\definesymbol [euro] [\getglyph{Euro}{\char160}]
```

You may notice that we only use the first part of the symbolic name. ConT<sub>E</sub>Xt will complete this name according to the current style. You can now access this symbol with `\symbol[euro]`

	<code>\tf</code>	<code>\bf</code>	<code>\sl</code>	<code>\it</code>	<code>\bs</code>	<code>\bi</code>
Serif	€	€	€	€	€	€
Sans	€	€	€	€	€	€
Mono	€	€	€	€	€	€

More details on defining symbols and symbol sets can be found in the documentation of the symbol modules.

## 6.8 Encodings

**TODO: Add macro syntax definition blocks**

Until now we assumed that an a will become an a during type setting. However, this is not always the case. Take for example ä or æ. This character is not available in every font and certainly not in the Computer Modern Typefaces. Often a combination of characters `\"a` or a command `\ae` will be used to produce such a character. In some situation T<sub>E</sub>X will combine characters automatically, like in `f1` that is combined to `fl` and not `fl`. Another problem occurs in converting small print to capital print and vice versa.

Below you see an example of the `texnansi` mapping:

```
\startmapping[texnansi]
  \definecasemap 228 228 196  \definecasemap 196 228 196
  \definecasemap 235 235 203  \definecasemap 203 235 203
  \definecasemap 239 239 207  \definecasemap 207 239 207
  \definecasemap 246 246 214  \definecasemap 214 246 214
  \definecasemap 252 252 220  \definecasemap 220 252 220
  \definecasemap 255 255 159  \definecasemap 159 255 159
\stopmapping
```

This means so much as: in case of a capital the character with code 228 becomes character 228 and in case of small print the character becomes character 196.

These definitions can be found in `enco-ans`. In this file we can also see:

```
\startencoding[texnansi]
  \defineaccent " a 228
  \defineaccent " e 235
  \defineaccent " i 239
  \defineaccent " o 246
  \defineaccent " u 252
  \defineaccent " y 255
\stopencoding
```

and



```

\startencoding[texnansi]
  \definecharacter ae 230
  \definecharacter oe 156
  \definecharacter o 248
  \definecharacter AE 198
\stopencoding

```

As a result of the way accents are placed over characters we have to approach accented characters different from normal characters. There are two methods:  $\TeX$  does the accenting itself or prebuild accented glyphs are used. The definitions above take care of both methods. Other definitions are sometimes needed. In the documentation of the file `enco-ini` more information on this can be found.

## 6.9 Map files

**TODO:** This section is too informal

If you're already sick of reading about fonts, you probably don't want read this section. But alas, dvi post processors and pdf $\TeX$  will not work well if you don't provide them map files that tell them how to handle the files that contain the glyphs.

In its simplest form, a definition looks as follows:

```
usedname < texnansi.enc < realname.pfb
```

This means as much as: when you want to include a file that has the `tfm` file `usedname`, take the outline file `realname.pfb` and embed it with the `texnansi` encoding vector. Sometimes you need more complicated directives and you can leave that to the experts. We try to keep up with changes in the map file syntax, the names of fonts, encodings, locations in the  $\TeX$  tree, etc. However, it remains a troublesome area.

It makes sense to take a look at the `cont-sys.rme` file to see what preferences make sense. If you want to speed up the typescript processing, say (in `cont-sys.tex`:

```
\preloadtypescripts
```

If you want to change the default encoding, you should add something:

```
\setupencoding [default=texnansi]
```

You can let Con $\TeX$ t load the map files for pdf $\TeX$ :

```
\autoloadmapfilestrue
```

The following lines will remove existing references to map files and load a few defaults.

```

\resetmapfiles
\loadmapfile[original-base.map]
\loadmapfile[original-ams-base.map]
\loadmapfile[original-public-lm.map]

```

As said, map files are a delicate matter.

## 6.10 Installing fonts

**TODO:** Document use of MkIVand  
Xe<sub>Λ</sub>TeX and in particular OSFONTDIR

Most TeX distributions come with a couple of fonts, most noticeably the Computer Modern Roman typefaces. In order to use a font, TeX has to know its characteristics. These are defined in `tfm` and `vf` files. In addition to these files, on your system you can find a couple of more file types.

suffix	content
<code>tfm</code>	TeX specific font metric files that, in many cases, can be generated from <code>afm</code> files
<code>vf</code>	virtual font files, used for building glyph collections from other ones
<code>afm</code>	Adobe font metric files that are more limited than <code>tfm</code> files (especially for math fonts)
<code>pfm</code>	Windows specific font metric files, not used by TeX applications
<code>pfb</code>	files that contain the outline specification of the glyphs fonts, also called Type 1
<code>enc</code>	files with encoding vector specifications
<code>map</code>	files that specify how and what font files are to be included

On your disk (or cdrom) these files are organized in such a way that they can be located fast.<sup>17</sup> The directory structure normally is as follows:

```
texmf / fonts / tfm / vendor / name / *.tfm
          / afm / vendor / name / *.afm
          / pfm / vendor / name / *.pfm
          / vf / vendor / name / *.vf
          / type1 / vendor / name / *.pfb
 / pdftex / config / *.cfg
          / config / *.map
          / config / encoding / *.enc
```

The `texmf-local` or even better `texmf-fonts` tree normally contains your own fonts, so that you don't have to reinstall them when you reinstall the main tree. The `pdftex` directory contains the files that pdfTeX needs in order to make decisions about the fonts to include. The `enc` files are often part of distributions, as is the configuration `cfg` file. When you install new fonts, you often also have to add or edit `map` files.

ConTeXt comes with a Perl script `texfont.pl` that you can use to install new fonts. Since its usage is covered by a separate manual, we limit ourselves to a short overview.

Say that you have just bought a new font. A close look at the files will reveal that you got at least a bunch of `afm` and `pfb` files and if you're lucky `tfm` files.

Installing such a font can be handled by this script. For this you need to know (or invent) the name of the font vendor, as well as the name of the font. The full set of command line switches is given below:<sup>18</sup>

<sup>17</sup> If you have installed teTeX or fpTeX (possibly from the TeXlive cdrom) you will have many thousands of font files on your system.

switch	meaning
fontroot	texmf font root (automatically determined)
vendor	vendor name (first level directory)
collection	font collection (second level directory)
encoding	encoding vector (default: texnansi)
sourcepath	when installing, copy from this path
install	copy files from source to font tree
makepath	when needed, create the paths
show	run tex on *.tex afterwards

You seldom need to use them all. In any case it helps if you have a local path defined already. The next sequence does the trick:

```
texfont --ve=FontFun --co=FirstFont --en=texnansi --ma --in
```

This will generate the tfm files from the afm files, and copy them to the right place. The Type 1 files (pfb) will be copied too. The script also generates a map file. When this is done successfully, a T<sub>E</sub>X file is generated and processed that shows the font maps. If this file looks right, you can start using the fonts. The T<sub>E</sub>X file also show you how to define the fonts.

This script can also do a couple of more advanced tricks. Let us assume that we have bought (or downloaded) a new font package in the files demofont.afm and demofont.pfb which are available on the current (probably scratch) directory. First we make sure that this font is installed (in our case we use a copy of the public Iwona Regular):

```
texfont --ve=test --co=test --ma --in demofont
```

We can now say:

```
\loadmapfile[texnansi-test-test.map]
\definefontsynonym[DemoFont][texnansi-demofont]
\ruledhbox{\definedfont[DemoFont at 50pt]Interesting}
```

Interesting

From this font, we can derive a slanted alternative by saying:

```
texfont --ve=test --co=test --ma --in --sla=.167 demofont
```

The map file is automatically extended with the entry needed.

```
\definefontsynonym[DemoFont-Slanted][texnansi-demofont-slanted-167]
\ruledhbox{\definedfont[DemoFont-Slanted at 50pt]Interesting}
```

Interesting

We can also create a wider version:

```
texfont --ve=test --co=test --ma --in --ext=1.50 demofont
```

When you use the --make and --install switch, the directories are made, fonts installed, and entries appended to the map file if needed.

```
\definefontsynonym[DemoFont-Extended][texnansi-demofont-extended-1500]
\ruledhbox{\definedfont[DemoFont-Extended at 50pt]Interesting}
```

<sup>18</sup> there are a couple of more switches described in the manual mtexfonts.

Interesting

Instead of using pseudo caps in  $\TeX$  by using `\kap`, you can also create a pseudo small caps font.

```
texfont --ve=test --co=test --ma --in --cap=0.75 demofont
```

This method is much more robust but at the cost of an extra font.

```
\definefontsynonym[DemoFont-Caps][texnansi-demofont-capitalized-750]
\ruledhbox{\definedfont[DemoFont-Caps at 50pt]Interesting}
```

Interesting

switch	meaning
<code>extend=factor</code>	stretch the font to the given factor
<code>narrow=factor</code>	shrink the font to the given factor
<code>slant=factor</code>	create a slanted font
<code>caps=factor</code>	replace lowercase characters by small uppercase ones
<code>test</code>	use test/test as vendor/collection

When manipulating a font this way, you need to provide a file name. Instead of a factor you can give the keyword `default` or a `*`.

```
texfont --test --auto --caps=default demofont
```

The previous example runs create fonts with the rather verbose names:

```
demofont
demofont-slanted-167
demofont-extended-150
demofont-capitalized-750
```

This naming scheme makes it possible to use more instances without the risk of conflicts.

In the distribution you will find an example batch file `type-tmf.dat` which creates metrics for some free fonts for the encoding specified. When you create the default font metrics this way, preferably `texmf-fonts`, you have a minimal font system tuned for you preferred encoding without the risk for name clashes. When you also supply `--install`, the font outlines will be copied from the main tree to the fonts tree, which sometimes is handy from the perspective of consistency.

## 6.11 Getting started

**TODO:** This section needs to be modernized

The way  $\TeX$  searches for files (we're talking web2c now) is determined by the configuration file to which the `TEXMFCNF` environment variable points (the following examples are from my own system):

```
set TEXMFCNF=T:/TEXMF/WEB2C
```

When searching for files, a list of directories is used:

```
set TEXMF={\$TEXMFFONTS,\$TEXMFPROJECT,\$TEXMFLOCAL,!!\$TEXMFMAIN}
```

Here we've added a font path, which itself is set with:

```
set TEXMFMAIN=E:/TEX/TEXMF
set TEXMFLOCAL=E:/TEX/TEXMF-LOCAL
set TEXMFFONTS=E:/TEX/TEXMF-FONTS
```

Now you can generate metrics and map files. The batch file is searched for at the ConT<sub>E</sub>Xt data path in the texmf tree or on the local path.

```
texfont --encoding=ec --batch type-tmf.dat
```

If you want to play with encoding, you can also generate more encodings, like 8r or texnansi.

```
texfont --encoding=texnansi --batch type-tmf.dat
texfont --encoding=8r --batch type-tmf.dat
```

After a while, there will be generated `tfm`, `vf`, and `map` files. If you let ConT<sub>E</sub>Xt pass the map file directives to pdfT<sub>E</sub>X, you're ready now. Otherwise you need to add the names of the mapfiles to the file `pdftex.cfg`. You can best add them in front of the list, and, if you use ConT<sub>E</sub>Xt exclusively, you can best remove the other ones.

As a test you can process the T<sub>E</sub>X files that are generated in the process. These also give you an idea of how well the encoding vectors match your expectations.

Now, the worst that can happen to you when you process your files, is that you get messages concerning unknown `tfm` files or reports on missing fonts when pdfT<sub>E</sub>X writes the file. In that case, make sure that you indeed *have* the right fonts (generated) and/or that the map files are loaded. As a last resort you can load all map files by saying:

```
\usetypescript [map] [all]
```

and take a look at the log file and see what is reported.

In due time we will provide font generation scripts for installation of other fonts as well as extend the typescript collection.

## 6.12 Remarks

It really makes sense to take a look at the font and type definition files (`font-*.tex` and `type-*.tex`). There are fallbacks defined, as well as generic definitions. Studying styles and manual source code may also teach you a few tricks.

# 7 Colors

## 7.1 Introduction

Judicious use of color can enhance your document's layout. For example, in interactive documents color can be used to indicate hyperlinks or other aspects that have no meaning in paper documents, or background colors can be used to indicate screen areas that are used for specific information components.

In this chapter we describe the ConTeXt color support. We will also pay attention to backgrounds and overlays because these are related to the color mechanism.

## 7.2 Color

One of the problems in typesetting color is that different colors may result in identical gray shades. We did some research in the past on this subject and we will describe the ConTeXt facilities on this matter and the way ConTeXt forces us to use color consistently. Color should not be used indiscriminately, therefore you first have to activate the color mechanism:

```
\setupcolors[state=start]
```

Other color parameters are also available:

```
\setupcolors [...,.*,...]

* state      = start stop global local
  conversion = yes no always
  reduction  = yes no
  rgb        = yes no
  cmyk       = yes no
  mpcmyk     = yes no
  mpspot     = yes no
  textcolor  = IDENTIFIER
  split      = c m y k p s no IDENTIFIER
  criterium  = all none
```

The parameter `state` can also be set at `local` or `global`. If you do not know whether the use of color will cross a page boundary, then you should use `global` or `start` to keep track of the color. We use `local` in documents where color will never cross a page border, as is the case in many screen documents. This will also result in a higher processing speed. (For most documents it does not hurt that much when one simply uses `start`).

By default both the `rgb` and `cmyk` colorspaces are supported. When the parameter `cmyk` is set at `no`, then the `cmyk` color specifications are automatically converted to `rgb`. The reverse is done when `rgb=no`. When no color is allowed the colors are automatically converted to weighted grayshades. You can set this conversion with `conversion`. When set to `always`, all colors are converted to `gray`, when set to `yes`, only gray colors are converted.

Colors must be defined. For some default color spaces, this is done in the file `colo-<<xxx>>.tex`. After definition the colors can be recalled with their mnemonic name `<<xxx>>`. By default the file `colo-rgb.tex` is loaded. In this file we find definitions like:

```
\definecolor [darkred] [r=.5, g=.0, b=.0]
\definecolor [darkgreen] [r=.0, g=.5, b=.0]
.....
```

A file with color definitions is loaded with:

```
\setupcolor[rgb]
```

Be aware of the fact that there is also a command `\setupcolors` that has a different meaning. The `rgb` file is loaded by default.

Color must be activated like this:

```
\startcolor[darkgreen]
We can use as many colors as we like. But we do have to take into
account that the reader is possibly \color [darkred] {colorblind}. The
use of color in the running text should always be carefully considered.
The reader easily tires while reading multi||color documents.
\stopcolor
```

In the same way you can define cmyk colors and grayshades:

```
\definecolor [cyan] [c=1,m=0,y=0,k=0]
\definecolor [gray] [s=0.75]
```

gray can also be defined like this:

```
\definecolor [gray] [r=0.75,r=0.75,b=0.75]
```

When the parameter `conversion` is set at `yes` the color definitions are automatically downgraded to the `s`-form: `[s=.75]`. The `s` stands for 'screen'. When `reduction` is `yes`, the black component of a cmyk color is distilled from the other components.

One of the facilities of color definition is the heritage mechanism:

```
\definecolor [important] [red]
```

These definitions enable you to use colors consistently. Furthermore it is possible to give all important issues a different color, and change colors afterwards or even in the middle of a document.

So, next to `\setupcolors` we have the following commands for defining colors:

```

\definecolor [..] [..,.,.,.]
1 IDENTIFIER
2 r = TEXT
  g = TEXT
  b = TEXT
  c = TEXT
  m = TEXT
  y = TEXT
  k = TEXT
  s = TEXT
  h = TEXT
  t = TEXT
  a = TEXT
  p = TEXT
  e = TEXT

```

A color definition file is loaded with:

```

\setupcolor [..]
* IDENTIFIER

```

Typesetting color is done with:

```

\color [..] {..}
1 TEXT
2 CONTENT

```

```

\startcolor [..] ... \stopcolor
* IDENTIFIER

```

A complete palette of colors is generated with:

```

\showcolor [..]
* IDENTIFIER

```

**Figure 7.1** shows the colors that are standard available (see `colo-rgb.tex`).

The use of color in  $\TeX$  is not trivial.  $\TeX$  itself has no color support. Currently color support is implemented using  $\TeX$ 's low level `\mark's` and `\special's`. This means that there are some limitations, but in most cases these go unnoticed.

It is possible to cross page boundaries with colors. The headers and footers and the floating figures or tables will still be set in the correct colors. However, the mechanism is not robust.

In this sentence we use colors within colors. Aesthetically this is bad.





Figure 7.1 Some examples of colors.

As soon as a color is defined it is also available as a command. So there is a command `\darkred`. These commands do obey grouping. So we can say `{\darkred this is typeset in dark red}`.

There are a number of commands that have the parameter `color`. In general, when a style can be set, `color` can also be set.

The default color setup is:

```
\setupcolors [conversion=yes, reduction=no, rgb=yes, cmyk=yes]
```

This means that both colorspaces are supported and that the  $k$ -component in `cmyk` colors is maintained. When `reduction=yes`, the  $k$ -component is 'reduced'. With `conversion=no` equal color components are converted to gray shades.

## 7.3 Grayscales

When we print a document on a black and white printer we observe that the differences between some colors are gone. Figure 7.2 illustrates this effect.

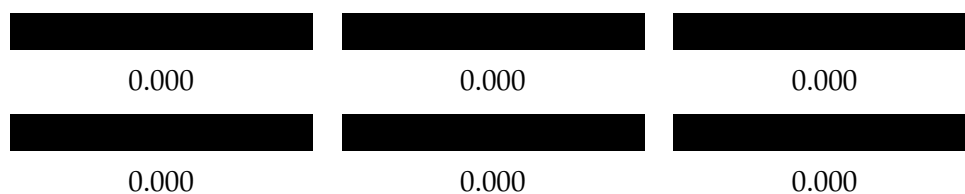


Figure 7.2 Three cyan variations with equal gray shades.

In a black and white print all blocks look the same but the three upper blocks have different cyan based colors. The lower blocks simulate grayshades. We use the following conversion formula:

$$gray = .30 \times red + .59 \times green + .11 \times blue$$

A color can be displayed in gray with the command:

```
\graycolor [.*.]
* TEXT
```

The actual values of a color can be recalled by the commands `\colorvalue{<<name>>}` and `\grayvalue{<<name>>}`.

We can automatically convert all used colors in weighted grayshades.

```
\setupcolors [conversion=always]
```

## 7.4 Colorgroups and palettes

T<sub>E</sub>X itself has hardly any built-in graphical features. However the ConT<sub>E</sub>Xt color mechanism is designed by looking at the way colors in pictures are used. One of the problems is the effect we described in the last section. On a color printer the picture may look fine, but in black and white the results may be disappointing.

In T<sub>E</sub>X we can approach this problem systematically. Therefore we designed a color mechanism that can be compared with that in graphical packages.

We differentiate between individual colors and colorgroups. A colorgroup contains a number of gradations of a color. By default the following colorgroups are defined.



The different gradations within a colorgroup are represented by a number. A colorgroup is defined with:

```
\definecolorgroup [.*.] [.*.] [x:y:z=,..]
                    OPTIONAL
1 IDENTIFIER
2 rgb cmyk gray s
3 TRIPLET
```

An example of a part of the `rgb` definition is:

```
\definecolorgroup
[blue] [rgb]
[1.00:1.00:1.00,
 0.90:0.90:1.00,
 ..... ,
 0.40:0.40:1.00,
```

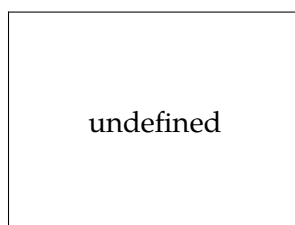
```
0.30:0.30:1.00]
```

The [rgb] is not mandatory in this case, because ConT<sub>E</sub>Xt expects rgb anyway. This command can be viewed as a range of color definitions.

```
\definecolor [blue:1] [r=1.00, g=1.00, b=1.00]
\definecolor [blue:2] [r=0.90, g=0.90, b=1.00]
.....
\definecolor [blue:7] [r=0.40, g=0.40, b=1.00]
\definecolor [blue:8] [r=0.30, g=0.30, b=1.00]
```

A color within a colorgroup can be recalled with <<name>>:<<number>>, for example: blue:4.

There is no maximum to the number of gradations within a colorgroup, but on the bases of some experiments we advise you to stay within 6 to 8 gradations. We can explain this. Next to colorgroups we have palettes. A pallet consists of a limited number of *logical* colors. Logical means that we indicate a color with a name. An example of a palette is:



The idea behind palettes is that we have to avoid colors that are indistinguishable in black and white print. A palette is defined by:

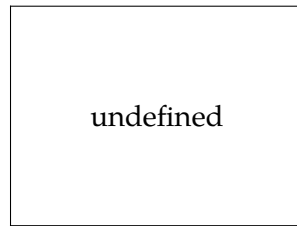
```
\definepalet
[example]
[strange=red:3,
 top=green:1,
 .....
 bottom=yellow:8]
```

We define a palette with the command:

```
\definepalet [.1.] [...,2,...]
1 IDENTIFIER
2 IDENTIFIER = IDENTIFIER
```

ConT<sub>E</sub>Xt contains a number of predefined palettes. Within a palette we use the somewhat abstract names of quarks: *top*, *bottom*, *up*, *down*, *strange* and *charm*. There is also *friend* and *rude* because we ran out of names. Be aware of the fact that these are just examples in the rgb definition file and based on our own experiments. Any name is permitted.

The system of colorgroups and palettes is based on the idea that we compose a palette from the elements of a colorgroup with different numbers. Therefore the prerequisite is that equal numbers should have an equal grayshade.



When a palette is composed we can use the command:

```
\setuppalet [.*.]
* IDENTIFIER
```

After that we can use the colors of the chosen palette. The logical name can be used in for example `\color[strange]{is this not strange}`.

An example of the use of palettes is shown in the verbatim typesetting of  $\text{\TeX}$  code. Within this mechanism colors with names like `prettyone`, `prettytwo`, etc. are used. There are two palettes, one for color and one for gray:

```
\definecolor [colorprettyone] [r=.9, g=.0, b=.0]
\definecolor [grayprettyone] [s=.3]
```

These palettes are combined into one with:

```
\definepalet
[ colorpretty
[ prettyone=colorprettyone, prettytwo=colorprettytwo,
prettythree=colorprettythree, prettyfour=colorprettyfour]
\definepalet
[ graypretty
[ prettyone=grayprettyone, prettytwo=grayprettytwo,
prettythree=grayprettythree, prettyfour=grayprettyfour]
```

Now we can change all colors by resetting the palette with:

```
\setuptyping[palet=colorpretty]
```

Each filter can be set differently:

```
\definepalet [MPcolorpretty] [colorpretty]
\definepalet [MPgraypretty] [graypretty]
```

As you can see a palette can inherit its properties from another palette. This example shows something of the color philosophy in  $\text{Con}\text{\TeX}$ : you can treat colors as abstractions and group them into palettes and change these when necessary.

On behalf of the composition of colorgroups and palettes there are some commands available to test whether the colors are distinguishable.

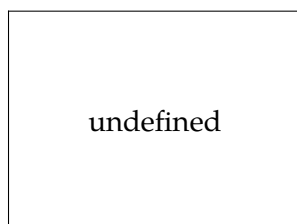
```
\showcolorgroup [.1.] [...2;...]
1 IDENTIFIER
2 horizontal vertical name value NUMBER
```

```
\showpalet [.1.] [...2;...]
1 IDENTIFIER
2 horizontal vertical name value
```

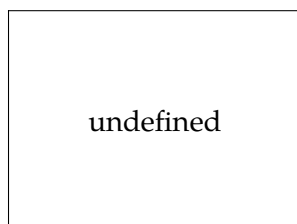
```
\comparecolorgroup [...*]
* IDENTIFIER
```

```
\comparepalet [...*]
* IDENTIFIER
```

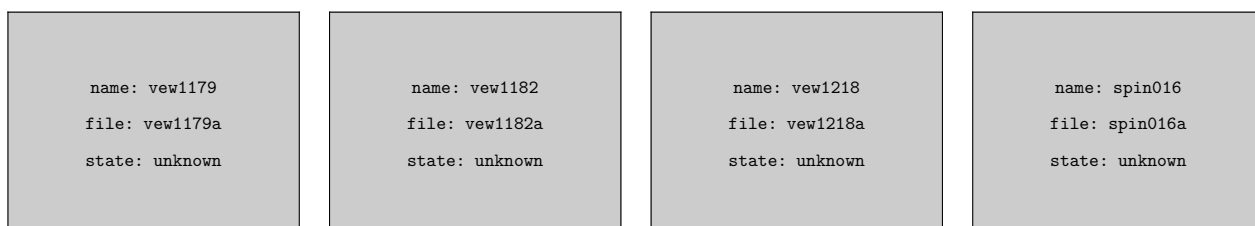
The overviews we have shown thusfar are generated by the first two commands and the gray values are placed below the baseline. On the left there are the colors of the grayshades.



This overview is made with `\comparecolorgroup[green]` and the one below with `\comparepalet[gamma]`.



The standard colorgroups and palettes are composed very carefully and used systematically for coloring pictures. These can be displayed adequately in color and black and white.



**Figure 7.3** Some examples of the use of color.

## 8 Verbatim text

Text can be displayed in verbatim (typed) form. The text is typed between the commands:

```
\startTYPING ... \stopTYPING
```

Like in:

```
\starttyping
```

```
In this text there are enough examples of verbatim text. The command
definitions and examples are typeset with the mentioned commands. Like in
this example.
```

```
\stoptyping
```

For in-line typed text the command `\type` is available.

```
\type {..}
```

```
* CONTENT
```

A complete file can be added to the text with the command:

```
\typefile [1..] {2..}
```

```
1 IDENTIFIER
```

```
2 CONTENT
```

The style of typing is set with:

```

\setuptyping [.1.] [...,.2.,...]
                OPTIONAL
1  file typing IDENTIFIER
2  space       = on off
   page        = yes no
   option      = slanted normal commands color none
   text       = yes no
   icommand    = COMMAND
   vcommand    = COMMAND
   ccommand    = COMMAND
   before     = COMMAND
   after      = COMMAND
   margin     = DIMENSION standard yes no
   evenmargin = DIMENSION
   oddmargin  = DIMENSION
   blank     = DIMENSION small medium big standard halflineline
   escape    = SETUP:CHARACTER
   space     = on off
   tab       = NUMBER yes no
   page     = yes no
   indentnext = yes no
   style    = normal bold slanted boldslanted type cap small... COMMAND
   color    = IDENTIFIER
   palet    = IDENTIFIER
   lines    = yes no hyphenated
   empty    = yes all no
   numbering = line file no
   bodyfont = 5pt ... 12pt small big

```

This setup influences the display verbatim (`\starttyping`) and the verbatim typesetting of files (`\typefile`) and buffers (`\typebuffer`). The first optional argument can be used to define a specific verbatim environment.

```
\setuptyping[file] [margin=default]
```

When the key `space=on`, the spaces are shown:

```

No alignment is to be preferred
over aligning by means of
spaces or the structure of words

```

A very special case is:

```

\definotyping
  [broadtyping]
\setuptyping
  [broadtyping]
  [oddmargin=-1.5cm,evenmargin=-.75cm]

```

This can be used in:

```

\startbroadtyping
A verbatim line can be very long and when we don't want to hyphenate we
typeset it in the margin on the uneven pages.
\stopbroadtyping

```



At a left hand side page the verbatim text is set in the margin.

A verbatim line can be very long and when we don't want to hyphenate we typeset it in the margin on the uneven pages.

An in-line verbatim is set up by:

```
\setuptype [...,.*, ...]
* space = on off
  option = slanted normal none
  style = normal bold slanted boldslanted type cap small... COMMAND
  color = IDENTIFIER
```

When the parameter option is set at slanted all text between << and >> is typeset in a *slanted letter*. This feature can be used with all parameters. In this way `\type{aa<<bb>>cc}` will result in: aa<<bb>>cc.

For reasons of readability you can also use other characters than { and } as *outer* parenthesis. You can choose your own non-active (a non-special) character, for example: `\type+like this+` or `\type-like that-`. Furthermore you can use the mentioned << and >>, as in `\type<<like this>>` or even `\type<like that>`.

The parameter option=commands enables you to process commands in a typed text. In this option \ is replaced by /. This option is used for typesetting manuals like this one. For example:

```
\seethis <</rm : this command has no effect>>
  /vdots
\sihteas <</sl : neither has this one>>
```

The double << and >> overtake the function of {}.

Within the type-commands we are using `\tttf`. When we would have used `\tt`, the `\sl` would have produced a slanted and `\bf` a bold typeletter. Now this will not happen:

```
\seethis <</rm : this command has no effect>>
  /vdots
\sihteas <</sl : neither has this one>>
```

One of the most interesting options of typesetting verbatim is a program source code. We will limit the information on this topic and refer readers to the documentation in the files `verb-<<xxx>>.tex` and `cont-ver.tex`. In that last file you can find the following lines:

```
\definotyping [MP] [option=MP]
\definotyping [PL] [option=PL]
\definotyping [JS] [option=JS]
\definotyping [TEX] [option=TEX]
```

Here we see that it is possible to define your own verbatim environment. For that purpose we use the command:

```
\definotyping [.1.] [...,.2., ...]
1 inherits from \setuptying
2 inherits from \setuptying
```

The definitions above couple such an environment to an option.

```
\startMP
beginfig (12) ;
  MyScale = 1.23 ;
  draw unitsquare scaled MyScale shifted (10,20) ;
endfig ;
\stopMP
```

In color (or reduced gray) this will come out as:

```
beginfig (12) ;
  MyScale = 1.23 ;
  draw unitsquare scaled MyScale shifted (10,20) ;
endfig ;
```

These environments take care of typesetting the text in such a way that the typographics match the chosen language. It is possible to write several filters. Languages like MetaPost, MetaFont, Perl, JavaScript, sql, and off course T<sub>E</sub>X are supported. By default color is used to display these sources, where several palettes take care of the different commands. That is why you see the parameter `palet` in `\setuptyping`. One can use font changes or even own commands instead, by assigning the appropriate values to the `icommand` (for identifiers), `vcommand` (for variables) and `ccommand` parameters (for the rest). By default we have:

```
\setuptyping [icommand=\ttsl, vcommand=, ccommand=\tf]
```

We have some alternatives for `\type`. When typesetting text with this command the words are not hyphenated. Hyphenation is performed however when one uses:

```
\typ {...}
* CONTENT
```

When you are thinking of producing a manual on T<sub>E</sub>X you have a command that may serve you well:

```
\tex {...}
* CONTENT
```

This command places a `\` in front of typed text.

# 9 Backgrounds and Overlays

## 9.1 Text backgrounds

In a number of commands, for example `\framed`, you can use backgrounds. A background may have a color or a screen (pure gray). By default the `backgroundscreen` is set at 0.95. Usable values lie between 0.70 and 1.00.

Building screens in T<sub>E</sub>X is memory consuming and may cause error messages. The screens are therefore build up externally by means of PostScript or pdf instructions. This is set up with:

```
\setupscreens [..,.*,..]

* method      = dot rule external
  resolution  = NUMBER
  factor      = NUMBER
  screen      = NUMBER
```

The parameter `factor` makes only sense when the method `line` or `dot` is chosen. The parameter `screen` determines the 'grid' of the screen. Text on a screen of 0.95 is still readable.

Visually the T<sub>E</sub>X screens are comparable with PostScript screens. When memory and time are non issues T<sub>E</sub>X screens come out more beautiful than postscript screens. There are many ways to implement screens but only the mentioned methods are implemented.

Behind the text in the pagebody screens can be typeset. This is done by enclosing the text with the commands:

```
\startbackground
\stopbackground
```

We have done so in this text. Backgrounds can cross page boundaries when necessary. Extra vertical whitespace is added around the text for reasons of readability.

```
\startbackground {.*} ... \stopbackground

* CONTENT
```

The background can be set up with:

```
\setupbackground [..,.*,..]

* leftoffset   = DIMENSION
  rightoffset  = DIMENSION
  topoffset    = DIMENSION
  bottomoffset = DIMENSION
  before       = COMMAND
  after        = COMMAND
  state        = start stop
  inherits from \setupframed
```

The command `\background` can be used in combination with for example placeblocks:

```
\placetable
  {Just a table.}
  \background
  \starttable[|c|c|c|]
  \HL
  \VL red \VL green \VL blue \VL \AR
  \VL cyan \VL magenta \VL yellow \VL \AR
  \HL
  \stoptable
```

The command `\background` expects an argument. Because a table is ‘grouped’ it will generate `{}` by itself and no extra braces are necessary.

```
\background {.*.}
* CONTENT
```

A fundamental difference between colors and screens is that screens are never converted. There is a command `\starttraster` that acts like `\startcolor`, but in contrast to the color command, `ConTeXt` does not keep track of screens across page boundaries. This makes sense, because screens nearly always are used as simple backgrounds.

## 9.2 Layout backgrounds

In interactive or screen documents the different screen areas may have different functions. Therefore the systematic use of backgrounds may seem obvious. It is possible to indicate all areas or compartments of the pagebody (screenbody). This is done with:

```
\setupbackgrounds [1...] [2...;...] [3...;...]
                  OPTIONAL  OPTIONAL
1 top header TEXT footer bottom page paper leftpage rightpage
2 leftedge leftmargin TEXT rightmargin rightedge
3 state = start stop cd:repeat
  inherits from \setupframed
```

Don’t confuse this command with `\setupbackground` (singular). A background is only calculated when something has changed. This is more efficient while generating a document. When you want to calculate each background separately you should set the parameter `state` at `repeat`. The page background is always recalculated, since it provides an excellent place for page dependent buttons.

After `\setupbackgrounds` without any arguments the backgrounds are also re-calculated.

A specific part of the layout is identified by means of an axis (see [figure 9.1](#)).

	leftedge	leftmargin	text	rightmargin	rightedge
top					
header					
text					
footer					
bottom					

**Figure 9.1** The coordinates in `\setupbackgrounds`.

You are allowed to provide more than one coordinate at a time, for example:

```
\setupbackgrounds
  [header,text,footer]
  [text]
  [background=screen]
```

or

```
\setupbackgrounds
  [text]
  [text,rightedge]
  [background=color,backgroundcolor=MyColor]
```

Some values of the parameter `page`, like `offset` and `corner` also apply to other compartments, for example:

```
\setupbackgrounds
  [page]
  [offset=.5\bodyfontsize]
  [depth=.5\bodyfontsize]
```

When you use menus in an interactive or screen document alignment is automatically adjusted for offset and/or depth. It is also possible to set the parameter `page` to the standard colors and screens.

If for some reason an adjustment is not generated you can use `\setupbackgrounds` (without an argument). In that case `ConTeXt` will calculate a new background.

## 9.3 Overlays

`TEX` has only limited possibilities to enhance the layout with specific features. In `ConTeXt` we have the possibility to ‘add something to a text element’. You can think of a drawing made in some package or other ornaments. What we technically do is lay one piece of text over another piece text. That is why we speak of ‘overlays’.

When we described the backgrounds you saw the parameters `color` and `screen`. These are both examples of an overlay. You can also define your own background:

```
\defineoverlay[gimmick][\green a green text on a background]
\framed
  [height=2cm,background=gimmick,align=middle]
  {at\\the\\foreground}
```

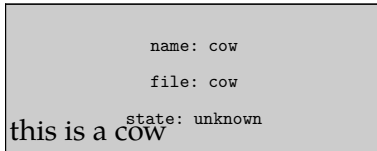
This would look like this:



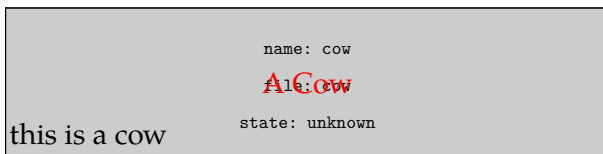
An overlay can be anything:

```
\defineoverlay
  [gimmick]
  [{\externalfigure[cow] [width=\overlaywidth,height=\overlayheight]}]
\framed
  [height=2cm,width=5cm,background=gimmick,align=right]
  {\vfill this is a cow}
```

We can see that in designing an overlay the width and height are available in macros. This enables us to scale the figure.



We can combine overlays with one another or with a screen and color.



The TeX definitions look like this:

```
\defineoverlay
  [gimmick]
  [{\externalfigure[cow] [width=\overlaywidth,height=\overlayheight]}]
\defineoverlay
  [nextgimmick]
  [\red A Cow]
\framed
  [height=2cm,width=.5\textwidth,
  background={screen,gimmick,nextgimmick},align=right]
  {\vfill this is a cow}
```

# 10 Language specific issues

## 10.1 Introduction

One of the more complicated corners of ConT<sub>E</sub>Xt is the department that deals with languages. Fortunately users will seldom notice this, but each language has its own demands and we put quite some effort in making sure that most of the issues on hyphenation rules and accented and non latin characters could be dealt with. For as long as it does not violate the ConT<sub>E</sub>Xt user interface, we also support existing input schemes.

In the early days T<sub>E</sub>X was very American oriented, but since T<sub>E</sub>X version 3 there is (simultaneous) support for multiple languages. The input of languages with many accents —sometimes more accents per character— may look rather complicated, depending on the use of dedicated input encodings or special T<sub>E</sub>X commands.

The situation is further complicated by the fact that specific input does not have a one-to-one relation with the position of a glyph in a font. We discussed this in section ???. It is important to make the right choices for input and font encoding.

In this chapter we will deal with hyphenation and language specific labels. More details can be found in the language definition files (`lang- $\langle\langle xxx \rangle\rangle$` ), the font files (`font- $\langle\langle xxx \rangle\rangle$` ) and the encoding files (`enco- $\langle\langle xxx \rangle\rangle$` ). There one can find details on how to define commands that deal with accents and special characters as covered in a previous chapter, sorting indexes, providing support for Unicode, and more.

## 10.2 Automatic hyphenating

Each language has its own hyphenation rules. As soon as you switch to another language, ConT<sub>E</sub>Xt will activate the appropriate set of hyphenation patterns for that language. Languages are identified by their official two character identifiers, like: Dutch (`nl`), English (`en`), German (`de`) and French (`fr`). A language is chosen with the following command:<sup>19</sup>

```
\language [.*.]
* nl fr en uk de es cz ..
```

Some short cut commands are also available. They can be used enclosed in braces:

```
\nl \en \de \fr \sp \uk \pl \cz ...
```

The command `\language[nl]` can be compared with `\nl`. The first command is more transparent. The two character commands may conflict with existing commands. Take, for example, Italian and the code for *italic* type setting. For this reason we use capitals for commands that may cause any conflicts. One may also use the full names, like `czech`.

At any instance you can switch to another language. In the example below we switch from English to French and vice versa.

---

<sup>19</sup> In case of any doubt please check if the hyphenation patterns are included in the `fnt`-file.

The French composer `{\fr Olivier Messiaen}` wrote `\quote {\fr Quatuor pour la fin du temps}` during the World War II in a concentration camp. This may well be one of the most moving musical pieces of that period.

We use these language switching commands if we cannot be certain that an alternative hyphenation pattern is necessary.

The French composer Olivier Messiaen wrote ‘Qua-	tuor pour la fin du temps’ during the World War II	in a concentration camp. This may well be one of the	most moving musical pieces of that period.
--	--	--	--

How far do we go in changing languages. Borrowed words like *perestrojka* and *glasnost* are often hyphenated okay, since these are Russian words used in an English context. When words are incorrectly hyphenated you can define an hyphenation pattern with the  $\TeX$ -command:

```
\hyphenation{<<ab-bre-via-tion>>}
```

You can also influence the hyphenation in a text by indicating the allowed hyphenation pattern in the word: at the right locations the command `\-` is added: `a1\~1o\~wed`.

## 10.3 Definitions and setups

When a format file is generated the hyphenation pattern one needs should be added to this file. The definition and installation of a language is therefore not transparent for the user. We show the process to give some insight in the mechanism. An example:<sup>20</sup>

```
\installlanguage
[en]
[spacing=broad,
leftsentence=---,
rightsentence=---,
leftsubsentence=---,
rightsubsentence=---,
leftquote=\upperleftsinglesixquote,
rightquote=\upperrightsingleninequote,
leftquotation=\upperleftdoublesixquote,
rightquotation=\upperrightdoubleninequote,
date={month,\ ,day,{\ },year},
default=en,
state=stop]
```

and:

```
\installlanguage
[uk]
[default=en,
state=stop]
```

With the first definition you define the language component. You can view this definition in [the file lang-ger.tex](#), the german languages. Languages are arranged in language groups.

<sup>20</sup> The somewhat strange name `\upperleftsinglesixquote` is at least telling us what the quote will look like.



This arrangement is of no further significance at the moment. Since language definitions are preloaded, users should not bother about setting up such files.

The second definition inherits its set up from the English installation. In both definitions `state` is set at `stop`. This means that no patterns are loaded yet. That is done in the files `cont-<<xx>>`, the language and interface specific ConTeXt versions. As soon as `state` is set at `start`, a new pattern is loaded, which can only be done during the generation of a format file.

We use some conventions in the file names of the patterns `lang-xx.pat` and the exceptions `lang-xx.hyp`. Normally a language is installed with a two character code. However there are three character codes, like `deo` for hyphenating ‘old deutsch’ and `nlx` the Dutch extended character set, or 8-bit encoding. On distributions that come with patterns, the filenames mentioned can be mapped onto the ones available on the system. This happens in the file `cont-usr.tex`.

After installation you are not bound to the two character definitions. Default the longer (English) equivalents are defined:

```
\installlanguage[german][de]
```

```
\installlanguage [.1.] [.,.,.2.,.]
```

```
1 IDENTIFIER
2 spacing           = packed broad
  lefthyphenmin     = NUMBER
  righthyphenmin    = NUMBER
  state             = start stop
  leftsentence      = COMMAND
  rightsentence     = COMMAND
  leftsubsentence   = COMMAND
  rightsubsentence  = COMMAND
  leftquote         = COMMAND
  rightquote        = COMMAND
  leftquotation     = COMMAND
  rightquotation    = COMMAND
  leftspeech        = COMMAND
  middlespeech      = COMMAND
  rightspeech       = COMMAND
  limittext         = TEXT
  date             = TEXT
  compoundhyphen    = COMMAND
  leftcompoundhyphen = COMMAND
  rightcompoundhyphen = COMMAND
  default          = IDENTIFIER
```

```
\setuplanguage [.1.] [.,.,.2.,.]
```

```
1 nl fr en uk de es cz ..
2 inherits from \installlanguage
```

The setup in these commands relate to the situations that are shown below.

```
\currentdate
|<|all right there we go|>|
```

```

|<| |<|all right|>| there we go|>|
|<|all right |<|there|>| we go|>|
\quote{all right there we go}
\quotation{all right there we go}
\quotation{\quote{all right} there we go}
\quotation{all right \quote{there} we go}

```

This becomes:

September 27, 2013

—all right there we go—

— —all right— there we go—

—all right —there— we go—

‘all right there we go’

“all right there we go”

“‘all right’ there we go”

“all right ‘there’ we go”

We will discuss | | in one of the next sections.

## 10.4 Date

Typesetting a date is also language specific so we have to pay some attention to dates here. When the computer runs at the actual time and date the system date can be recalled with:

```

\currentdate [...*...]
* inherits from \date

```

The sequence in which day, month and year are given is not mandatory. The pattern [day,month,year] results in 27 September 2013. We use \currentdate[weekday,month,day,{,},year] to obtain Friday September 27,2013.

A short cut looks like this: [dd,mm,yy] and will result in 270913. Something like [d,m,y] would result in 27September2013 and with [referral] you will get a 20130927. Combinations are also possible. Characters can also be added to the date pattern. The date 27–09–13 is generated by the pattern [dd,--,mm,--,yy].

A date can be (type)set with the command:

```

\date [...,1,...] [...2,...]
                OPTIONAL      OPTIONAL
1  d = NUMBER
   m = NUMBER
   y = NUMBER
2  day month year weekday d m y w dd mm yy space -- day+ d+ dd+ referral TEXT

```

The first (optional) argument is used to specify the date:

```

\date[d=10,m=3,y=1996][weekday,month,day, year]

```

When no argument is given you will obtain the actual date. When the second argument is left out the result equals that of `\currentdate`. The example results in:

Sunday March 10 1996

## 10.5 Labels and heads

In some cases ConTeXt will generate text labels automatically, for example the word **Figure** is generated automatically when a caption is placed under a figure. These kind of words are called textlabels. Labels can be set with the command:

```
\setuplabeltext [.1.] [.2.]
                    OPTIONAL
1  nl fr en uk de es cz ..
2  IDENTIFIER = TEXT
```

Relevant labels are: `table`, `figure`, `chapter`, `appendix` and comparable text elements. An example of such a set up is:

```
\setuplabeltext [en] [chapter=Chapter ]
\setuplabeltext [nl] [hoofdstuk=Hoofdstuk ]
```

The space after `Chapter` is essential, because otherwise the chapternumber will be placed right after the word `Chapter` (`Chapter1` instead of `Chapter 1`). A labeltext can be recalled with:

```
\labeltext {.*}
* CONTENT
```

Some languages, like Chinese, use split labels. These can be passed as a comma separated list, like `chapter={left,right}`.

Titleheads for special sections of a document, like abbreviations and appendices are set up with:

```
\setupheadtext [.1.] [.2.]
                    OPTIONAL
1  nl fr en uk de es cz ..
2  IDENTIFIER = TEXT
```

Examples of titleheads are `Content`, `Tables`, `Figures`, `Abbreviations`, `Index` etc. An example definition looks like:

```
\setupheadtext [content=Content]
```

A header can be recalled with:

```
\headtext {.*}
* CONTENT
```

Labels and titleheads are defined in the file `lang-<<xxx>>`. You should take a look in these files to understand the use of titleheads and labels.

The actual language that is active during document generation does not have to be the same language that is used for the labels. For this reason next to `\language` we have:

```
\mainlanguage [..*..]
* nl fr en uk de es cz ..
```

When typesetting a document, there is normally one main language, say `\mainlanguage[en]`. A temporary switch to another language is then accomplished by for instance `\language[nl]`, since this does not influence the labels and titles. `language`.

## 10.6 Language specific commands

German  $\TeX$  users are accustomed to entering "e and getting  $\text{\e}$  typeset in return. This and a lot more are defined in `lang-ger` using the compound character mechanism built in `Con $\TeX$ t`. Certain two or three character combinations result in one glyph or proper hyphenation. The example below illustrates this. Some macros are used that will not be explained here. Normally, users can stick to simply using the already defined commands.

```
\startlanguagespecifics[de]
  \installcompoundcharacter "a  {\moveaccent{-.1ex}\a\midworddiscretionary}
  \installcompoundcharacter "s  {\SS}
  .....
  \installcompoundcharacter "U  {\smashaccent\U}
  \installcompoundcharacter "Z  {\SZ}
  .....
  \installcompoundcharacter "ck {\discretionary {k-}{k}{ck}}
  \installcompoundcharacter "TT {\discretionary{TT-}{T}{TT}}
  .....
  \installcompoundcharacter "`  {\handlequotation\c!leftquotation}
\stoplanguagespecifics
```

The command `\installcompoundcharacter` takes care of the German type setting, "a is converted to  $\text{\a}$ , "U in  $\text{\U}$ , "ck for the right hyphenation, etc. One can add more definitions, but this will violate portability. In a Polish `Con $\TeX$ t` the / is used instead of a ".

## 10.7 Automatic translation

It is possible to translate a text automatically in the actual language. This may be comfortable when typesetting letterheads. The example below illustrates this.

```
\translate [..,..*..,..]
* IDENTIFIER = TEXT
```

It depends on the actual language whether a labeltext is type set in English {\en as an \translate [en=example, fr=exemple], \fr or in French as an \translate}.

The second command call \translate uses the applied values. That is, \translate with no options uses the options of the last call to \translate.

It depends on the actual language whether a labeltext is type set in English as an example, or in French as an exemple.

## 10.8 Composed words

Words consisting of two separate words are often separated by an intra word dash, as in  $x$ -axis. This dash can be placed between | |, for example |--|. This command, which does not begin with a \, serves several purposes. When || is typed the default intra word dash is used, which is --. This dash is set up with:

```
\setuphyphenmark [.*.]
* sign = -- --- - ~ ( ) = /
```

The | | is also used in word combinations like (intra)word, which is typed as (intra|)word. The mechanism is not foolproof but it serves most purposes. In case the hyphenation is incorrect you can hyphenate the first word of the composed one by hand: (in\-tra|)word.

input	normal	hyphenated
intra word	intra-word	in-tra-word
intra - word	intra-word	in-tra-word
intra (word)	intra(word)	in-tra(word)
(intra )word	(intra)word	(in-tra-word
intra -- word	intra-word	in-tra-word
intra ~ word	intra word	in-tra-word

**Table 10.1** Hyphenation of composed words.

The main reason behind this mechanism is that T<sub>E</sub>X doesn't really know how to hyphenate composed words and how to handle subsentences. T<sub>E</sub>X know a lot about math, but far less about normal texts. Using this command not only serves consistency, but also makes sure that T<sub>E</sub>X can break compound words at the right places. It also keeps boundary characters at the right place when a breakpoint is inserted.

## 10.9 Pattern files manual

**TODO:** A large part of this section is obsolete

$\TeX$  has two mysterious commands that the average user will never or seldom meet:

```
\hyphenation{as-so-ciates}
\patterns  {.ach4}
```

Both commands can take multiple strings, so in fact both commands should be plural. The first command can be given any time and can be used to tell  $\TeX$  that a word should be hyphenated in a certain way. The second command can only be issued when  $\TeX$  is in virgin mode, i.e. starting with a clean slate. Normally this only happens when a format is generated.

The second command is more mysterious than the first one and its entries are a compact way to tell  $\TeX$  between what character sequences it may hyphenate words. The numbers represent weights and the (often long) lists of such entries are generated with a special program called `patgen`. Since making patterns is work for specialists, we will not go into the nasty details here.

In the early stage of  $\text{Con}\TeX\text{t}$  development it came with its own pattern files. Their names started with `lang-` and their suffixes were `pat` and `hyp`.

However, when  $\text{Con}\TeX\text{t}$  went public, I was convinced to drop those files and use the files already available in distributions. This was achieved by using the  $\text{Con}\TeX\text{t}$  filename remapping mechanism. Although those files are supposed to be generic, this is not always the case, and it remains a gamble if they work with  $\text{Con}\TeX\text{t}$ . Even worse, their names are not consistent and the names of some files as well as locations in the tree keep changing. The price  $\text{Con}\TeX\text{t}$  users pay for this is lack of hyphenation until such changes are noticed and taken care of. Because constructing the files is an uncoordinated effort, all pattern files have their own characteristics, most noticeably their encoding.

After the need to adapt the name mapping once again, I decided to get back to providing  $\text{Con}\TeX\text{t}$  specific pattern files. Pattern cooking is a special craft and  $\TeX$  users may call themselves lucky that it's taken care of. So, let's start with thanking all those  $\TeX$  experts who dedicate their time and effort to get their language hyphenated. It's their work we will build (and keep building) upon.

In the process of specific  $\text{Con}\TeX\text{t}$  support, we will take care of:

- consistent naming, i.e. using language codes when possible as a prelude to a more sophisticated naming scheme, taking versions into account
- consistent splitting of patterns and hyphenation exceptions in files that can be recognized by their suffix
- making the files encoding independent using named glyphs
- providing a way to use those patterns in plain  $\TeX$  as well

Instead of using a control sequence for the named glyphs, we use a different notation:

```
[ssharp] [zcaron] [idiaeresis]
```

The advantage of this notation is that we don't have to mess with spacing so that parsing and cleanup with scripts becomes more robust. The names conform to the  $\text{Con}\TeX\text{t}$  way of naming glyphs and the names and reverse mappings are taken from the encoding files in the  $\text{Con}\TeX\text{t}$  distribution, so you need to have  $\text{Con}\TeX\text{t}$  installed.

The  $\text{Con}\TeX\text{t}$  pattern files are generated by a Ruby script. Although the converting is rather straightforward, some languages need special treatment, but a script is easily adapted. If you want a whole bunch of pattern files, just say:

```
ctxtools --patterns all
```

or, if you want one language:

```
ctxtools --patterns nl
```

If for some reason this program does not start, try:

```
texmfstart ctxtools --patterns nl
```

When things run well, this will give you four files:

```
lang-nl.pat  the patterns in an encoding indepent format
lang-nl.hyp  the hyphenation exceptions
lang-nl.log  the conversion log (can be deleted afterwards)
lang-nl.rme  the preambles of the files used (copyright notices and such)
```

If you redistribute the files, it makes sense to bundle the rme files as well, unless the originals are already in the distribution. It makes no sense to keep the log files on your system. When the file lang-all.xml is present, the info from that file will be used and added to the pattern and hyphenation files. In that case no rme and log file will be generated, unless --log is provided.

In the Dutch pattern file you will notice entries like the following:

```
e[ediaeresis]n3
```

So, instead of those funny (encoding specific)  $\text{\^e4}$  or (format specific)  $\text{\e}$  we use names. Although this looks ConT<sub>E</sub>Xt dependent it is rather easy to map those names back to characters, especially when one takes into account that most languages only have a few of those special characters and we only have to deal with lower case instances.

The ConT<sub>E</sub>Xt support module supp-pat.tex is quite generic and contains only a few lines of code. Actually, most of the code is dedicated to the simple xml handler. Loading a pattern meant for EC encoded fonts in another system than ConT<sub>E</sub>Xt is done as follows:

```
\bgroup
  \input supp-pat
  \lccode"E4="E4 \definepatterntoken adiaeresis \^e4
  \lccode"F6="F6 \definepatterntoken odiaeresis \^f6
  \lccode"FC="FC \definepatterntoken ediaeresis \^fc
  \lccode"FF="FF \definepatterntoken ssharp \^ff
  \enablepatterntokens
  \enablepatternxml
  \input lang-de.pat
  \input lang-de.hyp
\egroup
```

In addition to this one may want to set additional lower and uppercase codes. In  $\epsilon$ -T<sub>E</sub>X these are stored with the language.

Just for completeness we provide the magic command to generate the xml variants:

```
ctxtools --patterns --xml all
```

This will give you files like:

```
<?xml version='1.0' standalone='yes'?>
<!-- some comment -->
<patterns>
... e&ediaeresis;n3 ...
</patterns>
```

This is also accepted as input but for our purpose it's probably best to stick to the normal method. The pattern language is a  $\TeX$  specific one anyway.

## 10.10 Installing languages

Installing a language in Con $\TeX$ t should not take too much effort assuming the language is supported. Language specific labels are grouped in lang-\* files, like lang-ger.tex for the germanic languages.

Patterns will be loaded from the files in the general  $\TeX$  distribution unless lang-nl.pat is found, in which case Con $\TeX$ t assumes that you prefer the Con $\TeX$ t patterns. In that case, run

```
ctxtools --patterns all
```

You need to move the files to the Con $\TeX$ t base path that you can locate with:

```
textools --find context.tex
```

You can also use `kpsewhich`, but the above method does an extensive search. Of course you can also generate the files on a temporary location. Now it's time to generate the formats:

```
texexec --make --all
```

Since X $\TeX$  needs patterns in utf-8 encoding, we provide a switch for achieving that:

```
texexec --make --all --utf8
```

Beware: you need to load patterns for each language and encoding combination you are going to use. You can configure your local `cont-usr` file to take care of this. When an encoding does not have the characters that are needed, you will get an error. When using the non Con $\TeX$ t versions of the patterns this may go unnoticed because the encoding is hard coded in the file. Of course it will eventually get noticed when the hyphenations come out wrong.

The Con $\TeX$ t distribution has a file `lang-all.xml` that holds the copyright and other notes of the patterns. A discription looks like:

```
<description language='nl'>
  <sourcefile>nehyph96.tex</sourcefile>
  <title>TeX hyphenation patterns for the Dutch language</title>
  <copyright>
    <year>1996</year>
    <owner> Piet Tutelaers (P.T.H.Tutelaers@tue.nl)</owner>
    <comment>8-bit hyphenation patterns for TeX based upon the new
      Dutch spelling, officially since 1 August 1996. These
      patterns follow the new hyphenation rules in the
      `Woordenlijst Nederlandse Taal, SDU Uitgevers, Den Haag
      1995' (the so called `Groene Boekje') described in
```



```

    section 5.2 (Het afbreekteken)</comment>
  </copyright>
</description>

```

*This file is 'work in process': more details will be added and comments will be enriched.*

## 10.11 Commands

You can at any moment add additional hyphenation exceptions to the language specific dictionaries. For instance:

```
\language[nl] \hyphenation{pa-tiën-ten}
```

Switching to another language is done with the `\language` command. The document language is set with `\mainlanguage`.

If you want to let  $\TeX$  know that a word should be hyphenated in a special way, you use the `\-` command, for instance:

```
Con\ -TeXt
```

Compound words are not recognized by the hyphenation engine, so there you need to add directives, like:

```
the ConTeXt| - |system
```

If you are using xml as input format, you need to load the hyphenation filter module. Here we assume that utf encoding is used:

```
\useXMLfilter[utf,hyp]
```

In your xml file you can now add:

```

<hyphenations language='nl' regime='utf'>
  <hyphenation>pa-tiën-ten</hyphenation>
  <hyphenation>pa-tiën-ten-or-ga-ni-sa-tie</hyphenation>
  <hyphenation>pa-tiën-ten-plat-form</hyphenation>
</hyphenations>

```

This filter also defines some auxiliary elements. Explicit hyphenation points can be inserted as follows:

```
Zullen we hier af<hyphenate/>bre<hyphenate/>ken of niet?
```

The compound token can be anything, but keep in mind that some tokens are treated special (see other manuals).

```
Wat is eigenlijk een patiënten<compound token="-"/>platform?
```

A language is set with:

```
nederlands <language code="en">english</language> nederlands
```

If you set attribute `scope` to `global`, labels (as used for figure captions and such) adapt to the language switch. This option actually invokes `\mainlanguage`.

## 10.12 Languages

When users in a specific language area use more than one font encoding, patterns need to be loaded multiple times. In theory this means that one can end up with more instances than  $\text{\TeX}$  can host. However, the number of sensible font encodings is limited as is the number of languages that need hyphenation. Now that memory is cheap and machines are fast, preloading a lot of pattern files is no problem. The following table shows the patterns that are preloaded in the version of  $\text{\ConTeXt}$  that is used to process this file.

**FIXME:** `\showpatterns` doesn't exist anymore

*In the (near) future the somewhat arcane `p10` and `i12` encodings will go away since they are only used for Polish and Czech/Slovak computer modern fonts, which can be replaced by Latin Modern alternatives. Also, a new dense encoding may find its way into this list.*

## 10.13 Hyphenation

While hyphenating,  $\text{\TeX}$  has to deal with ligatures as well. While Thomas, Taco and I were discussing the best ways to neutralize the ancient greek patterns, Taco Hoekwater came up with the following explanation.<sup>21</sup>

fi fl ffi ffl

Any direct use of a ligature (as accessed by `\char` or through active characters) is wrong and will create faulty hyphenation. Normally, when  $\text{\TeX}$  sees 'office', it has the six tokens `off``ice` and it knows from the patterns that it can hyphenate between the `ff`. It will build an internal list of four nodes, like this:

```
[char, o , ffi ]
[lig , ffi, c , [f,f,i]]
[char, c , e ]
[char, e , NULL]
```

As you can see from the `ffi` line, it has remembered the original characters. While hyphenating, it temporarily changes back to that, then re-instates the ligature afterwards.

If you feed it the ligature directly, like so:

```
[char, o , ffi ]
[char, ffi , c ]
[char, c , e ]
[char, e , NULL]
```

it cannot do that. It tries to hyphenate as if the `ffi` was a character, and the result is wrong hyphenation.

<sup>21</sup> Thomas Schmitz is responsible for the associated third party module.

# 11 Text elements

## 11.1 Introduction

The core of ConTEXt is formed by the commands that structures the text. The most common structuring elements are chapters and sections. The structure is visualized by means of titles and summarized in the table of contents.

A text can be subdivided in different ways. As an introduction we use the methods of H. van Krimpen, K. Treebus and the Collectief Gaade. First we examine the method of van Krimpen:

- |                         |                          |                 |
|-------------------------|--------------------------|-----------------|
| 1. French title         | 6. ...                   | 11. notes       |
| 2. title                | 7. list of illustrations | 12. literature  |
| 3. history & copyright  | 8. acknowledgement       | 13. register(s) |
| 4. mission              | 9. errata                | 14. colofon     |
| 5. preface/introduction | 10. the content          |                 |

The French title is found at the same spread as the back of the cover, or first empty sheet. In the colofon we find the used font, the names of the typesetter and illustrator, the number of copies, the press, the paper, the binding, etc.

The subdivision of Treebus looks like this:

- |                     |                             |                            |
|---------------------|-----------------------------|----------------------------|
| 1. French title     | 8. list of illustrations    | 15. literature             |
| 2. titlepage        | 9. introduction/preface (2) | 16. used words             |
| 3. colofon          | 10. ...                     | 17. addenda                |
| 4. copyright        | 11. epilogue                | 18. register               |
| 5. mission          | 12. appendices              | 19. acknowledgement photos |
| 6. preface (1)      | 13. summaries               | 20. (colofon)              |
| 7. table of content | 14. notes                   |                            |

In this way of dividing a text the colofon is printed on the back of the titlepage. The first preface is written by others and not by the author.

The last text structure is that of the Collectief Gaade:

- |                 |                     |                           |
|-----------------|---------------------|---------------------------|
| 1. French title | 7. preface          | 13. list of illustrations |
| 2. series title | 8. table of content | 14. used words            |
| 3. title        | 9. introduction     | 15. bibliography          |
| 4. copyright    | 10. ...             | 16. colofon               |
| 5. mission      | 11. appendices      | 17. register              |
| 6. blank        | 12. notes           |                           |

Since there seems to be no standardized way of setting up a document, ConT<sub>E</sub>Xt will only provide general mechanisms. These are designed in such a way that they meet the following specifications:

1. In a text the depth of sectioning seldom exceeds four. However, in a complex manuals more depth can be useful. In paper documents a depth of six may be very confusing for the reader but in electronic documents we need far more structure. This is caused by the fact that a reader cannot make a visual representation of the electronic book. Elements to indicate this structure are necessary to be able to deal with the information.
2. Not every level needs a number but in the background every level is numbered to be able to refer to these unnumbered structuring elements.
3. The names given to the structuring elements must be a logical ones and must relate to their purpose.
4. It is possible to generate tables of contents and registers at every level of the document and they must support complex interactivity.
5. A document will be divided in functional components like introductions and appendices with their respective (typographical) characteristics.
6. The hyphenation of titles must be handled correctly.
7. Headers and footers are supported based on the standard labels used in a document. For example chapter in a book and procedure in a manual.
8. A ConT<sub>E</sub>Xt user must be able to design titles without worrying about vertical and horizontal spacing, referencing and synchronisation.

These prerequisites have resulted in a heavy duty mechanism that works in the background while running ConT<sub>E</sub>Xt. The commands that are described in the following sections are an example of an implementation. We will also show examples of self designed titles.

## 11.2 Subdividing the text

A text is divided in chapters, sections, etc. with the commands:

```
\part [...1...] {...2.}
      OPTIONAL
1 REFERENCE
2 CONTENT
```

```
\chapter [...1...] {...2.}
      OPTIONAL
1 REFERENCE
2 CONTENT
```

```
\section [...1;...] {2.}
```

OPTIONAL

- 1 REFERENCE
- 2 CONTENT

```
\subsection [...1;...] {2.}
```

OPTIONAL

- 1 REFERENCE
- 2 CONTENT

```
\subsubsection [...1;...] {2.}
```

OPTIONAL

- 1 REFERENCE
- 2 CONTENT

and

```
\title [...1;...] {2.}
```

OPTIONAL

- 1 REFERENCE
- 2 CONTENT

```
\subject [...1;...] {2.}
```

OPTIONAL

- 1 REFERENCE
- 2 CONTENT

```
\subsubject [...1;...] {2.}
```

OPTIONAL

- 1 REFERENCE
- 2 CONTENT

```
\subsubsubject [...1;...] {2.}
```

OPTIONAL

- 1 REFERENCE
- 2 CONTENT

The first series of commands (`\chapter ...`) generate a numbered head, with the second series the titles are not numbered. There are a few more levels available than those shown above.

By default `\part` generates *no* title because most of the times these require special attention and a specific design. In the background however the part numbering is active and carries out several initialisations. The other elements are set up to typeset a title.

level	numbered title	unnumbered title
1	<code>\part</code>	
2	<code>\chapter</code>	<code>\title</code>
3	<code>\section</code>	<code>\subject</code>
4	<code>\subsection</code>	<code>\subsubject</code>
5	<code>\subsubsection</code>	<code>\subsubsubject</code>

**Table 11.1** The structuring elements.

A structuring element has two arguments. The first argument, the reference, makes it possible to refer to the chapter or section from another location of the document. In [chapter 12](#) this mechanism is described in full. A reference is optional and can be left out.

```
\section{Subdividing a text}
```

ConTeXt generates automatically the numbers of chapters and sections. However there are situations where you want to enforce your own numbering. This is also supported.

```
\setuphead[subsection] [ownnumber=yes]
\subsection{399}{The old number}
\subsection[someref]{400}{Another number}
```

In this example an additional argument appears. In the background ConTeXt still uses its own numbering mechanism, so operations that depend upon a consistent numbering still work okay. The extra argument is just used for typesetting the number. This user-provided number does not have to be number, it may be anything, like ABC-123.

### 11.2.399 The old number

### 11.2.400 Another number

You can automatically place titles of chapters, sections or other structuring elements in the header and footer with the marking mechanism. Titles that are too long can be shortened by:

```
\nomarking {.*.}
* CONTENT
```

For example:

```
\chapter{Influences \nomarking{in the 20th century:} an introduction}
```

The text enclosed by `\nomarking` is replaced by dots in the header or footer. Perhaps an easier strategy is to use the automatic marking limiting mechanism. The next command puts the chapter title left and the section title right in the header. Both titles are limited in length.

```
\setupheadertexts[chapter] [section]
\setupheader [leftwidth=.4\hsize,rightwidth=.5\hsize]
```

A comparable problem may occur in the table of contents. In that case we use `\nolist`:

```
\chapter{Influences in the 20th century\nolist{: an introduction}}
```

When you type the command `\` in a title a new line will be generated at that location. When you type `\crlf` in a title you will enforce a new line only in the table of contents. For example:

```
\chapter{Influences in the 20th century:\crlf an introduction}
```

This will result in a two line title in the table of context, while the title is only one line in the text.

It is possible to define your own structuring elements. Your ‘own’ element is derived from an existing text element.

```
\definehead [.1.] [.2.]
1 IDENTIFIER
2 SECTION
```

An example of a definition is:

```
\definehead[category][subsubject]
```

From this moment on the command `\category` behaves just like `\subsubject`, i.e., `\category` inherits the default properties of `\subsubject`. For example, `\category` is not numbered.

A number of characteristics available with `\setuphead` are described in [section 11.3](#). Your own defined structuring elements can also be set up. The category defined above can be set up as follows:

```
\setuphead[category][page=yes]
```

This setup causes each new instance of `category` to be placed at the top of a new page.

We can also block the section numbering with `\setupheads[sectionnumber=no]`. Section numbering will stop but ConTeXt will continue the numbering on the background. This is necessary to be able to perform local actions like the generating local tables of content.

In defining your own structuring elements there is always the danger that you use existing TeX or ConTeXt commands. It is of good practice to use capitals for your own definitions. For example:

```
\definehead[WorkInstruction][section]
```

## 11.3 Variations in titles

The numbering and layout of chapters, sections and subsections can be influenced by several commands. These commands are also used in the design of your own heads. We advise you to start the design process in one of the final stages of your document production process. You will find that correct header definitions in the setup area of your source file will lead to a very clean source without any layout commands in the text.

The following commands are at your disposal:

```

\setuphead [...1,...] [...2,...]

1 SECTION
2 style          = normal bold slanted boldslanted type cap small... COMMAND
textstyle       = normal bold slanted boldslanted type cap small... COMMAND
numberstyle    = normal bold slanted boldslanted type cap small... COMMAND
color          = IDENTIFIER
textcolor      = IDENTIFIER
numbercolor    = IDENTIFIER
number         = yes no
ownnumber      = yes no
page          = left right yes
continue       = yes no
header        = none empty high nomarking
text          = none empty high nomarking
footer        = none empty high nomarking
before        = COMMAND
inbetween     = COMMAND
after         = COMMAND
alternative    = normal inmargin middle TEXT
hang          = none broad fit line NUMBER
command       = \...#1#2
numbercommand = \...#1
textcommand   = \...#1
deepnumbercommand = \...#1
deeptextcommand = \...#1
prefix        = + - TEXT
placehead     = yes no empty
incrementnumber = yes no LIST FILE
resetnumber   = yes no
file         = IDENTIFIER
expansion     = yes no command
margintext    = yes no
inherits from \setupheads

```

Later we will cover many of the parameters mentioned here. This command can be used to set up one or more heads, while the next can be used to set some common features.

```

\setupheads [...,*.,...]

* sectionnumber = yes NUMBER no
alternative    = normal margin middle TEXT paragraph
separator     = TEXT
stopper       = TEXT
align         = inner outer left right flushleft flushright middle center normal no yes
aligntitle    = yes float no
tolerance     = verystRICT strict tolerant verytolerant stretch
indentnext    = yes no
command       = \...#1#2
margin        = DIMENSION

```

The number of a title can be set up with:



```
\setupheadnumber [..] [..]
1 SECTION
2 NUMBER +cd:number -cd:number
```

This command accepts absolute and relative numbers, so [12], [+2] and [+]. The relative method is preferred, like:

```
\setuphead[chapter][+1]
```

This command is only used when one writes macros that do tricky things with heads. A number can be recalled by:

```
\headnumber [..]
* SECTION
```

and/or:

```
\currentheadnumber
```

For example:

```
\currentheadnumber = 0
\headnumber[chapter] = 11
\headnumber[section] = 11.3
```

When you want to use the titlenumber in calculations you must use the command `\currentheadnumber`. This number is calculated by and available after:

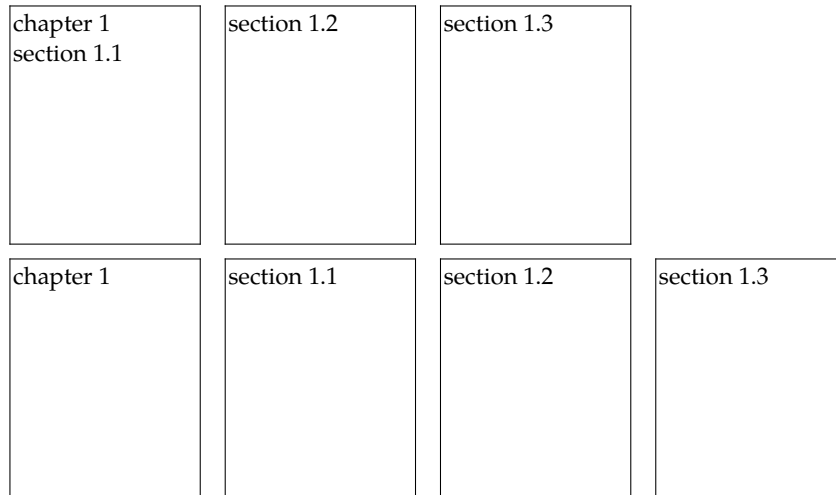
```
\determineheadnumber [..]
* SECTION
```

When headers and footers use the chapter and section titles they are automatically adapted at a new page. The example below results in going to new right hand side page for each chapter.

```
\setuphead
[chapter]
[page=right,
after={\blank[2*big]}]
```

In extensive documents you can choose to start sections on a new page. The title of the first section however should be placed directly below the chapter title. You can also prefer to start this first section on a new page. In that case you set `continue=no`. [Figure 11.1](#) shows the difference between these two alternatives.

```
\setuphead
[section]
[page=yes,continue=no,
after=\blank]
```



**Figure 11.1** Two alternatives for the first section.

It is also possible that you do not want any headers and footers on the page where a new chapter begins. In that case you should set `header` at `empty`, `high`, `nomarking` or an identification of a self defined header (this is explained in [section 4.16](#)).

By default the titles are typeset in a somewhat larger font. You can set the text and number style at your own chosen bodyfont. When the titles make use of the same body font (serif, sans, etc.) as the running text you should use neutral identifications for these fonts. So you use `\tfb` instead of `\rmb`. Font switching is also an issue in titles. For example if we use `\ssbf` instead of `\ss\bf` there is a chance that capitals and synonyms are not displayed the way they should. So you should always use the most robust definitions for fontswitching. Commands like `\kap` adapt their behaviour to these switchings.

A chapter title consists of a number and a text. It is possible to define your own command that typesets both components in a different way.

### 11.3.1 Title alternative equals normal

### 11.3.2 Title alternative equals inmargin

#### Title alternative equals middle

These titles were generated by:

```
\setupheads[alternative=normal]
\subsection{Title alternative equals normal}
\setupheads[alternative=inmargin]
\subsection{Title alternative equals inmargin}
\setupheads[alternative=middle]
\subsubject{Title alternative equals middle}
```

In this manual we use a somewhat different title layout. The design of such a title is time consuming, not so much because the macros are complicated, but because cooking up something original takes time. In the examples below we will show the steps in the design process.

```
\unexpanded\def\HeadTitle#1#2%
```

```

{\hbox to \hsize
  {\hfill % the % after {#1} suppresses a space
   \framed[height=1cm,width=2cm,align=left]{#1}%
   \framed[height=1cm,width=4cm,align=right]{#2}}}
\setuphead[subsection][command=\HeadTitle]

```

<b>11.3.3</b>	<b>Title</b>
---------------	--------------

A reader will expect the title of a section on the left hand side of the page, but we see an alternative here. The title is at the right hand side. One of the advantages of using `\framed` is, that turning `frame=on`, some insight can be gained in what is happening.

### 11.3.4 | Another title

This alternative looks somewhat better. The first definition is slightly altered. This example also shows the features of the command `\framed`.

```

\unexpanded\def\HeadTitle#1#2%
  {\hbox to \hsize \bgroup
   \hfill
   \setupframed[height=1cm,offset=.5em,frame=off]
   \framed[width=2cm,align=left]{#1}%
   \framed[width=4cm,align=right,leftframe=on]{#2}%
   \egroup}
\setuphead
[subsection]
[command=\HeadTitle,
 style=\tfb]

```

We see that the font is set with the command `\setuphead`. These font commands should not be placed in the command `\HeadTitle`. You may wonder what happens when ConTeXt encounters a long title. Here is the answer.

### 11.3.5 | A somewhat longer title

Since we have fixed the height at 1cm, the second line of the title end up longer than the first. We will solve that problem in the next alternative. A `\tbox` provides a top aligned box.

```

\unexpanded\def\HeadTitle#1#2%
  {\hbox to \hsize \bgroup
   \hfill
   \setupframed[offset=.5em,frame=off]
   \tbox{\framed[width=3cm,align=left]{#1}}%
   \tbox{\framed[width=4cm,align=right,leftframe=on]{#2}}%
   \egroup}
\setuphead
[subsection]
[command=\HeadTitle]

```

This definition results in a title and a number that align on their first lines (due to `\tbox`).

11.3.6	A consider- ably longer title
--------	-------------------------------------

When the title design becomes more complex you have to know more of  $\TeX$ . Not every design specification can be foreseen.

```
\setuphead[subsubject] [alternative=text,style=bold]
\setuphead[subsubsubject] [alternative=text,style=slantedbold]
```

**Titles in the text** *Why are titles in the text more difficult to program in  $\TeX$  than we may expect beforehand.* The answer lies in the fact that Con $\TeX$ t supports the generation of parallel documents. These are documents that have a printable paper version and an electronic screen version. These versions are coupled and thus hyperlinked by their titles. This means that when you click on a title you will jump to the same title in the other document. So we *couple* document versions:

```
\coupledocument
  [screenversion]
  [repman-e]
  [chapter,section,subsection,subsubsection,part,appendix]
  [The Reporting Manual]
\setuphead
  [chapter,section,subsection,subsubsection,part,appendix]
  [file=screenversion]
```

The first argument in `\coupledocument` identifies the screen document and the second argument specifies the file name of that document. The third argument specifies the coupling and the fourth is a description. After generating the documents you can jump from one version to another by just clicking the titles. This command only preloads references, the actual coupling is achieved by `\setuphead` command. Because titles in a text may take up several lines some heavy duty manipulation is necessary when typesetting such titles as we will see later.

## 11.4 Meta-structure

You can divide your document in functional components. The characteristics of the titles may depend in what component the title is used. By default we distinguish the next functional components:

- frontmatter
- bodypart
- appendices
- backmatter

Introductions and extroductions are enclosed by `\start ... \stop` constructs. In that case the titles will not be numbered like the chapters, but they are displayed in the table of contents. Within the component 'bodypart' there are no specific actions or layout manipulations, but in the 'appendices' the titles are numbered by letters (A, B, C, etc.).

```
\startfrontmatter
```

```

\completecontent
\chapter{Introduction} <</Roman in content, no number>>
\stopfrontmatter
\startbodymatter
\chapter{First} <</Roman number 1, in content>>
\section{Alfa} <</Roman number 1.1, in content>>
\section{Beta} <</Roman number 1.2, in content>>
\chapter{Second} <</Roman number 2, in content>>
\subject{Blabla} <</Roman no number, not in content>>
\stopbodymatter
\startappendices
\chapter{Index} <</Roman letter A, in content>>
\chapter{Abbreviations} <</Roman letter B, in content>>
\stopappendices
\startbackmatter
\chapter{Acknowlegdement} <</Roman no number, in content>>
\title{Colofon} <</Roman no number, not in content>>
\stopbackmatter

```

When this code is processed, you will see that commands like `\title` and `\subject` never appear in the table of content and never get a number. Their behaviour is not influenced by the functional component they are used in. The behaviour of the other commands depend on the setup within such a component. Therefore it is possible to adapt the numbering in a functional component with one parameter setup.

## 11.5 Alternative mechanisms

Not every document can be structured in chapters and sections. There are documents with other numbering mechanisms and other ways to indicate levels in the text. The title mechanism supports these documents.

At the lowest level, the macros of ConT<sub>E</sub>Xt do not work with chapters and sections but with sectionblocks. The chapter and section commands are predefined sectionblocks. In dutch this distinction is more clear, since there we have `\hoofdstuk` and `\paragraaf` as instances of ‘secties’.

```

\definesectionblock [1.] [OPTIONAL.,.2.,...]
1 inherits from \setupsectionblock
2 inherits from \setupsectionblock

```

```
\setupsectionblock [..1.] [..,2,...]
```

```
1 IDENTIFIER
2 number = yes no
  page   = yes right
  before = COMMAND
  after  = COMMAND
```

```
\definesection [.*.]
```

```
* IDENTIFIER
```

```
\setupsection [..1.] [..2.] [..,3,...]  
                      OPTIONAL
```

```
1 IDENTIFIER
2 IDENTIFIER
3 conversion      = numbers characters Characters romannumerals Romannumerals
  previousnumber = yes no
```

By default there are four sectionblocks:

```
\definesectionblock [bodypart]      [headnumber=yes]
\definesectionblock [appendices]    [headnumber=yes]
\definesectionblock [introductions] [headnumber=no]
\definesectionblock [extroductions] [headnumber=no]
```

We see that numbering is set with these commands. When numbering is off local tables of contents can not be generated. When numbers are generated but they do not have to be displayed you can use `\setupheads[sectionnumber=no]`.

By default every sectionblock starts at a new (right hand side) page. This prevents markings from being reset too early. A new page is enforced by page.

In ConT<sub>E</sub>Xt there are seven levels in use but more levels can be made available.

```
\definesection [section-1]
\definesection [section-2]
.....
\definesection [section-7]
```

There are a number of titles predefined with the command `\definehead`. We show here some of the definitions:

```
\definehead [part]      [section=section-1]
\definehead [chapter]   [section=section-2]
\definehead [section]   [section=section-3]
```

The definition of a subsection differs somewhat from the others, since the subs inherit the characteristics of a section:

```
\definehead
```

```
[subsection]
[section=section-4,
default=section]
```

The definitions of unnumbered titles and subjects are different because we don't want any numbering:

```
\definehead
[title]
[coupling=chapter,
default=chapter,
incrementnumber=no]
```

The unnumbered title is coupled to the numbered chapter. This means that in most situations the title is handled the same way as a chapter. You can think of the ways new pages are generated at each new unnumbered title or chapter. Characteristics like the style and color are also inherited.

There is more to consider. The predefined sectionblocks are used in appendices, because these have a different numbering system.

```
\setupsection
[section-2]
[appendixconversion=Character, % Watch the capital
previousnumber=no]
\setuphead
[part]
[placehead=no]
\setuphead
[chapter]
[appendixlabel=appendix,
bodypartlabel=chapter]
```

This means that within an appendix conversion from number to character takes place, but only at the level of section 2. Furthermore the titles that are related to section-2 do not get a prefix in front of the number. The prefix consists of the separate numbers of the sectionblocks:

```
<section-1><separator><section-2><separator><section-3> <</rm etc.>>
```

By default section 2 (appendix) will be prefixed by the partnumber and a separator (.) and this is not desirable at this instance. At that level we block the prefix mechanism and we prevent that in lower levels (section 3 ...) the partnumber is included.

In the standard setup of ConT<sub>E</sub>Xt we do not display the part title. You can undo this by saying:

```
\setuphead[part] [placehead=yes]
```

Chapters and appendices can be labeled. This means that the titles are preceded with a word like *Chapter* or *Appendix*. This is done with `\setuplabeltext`, for example:

```
\setuplabeltext [appendix=Appendix~]
```

The look of the titles are defined by `\setuphead`. ConT<sub>E</sub>Xt has set up the lower level section headings to inherit their settings from the higher level. The default setups for ConT<sub>E</sub>Xt are therefore limited to:

```
\setuphead
  [part,chapter]
  [align=normal,
   continue=no,
   page=right,
   head=nomarking,
   style=\tfc,
   before={\blank[2*big]},
   after={\blank[2*big]}}
```

```
\setuphead
  [section]
  [align=normal,
   style=\tfa,
   before={\blank[2*big]},
   after=\blank]
```

With `nomarking`, we tell `ConTeXt` to ignore markings in running heads at the page where a chapter starts. We prefer `\tfc`, because this enables the title to adapt to the actual bodyfont. The `{}` around `\blank` are essential for we do not want any conflicts with `[ ]`.

Earlier we saw that new structuring elements could be defined that inherit characteristics of existing elements. Most of the time this is sufficient:

```
\definehead[topic] [section] [style=bold,before=\blank]
\definehead[category] [subject] [style=bold,before=\blank]
```

One of the reasons that the mechanism is rather complex is the fact that we use the names of the sections as setups in other commands. The marking of `category` can be compared with that of `subject`, but that of `subject` can not be compared with that `section`. During the last few years it appeared that `subject` is used for all sorts of titles in the running text. We don't want to see these in headers and footers.

While setting the parameter `criterium` in lists and registers and the way of numbering, we can choose `persection` or `persubject`. For indicating the level we can use the parameter `section` as well as `subject`. So we can alter the names of sections in logical ones that relate to their purpose. For example:

```
\definehead [handbook] [section=section-1]
\definehead [procedure] [section=section-2]
\definehead [subprocedure] [section=section-3]
\definehead [instruction] [procedure]
```

After this we can set up the structuring elements (or inherit them) and generate lists of procedures and instructions. We will discuss this feature in detail in one of the later chapters.



# 12 References

## 12.1 Table of contents

The table of contents is very common in books and is used to refer to the text that lies ahead. Tables of content are generated automatically by:

```
\placecontent
```

The table of contents shows a list of chapters and sections but this depends also on the location where the table of contents is summoned. Just in front of a chapter we will obtain a complete table. But just after the chapter we will only obtain a list of relevant sections or subsections. The same mechanism also works with sections and subsections.

```
\chapter{Mammals}  
\placecontent  
\section{Horses}
```

A table of contents is an example of a combined list. Before discussing combined lists we go into single lists. A single list is defined with:

```
\definelist [...1...] [...2...] [...,3,...]  
                OPTIONAL      OPTIONAL  
1 IDENTIFIER  
2 IDENTIFIER  
3 inherits from \setuplist
```

An example of such a definition is:

```
\definelist[firstlevel]
```

Such a list is recalled with:

```
\placelist[firstlevel]
```

Each list may have its own set up:

```
\setuplist[firstlevel][width=2em]
```

Lists can be set up simultaneously, for example:

```
\setuplist[firstlevel,secondlevel][width=2em]
```

To generate a list you type:

```
\placelist [...1...] [...,2,...]  
                OPTIONAL  
1 IDENTIFIER  
2 inherits from \setuplist
```

The layout of a list is determined by the values of alternative (see [table 12.1](#)), margin, width and distance. The alternatives a, b and c are line oriented. A line has the following construct:

```

\setuplist [...1,...] [...2,...]

1 IDENTIFIER
2 state           = start stop
   alternative    = a b c ... none command
   coupling       = on off
   criterium      = SECTION local previous current all
   pageboundaries = LIST
   style          = normal bold slanted boldslanted type cap small... COMMAND
   numberstyle    = normal bold slanted boldslanted type cap small... COMMAND
   textstyle      = normal bold slanted boldslanted type cap small... COMMAND
   pagestyle      = normal bold slanted boldslanted type cap small... COMMAND
   color          = IDENTIFIER
   command        = \...#1#2#3
   numbercommand  = \...#1
   textcommand    = \...#1
   pagecommand    = \...#1
   interaction     = cd:sectionnumber TEXT pagenumber all
   before         = COMMAND
   after          = COMMAND
   inbetween      = COMMAND
   left           = TEXT
   right          = TEXT
   label          = yes no
   prefix         = yes no none
   pagenumber     = yes no
   headnumber     = yes no
   cd:sectionnumber = yes no
   aligntitle     = yes no
   margin         = DIMENSION
   width          = DIMENSION fit
   height         = DIMENSION fit broad
   depth          = DIMENSION fit broad
   distance       = DIMENSION
   separator      = TEXT
   stopper        = TEXT
   symbol         = none 1 2 3 ...
   expansion      = yes no command
   maxwidth       = DIMENSION
   inherits from \setupframed

```

margin	width	distance	
	headnumber		head and pagenumber

In a paper document it is sufficient to set up width. In an interactive document however the width determines the clickable area.<sup>22</sup>

In alternative d the titles in the table will be type set as a continuous paragraph. In that case the before and after have no meaning. The distance, that is 1em at a minimum, relates to the distance to the next element in the list. The next set up generates a compact table of contents:

<sup>22</sup> This also depends on the value assigned to interaction.

```

\setuplist
  [chapter]
  [before=\blank,after=\blank,style=bold]
\setuplist
  [section]
  [alternative=d,left=(,right=),pagestyle=slanted,prefix=no]

```

Since both lists are defined already when defining the sectioning command, we do not define them here. The parameter `prefix` indicates whether the preceding level indicator numbering is used. In this alternative the prefix is not used. Alternative `d` looks like this:

```

(12.1) Table of contents 215      (12.2) Synonyms 225      (12.3) Sorting 227
(12.4) Marking 228    (12.5) Cross references 231  (12.6) Predefined references 236
(12.7) Registers 237

```

When alternative is set to `d`, an element in the list has the following construction:

left	headnumber	right	head	page	distance
------	------------	-------	------	------	----------

When you define a title you also define a list. This means that there are standard lists for chapters, sections and subsections, etc. available.

These (sub)sections can be combined into one combined list. The default table of contents is such a combined list:

```

\definecombinedlist
  [content]
  [part,
  chapter,section,subsection,subsubsection,
  subsubsubsection,subsubsubsubsection]
  [level=subsubsubsubsection,
  criterium=local]

```

The alternative setups equals that of the separate lists.

```

\definecombinedlist [.1.] [...,2,...] [...,3,...]  

OPTIONAL
1 IDENTIFIER
2 LIST
3 inherits from \setupcombinedlist

```

```

\setupcombinedlist [.1.] [...,2,...]
1 IDENTIFIER
2 level = 1 2 3 4 SECTION current
  inherits from \setuplist

```

These commands themselves generate the commands:

The first command places a title at the top of the list. This title is unnumbered because we do not want the table of contents as an element in the list. In the next section we will discuss lists where the numbered title `\chapter` is used.

alternative	display
a	number – title – pagenumber
b	number – title – spaces – pagenumber
c	number – title – dots – pagenumber
d	number – title – pagenumber (continuous)
e	title (framed)
f	title (left, middle or right aligned)
g	title (centered)

**Table 12.1** Alternatives in combined lists.

Possible alternatives are summed up in **table 12.1**. There are a number of possible variations and we advise you to do some experimenting when you have specific wishes. The three parameters `width`, `margin` and `style` are specified for all levels or for all five levels separately.

```
\setupcombinedlist
  [content]
  [alternative=c,
   aligntitle=no,
   width=2.5em]
```

The parameter `aligntitle` forces entries with no section number (like titles, subjects and alike) to be typeset onto the left margin. Otherwise the title is aligned to the numbered counterparts (like chapter, section and alike). Compare:

```
title
12 chapter
```

with:

```
title
12 chapter
```

You can also pass setup parameters to the `\place...` commands. For example:

```
\placecontent[level=part]
```

In this situation only the parts are used in the displayed list. Instead of an identifier, like `part` or `chapter`, you can also use a number. However this suggests that you have some insight in the level of the separate sections (`part=1`, `chapter=2` etc.)

A table of contents may cross the page boundaries at an undesired location in the list. Page-breaking in tables of content can hardly be automated. Therefore it is possible to adjust the pagebreaking manually. The next example illustrates this.

```
\completecontent[pageboundaries={2.2,8.5,12.3.3}]
```

This kind of ‘fine-tuning’ should be done at the end of the production proces. When the document is revised you have to evaluate the pagebreaking location. ConTeXt produces terminal feedback to remind you when these kind of commands are in effect.

Before a list can be generated the text should be processed twice. When a combined list is not placed after the text is processed twice you probably have asked for a local list.

There are two commands to write something directly to a list. The first command is used to add an element and the second to add a command:

```
\writetolist [.1.] {.2.} {.3.}
1 SECTION IDENTIFIER
2 CONTENT
3 CONTENT
```

```
\writebetweenlist [.1.] {.2.}
1 SECTION IDENTIFIER
2 CONTENT
```

We supply a simple example:

```
\writebetweenlist [section] {\blank}
\writetolist [section] {---} {from here temporary}
\writebetweenlist [section] {\blank}
```

The next command is used in situations where information goes into the title but should not go into the list.

```
\nolist {.*}
* CONTENT
```

Consider for example the following example:

```
\definehead[function] [ownnumber=yes]
\function{A-45}{manager logistics \nolist{(outdated)}}
\placelist[function] [criterium=all]
```

When we call for a list of functions, we will get (...) instead of (outdated). This can be handy for long titles. Keep in mind that each head has a corresponding list.

In an interactive document it is common practice to use more lists than in a paper document. The reason is that the tables of content is also a navigational tool. The user of the interactive document arrives faster at the desired location when many subtables are used, because clicking is the only way to get to that location.

In designing an interactive document you can consider the following setup (probably in a different arrangement):

```
\setuplayout [rightedge=3cm]
\setupinteraction [state=start, menu=on]
\setupinteractionmenu [right] [state=start]
\startinteractionmenu [right]
```

```

\placecontent
  [level=current, criterium=previous,
   alternative=f, align=right,
   interaction=all,
   before=, after=]
\stopinteractionmenu

```

These definitions make sure that a table of contents is typeset at every page (screen) in the right edge. The table displays the sections one level deeper than the actual level. So, for each section we get a list of subsections.

When you produce an interactive document with a table of contents at every level you can make a (standard) button that refers to `[previouscontent]`. This reference is generated automatically.

The list elements that are written to a list are not expanded (that is, commands remain commands). When expansion is needed you can set the parameter `expansion`. Expansion is needed in situations where you write variable data to the list. This is seldom the case.

In a more extensive document there may occur situations where at some levels there are no deeper levels available. Then the table of contents at that level is not available either. In that case you need more information on the list so you can act upon it. You can have access to:

```

\listlength  the number of items
\listwidth   the maximum width of a list element
\listheight  the maximum height of a list element

```

These values are determined by:

```

\determinelistcharacteristics [...1,...] [...2,...]
                                OPTIONAL
1  IDENTIFIER
2  inherits from \setuplist

```

We end this section with an overview of the available alternatives. The first three alternatives are primarily meant for paper documents. The `criterium` parameter determines what lists are typeset, so in the next example, the sections belonging to the current chapter are typeset.

```

\placelist
  [section]
  [criterium=chapter, alternative=a]

```

12.1 Table of contents 215  
12.2 Synonyms 225  
12.3 Sorting 227  
12.4 Marking 228  
12.5 Cross references 231  
12.6 Predefined references 236  
12.7 Registers 237

```

\setuplabeltext[en] [section={ugh } ]
\placelist

```

```

[section]
[ criterium=chapter,alternative=a,
  label=yes,width=2cm]
ugh 12.1 Table of contents 215
ugh 12.2 Synonyms 225
ugh 12.3 Sorting 227
ugh 12.4 Marking 228
ugh 12.5 Cross references 231
ugh 12.6 Predefined references 236
ugh 12.7 Registers 237

\placelist
[section]
[ criterium=chapter,alternative=b]
12.1 Table of contents 215
12.2 Synonyms 225
12.3 Sorting 227
12.4 Marking 228
12.5 Cross references 231
12.6 Predefined references 236
12.7 Registers 237

\placelist
[section]
[ criterium=chapter,alternative=b,
  pagenumber=no,width=fit,distance=1em]
12.1 Table of contents
12.2 Synonyms
12.3 Sorting
12.4 Marking
12.5 Cross references
12.6 Predefined references
12.7 Registers

\placelist
[section]
[ criterium=chapter,alternative=c,
  chapternumber=yes,margin=1.5cm]
12.1 Table of contents ..... 215
12.2 Synonyms ..... 225
12.3 Sorting ..... 227
12.4 Marking ..... 228
12.5 Cross references ..... 231
12.6 Predefined references ..... 236
12.7 Registers ..... 237

\placelist % note the spaces on each side of the colon
[section]

```

```
[criterium=chapter,alternative=c,
chapternumber=yes,separator={ : },width=fit]
```

12.1 Table of contents ..... 215  
 12.2 Synonyms ..... 225  
 12.3 Sorting ..... 227  
 12.4 Marking ..... 228  
 12.5 Cross references ..... 231  
 12.6 Predefined references ..... 236  
 12.7 Registers ..... 237

```
\placelist
[section]
[criterium=chapter,alternative=d]
```

12.1 Table of contents 215 12.2 Synonyms 225 12.3 Sorting 227 12.4 Marking 228  
 12.5 Cross references 231 12.6 Predefined references 236 12.7 Registers 237

```
\placelist
[section]
[criterium=chapter,alternative=d,
distance=2cm]
```

12.1 Table of contents 215 12.2 Synonyms 225 12.3 Sorting 227  
 12.4 Marking 228 12.5 Cross references 231 12.6 Predefined  
 references 236 12.7 Registers 237

```
\placelist
[section]
[criterium=chapter,alternative=d,
left={ (},right={ )}]
```

(12.1) Table of contents 215 (12.2) Synonyms 225 (12.3) Sorting 227 (12.4) Mark-  
 ing 228 (12.5) Cross references 231 (12.6) Predefined references 236 (12.7) Regis-  
 ters 237

```
\placelist
[section]
[criterium=chapter,alternative=e]
```

Table of contents
Synonyms
Sorting
Marking
Cross references
Predefined references
Registers

```
\placelist
```



```
[section]
[criterium=chapter,alternative=e,
width=\textwidth,background=screen]
```

Table of contents
Synonyms
Sorting
Marking
Cross references
Predefined references
Registers

```
\placelist
[section]
[criterium=chapter,alternative=e,
width=4cm]
```

Table of contents
Synonyms
Sorting
Marking
Cross references
Predefined references
Registers

```
\placelist
[section]
[criterium=chapter,alternative=f]
```

Table of contents  
Synonyms  
Sorting  
Marking  
Cross references  
Predefined references  
Registers

```
\placelist
[section]
[criterium=chapter,alternative=g]
```

Table of contents  
Synonyms

[Sorting](#)  
[Marking](#)  
[Cross references](#)  
[Predefined references](#)  
[Registers](#)

Within a list entry, each element can be made interactive. In most cases, in screen documents, the option `all` is the most convenient one. Alternative `e` is rather well suited for screen documents and accepts nearly all parameters of `\framed`. In the next example we use a symbol instead of a sectionnumber. The parameter `depth` applies to this symbol.

```

\placelist
  [section]
  [criterium=chapter,alternative=a,
   pagenumber=no,distance=1em,
   symbol=3,height=1.75ex,depth=.25ex,numbercolor=gray]
12.1   Table of contents
12.2   Synonyms
12.3   Sorting
12.4   Marking
12.5   Cross references
12.6   Predefined references
12.7   Registers

```

When using `color`, don't forget to enable it. In the last example, All alternatives provide the means to hook in commands for the section number, text and `pagenumber`. Real complete freedom is provided by alternative `none`.

```

\placelist
  [section]
  [criterium=chapter,alternative=none,
   numbercommand=\framed,
   textcommand=\framed,pagecommand=\framed]
\unexpanded\def\ListCommand#1#2#3%
  {at page {\bf #3} we discuss {\bf #2}}
\placelist
  [section]
  [criterium=chapter,alternative=none,
   command=\ListCommand]

```

This alternative still provides much of the built-in functionality. Alternative `command` leaves nearly everything to the macro writer.

```

\unexpanded\def\ListCommand#1#2#3%
  {At p~#3 we discuss {\em #2}; }
\placelist
  [section]
  [criterium=chapter,alternative=command,
   command=\ListCommand]

```

At p 215 we discuss *Table of contents*; At p 225 we discuss *Synonyms*; At p 227 we discuss *Sorting*; At p 228 we discuss *Marking*; At p 231 we discuss *Cross references*; At p 236 we discuss *Predefined references*; At p 237 we discuss *Registers*;

As an alternative for none, we can use `horizontal` and `vertical`. Both commands have their spacing tuned for typesetting lists in for instance menus.

## 12.2 Synonyms

In many texts we use abbreviations. An abbreviation has a meaning. The abbreviation and its meaning have to be used and typeset consistently throughout the text. We do not like to see ABC and in the next line an ABC. For this reason it is possible to define a list with the used abbreviations and their meanings. This list can be recalled and placed at the beginning or end of a book for the convenience of the reader.

The use of abbreviations is an example of the synonym mechanism. A new category of synonyms is defined with the command:

```
\definesynonyms [.1.] [.2.] [.3.] [.4.]
                                OPTIONAL
1  SINGULAR NAME
2  PLURAL NAME
3  COMMAND
4  COMMAND
```

The way the list is displayed can be influenced by:

```
\setupsynonyms [.1.] [..., .2., ...]
1  IDENTIFIER
2  textstyle      = normal bold slanted boldslanted type cap small... COMMAND
   synonymstyle  = normal bold slanted boldslanted type cap small... COMMAND
   location      = left right top serried inmargin inleft inright
   width         = DIMENSION
   state         = start stop
   criterium     = all used
   conversion    = yes no
   expansion     = yes no command
   command       = \...#1#2#3
```

Abbreviations are defined with the command:

```
\definesynonyms [abbreviation] [abbreviations] [\infull]
```

We will explain the optional fourth argument later. After this definition a new command `\abbreviation` is available. An example of the use of abbreviations is:

```
\abbreviation {UN} {United Nations}
\abbreviation {UK} {United Kingdom}
\abbreviation {USA} {United States of America}
```

The meaning can be used in the text by:

```
\infull{abbreviation}
```

It is also possible to add commands in the abbreviation. In that case the command must be typed literally between the [ ]:

```
\abbreviation [TEX] {\TeX} {The \TeX\ Typesetting System}
```

Recalling such an abbreviation is done with `\TEX` and the meaning can be fetched with `\infull{TEX}`. In a running text we type `\TEX\` and in front of punctuation `\TEX`.

A synonym is only added to a list when it is used. When you want to display all defined synonyms (used and not used) you have to set the parameter `criterium` at `all`. By setting `state` at `stop` you will prevent list elements to be added to the list even when they are used. This can be a temporary measure:

```
\setupsynonyms [abbreviation] [state=stop]
\abbreviation {NIL} {Not In List}
\setupsynonyms [abbreviation] [state=start]
```

Here we left out the optional first argument, in which case the abbreviation itself becomes the command (`\NIL`). So, in this case the next two definitions are equivalent:

```
\abbreviation [NIL] {NIL} {Not In List}
\abbreviation {NIL} {Not In List}
```

The formal definition of a synonym looks like this:

A list of synonyms is generated by:

The next command generates a list with a title (`\chapter`):

Here we see why we typed the plural form during the definition of the synonym. The plural is also used as the title of the list and the first character is capitalized. The title can be altered with `\setuphead` (see [section 11.3](#)).

Synonyms are only available after they are used. There are instances when the underlying mechanism cannot preload the definitions. When you run into such troubles, you can try to load the meaning of the synonyms with the command:

For instance, the meaning of abbreviations can be loaded with `\loadabbreviations`. In order to succeed, the text has to be processed at least once. Don't use this command if things run smoothly.

Next to the predefined abbreviations we also defined the si-units as synonyms. These must be loaded as a separate module. We will discuss this in [section 18.4](#).

The attentive reader has seen that the command `\definesynonyms` has four arguments. The fourth argument is reserved for a command with which you can recall the synonym. In this way the synonyms are protected from the rest of the `ConTeXt` commands and there will be no conflicts using them.

```
\definesynonyms [Function] [Functions] [\FunctionName] [\FunctionNumber]
```

We could define some functions like:

```
\Function [0001] {0001a} {Lithographer}
\Function [0002] {0002x} {Typesetter}
```

Then we can recall number and name by `\FunctionName` (Lithographer and Typesetter) and `\FunctionNumber` (0001a and 0002x), so:

The `\FunctionName{0001}` has functionnumber `\FunctionNumber{0001}`.

## 12.3 Sorting

Another instance of lists with synonyms is the sorted list. A sorted list is defined with:

```
\definesorting [.1.] [.2.] [.3.]
                        OPTIONAL
1  SINGULAR NAME
2  PLURAL NAME
3  COMMAND
```

The list is set up with:

```
\setupsorting [.1.] [.,.2.,...]
1  IDENTIFIER
2  before      = COMMAND
   after       = COMMAND
   command     = \..#1
   state       = start stop
   criterium   = all used
   style       = normal bold slanted boldslanted type cap small... COMMAND
   expansion   = yes no command
```

After the definition the next command is available. The `<<sort>>` indicates the name for the list you defined.

In accordance to lists there are two other commands available:

The title can be set up with `\setuphead`:

An example of sorting is:

```
\definesorting[city][cities]
\setupsorting[city][criterium=all]

\city {London}
\city {Berlin}
\city {New York}
\city {Paris}
\city {Hasselt}

\placelistofcities[] % temp, mkiv bugfix
```

The definition is typed in the setup area of your file or in an environment file. The cities can be typed anywhere in your text and the list can be recalled anywhere.

Berlin  
 Hasselt  
 London  
 New York  
 Paris

Another instance of the sorting command is that where we must type the literal text of the synonym in order to be able to sort the list. For example if you want a sorted list of commands you should use that instance. The predefined command `\logo` is an example of such a list.

```
\logo [TEX]    {\TeX}
\logo [TABLE] {\TABLE}
```

When you use the alternative with the `[ ]` `ConTeXt` automatically defines a command that is available throughout your document. In the example above we have `\TABLE` and `\TEX` for recalling the logo. For punctuation we use `\TABLE`.

We advise you to use capital letters to prevent interference with existing `ConTeXt` and/or `TeX` commands.

Like in synonyms, a sorted list is only available after an entry is used. When sorting leads to any problems you can load the list yourself:

When we add a command in the third argument during the definition of the sorted list we may recall sorted list with this command. In this way the sorted lists can not interfere with existing commands (see [section 12.2](#)).

## 12.4 Marking

There is a feature to add ‘invisible’ marks to your text that can be used at a later stage. Marks can be used to place chapter or section titles in page headers or footers.

A mark is defined with:

```
\definemarking [.1.] [.2.]
                        OPTIONAL
1 IDENTIFIER
2 IDENTIFIER
```

The second optional argument will be discussed at the end of this section. After the definition texts can be marked by:

```
\marking [.1.] {.2.}
1 IDENTIFIER
2 CONTENT
```

and recalled by:

```
\getmarking [..1.] [..2.]
1 IDENTIFIER
2 first last previous both all current
```

In analogy with the  $\TeX$ -command `\mark`, we keep record of three other marks per mark (see [table 12.2](#)).

marks	location
previous	the last of the previous page
first	the first of the actual page
last	the last of the actual page
both	first — last
all	previous — first — last

**Table 12.2** Recorded marks, completed with some combinations.

When you use a combination of marks (`both` and `all`) marks are separated by an `—`. This separator can be set up with:

```
\setupmarking [..1.] [..2.]
1 IDENTIFIER
2 state      = start stop
  separator = COMMAND
  expansion  = yes no
```

The use of marks can be blocked with the parameter `state`. The parameter `expansion` relates to the expansion mechanism. By default expansion is inactive. This means that a command is stored as a command. This suits most situations and is memory effective. When you use altering commands in the mark you should activate the expansion mechanism.

Marks are initialised by:

```
\resetmarking [..*.]
* IDENTIFIER
```

At the beginning of a chapter the marks of sections, subsections, etc. are reset. If we do not reset those marks would be active upto the next section or subsection.

Assume that a word list is defined as follows (we enforce some pagebreaks on purpose):

```
\definemarking[words]
\marking[words]{first}first word ...
\marking[words]{second}second word ...
```

```

\page
\marking[words]{third}third word ...
\marking[words]{fourth}fourth word ...
\page
\marking[words]{fifth}fifth word ...
\page

```

The results are shown in **table 12.3**.

page	previous	first	last
1	—	first	second
2	second	third	fourth
3	fourth	fifth	fifth

**Table 12.3** The reordering of marks.

While generating the title of chapters and sections `first` is used. The content of the marks can be checked easily by placing the mark in a footer:

```

\setupfootertexts
  [{\getmarking[words] [first]}]
  []

```

or all at once:

```

\setupfootertexts
  [{\getmarking[words] [previous]} --
  {\getmarking[words] [first]} --
  {\getmarking[words] [last]}]
  []

```

A more convenient way of achieving this goal, is the following command. The next method also takes care of empty markings.

```

\setupfootertexts [{\getmarking[words] [all]}] []

```

Commands like `\chapter` generate marks automatically. When the title is too long you can use the command `\nomarking` (see **section 11.2**) or pose limits to the length. In ConT<sub>E</sub>Xt the standard method to place marks in footers is:

```

\setupfootertexts [chapter] [sectionnumber]

```

In case you defined your own title with `\definehead`, the new title inherits the mark from the existing title. For example when we define `\category` as follows:

```

\definehead [category] [subsection]

```

After this command it does not matter whether we recall the mark by `category` or `subsection`. In this way we can also set up the footer:

```

\setupfootertexts [chapter] [category]

```

There are situations where you really want a separate mark mechanism `category`. We could define such a mark with:



```
\definemarking[category]
```

However, we do want to reset marks so we have to have some information on the level at which the mark is active. The complete series of commands would look something like this:

```
\definehead[category][subsection]
\definemarking[category]
\couplemarking[category][subsection]
```

Note that we do this only when we both use category and subsection! After these commands it is possible to say:

```
\setupfootertexts[subsection][category]
```

The command `\couplemarking` is formally defined as:

```
\couplemarking [..] [..]
1 IDENTIFIER
2 IDENTIFIER
```

Its counterpart is:

```
\decouplemarking [..]
* IDENTIFIER
```

It is obvious that you can couple marks any way you want, but it does require some insight in the ways Con<sub>T</sub>EXt works.

## 12.5 Cross references

We can add reference points to our text for cross referencing. For example we can add reference points at chapter titles, section titles, figures and tables. These reference points are typed between `[ ]`. It is even allowed to type a list of reference points separated by a comma. We refer to these reference points with the commands:

```
\in {..} {..} [..]
1 CONTENT
2 CONTENT
3 REFERENCE
```

```
\at {..} {..} [..]
1 CONTENT
2 CONTENT
3 REFERENCE
```

```
\about {1.2.}
```

```
1 CONTENT
2 REFERENCE
```

A cross reference to a page, text (number) or both can be made with:

```
\pagereference [*.*.]
```

```
* REFERENCE
```

```
\textreference [1.2.] {2.1.}
```

```
1 REFERENCE
2 CONTENT
```

```
\reference [1.2.] {2.1.}
```

```
1 REFERENCE
2 CONTENT
```

The command `\in` provides the number of a chapter, section, figure, table, etc. The command `\at` produces a pagenumber and `\about` produces a complete title. In the first two calls, the second argument is optional, and when given, is put after the number or title.

In the example below we refer to sections and pages that possess reference points:

```
In section~\in[cross references], titled \about[cross references], we
describe how a cross reference can be defined. This section starts
at page~\at[cross references] and is part of chapter~\in[references].
```

This becomes:

In section **12.5**, titled “**Cross references**”, we describe how a cross reference can be defined. This section starts at page **231** and is part of chapter **12**.

Here is another variation of the same idea:

```
In \in{section}[cross references], titled \about[cross references], we
describe how a cross reference can be defined. This section starts
at \at{page}[cross references] and is part of \in{chapter}[references].
```

We prefer this way of typing the cross references, especially in interactive documents. The clickable area is in this case not limited to the number, but also includes the preceding word, which is more convenient, especially when the numbering is disabled. In the first example you would have obtained a symbol like [▶](#) that is clickable. This symbol indicates the direction of the cross reference: forward [▶](#) or backward [◀](#).

The direction of a hyperlink can also be summoned by the command `\somewhere`. In this way we find chapters or other text elements **before** and discuss somewhere **later** the descriptions.

```
\somewhere {1.} {2.} [3.]
1 CONTENT
2 CONTENT
3 REFERENCE
```

This command gets two texts. The paragraph will be typed like this:

```
The direction of a hyperlink can also be summoned by the command
\type {\somewhere}. In this way we find chapters or other text elements
\somewhere {before} {after} [text elements] and discuss somewhere
\somewhere {previous} {later} [descriptions] the descriptions.
```

The next command does not need any text but will generate it itself. The generated texts can be defined with `\setuplabeltext` (see [page 193](#)).

```
\atpage [*.]
* REFERENCE
```

At the locations where we make reference points we can also type a complete list of reference points in a comma delimited list:

```
\chapter[first,second,third]{First, second and third}
```

Now you can cross reference to this chapter with `\in[first]`, `\in[second]` or `\in[third]`. In a large document it is difficult to avoid the duplication of labels. Therefore it is advisable to bring some order to your reference point definitions. For example, in this manual we use: `[fig:first]`, `[int:first]`, `[tab:first]` etc. for figures, intermezzos and tables respectively.

ConTEXt can do this for you automatically. Using the command `\setuppreferencing`, you can set for instance `prefix=alfa`, in which case all references will be preceded by the word `alfa`. A more memory efficient approach would be to let ConTEXt generate a prefix itself: `prefix=+`. Prefixing can be stopped with `prefix=-`.

In many cases, changing the prefix in many places in the document is not an example of clearness and beauty. For that reason, ConTEXt is able to set the prefix automatically for each section. When for instance you want a new prefix at the start of each new chapter, you can use the command `\setuphead` to set the parameter `prefix` to `+`. The chapter reference itself is not prefixed, so you can refer to them in a natural way. The references within that chapter are automatically prefixed, and thereby local. When a chapter reference is given, this one is used as prefix, otherwise a number is used. Say that we have defined:

```
\setuphead[chapter] [prefix=+]
\chapter[texworld]{The world of \TeX}
```

In this chapter, we can safely use references, without the danger of clashing with references in other chapters. If we have a figure:

```
\placefigure[here] [fig:worldmap]{A map of the \TeX\ world}{...}
```

In the chapter itself we can refer to this figure with:

```
\in {figure} [fig:worldmap]
```

but from another chapter, we should use:

```
\in {figure} [texworld:fig:worldmap]
```

In general, when ConTeXt tries to resolve a reference in `\in`, `\at` etc., it first looks to see whether it is a local reference (with prefix). If such a reference is not available, ConTeXt will look for a global reference (without prefix). If you have some trouble understanding the mechanism during document production you can visualize the reference with the command `\version[temporary]`.

There are situations where you want to make a global reference in the middle of document. For example when you want to refer to a table of contents or a register. In that case you can type `-:` in the reference point label that *no* prefix is needed: you type `[-:content]`. Especially in interactive documents the prefix-mechanism is of use, since it enables you to have documents with thousands of references, with little danger for clashes. In the previous example, we would have got a global reference by saying:

```
\placefigure[here] [-:fig:worldmap]{A map of the \TeX\ world}{...}
```

The generation of references can be started, stopped and influenced with the command:

```
\setupreferencing [...,*,...]

* state           = start stop
  cd:sectionnumber = yes no
  prefix          = + - TEXT
  interaction      = label TEXT all symbol
  width           = DIMENSION
  left            = COMMAND
  right           = COMMAND
  convertfile     = yes no small big
  separator       = TEXT
  autofile        = yes no page
  global          = yes no
```

In this command the parameter `\<<section>>number` relates to the way the page numbers must be displayed. In interactive documents, we can refer to other documents. In that case, when the parameter `convertfile` is set to `yes`, external filenames are automatically converted to uppercase, which is sometimes needed for cdrom distributions. We will go into details later.

References from another document can be loaded with the command:

```
\userreferences [...,*,...]

* FILE
```

With `left` and `right` you can define what is written around a reference generated by `\about`. Default these are quotes. The parameter `interaction` indicates whether you want references to be displayed like *section 1.2*, *section, 1.2* or as a symbol, like **■**.

What exactly is a cross reference? Earlier we saw that we can define a reference point by typing a logical label at the titles of chapters, sections, figures, etc. Then we can summon the numbers

of chapters, sections, figures, etc. or even complete titles at another location in the document. For some internal purposes the real pagenumber is also available. In the background real pagenumbers play an important role in the reference mechanism.

In the examples below we discuss in detail how the reference point definitions and cross referencing works in ConTEXt.

```
\reference[my reference]{\Look}{at}{this}}
```

The separate elements can be recalled by `\ref`:

```
p the typeset pagenumber \ref[p][my reference]
t the text reference      \ref[t][my reference]
r the real pagenumber    \ref[r][my reference]
s the subtext reference  \ref[s][my reference]
e the extra text reference \ref[e][my reference]
```

In a paper document the reference is static: a number or a text. In an interactive document a reference may carry functionality like hyperlinks. In addition to the commands `\in` and `\at` that we discussed earlier we have the command `\goto`, which allows us to jump. This command does not generate a number or a text because this has no meaning in a paper version.

ConTEXt supports interactivity which is integrated into the reference mechanism. This integration saved us the trouble of programming a complete new set of interactivity commands and the user learns how to cope with these non-paper features in a natural way. In fact there is no fundamental difference in referring to chapter 3, the activation of a JavaScript, referring to another document or the submitting of a completed form.

A direct advantage of this integration is the fact that we are not bound to one reference, but we can define complete lists of references. This next reference is legal:

```
... see \in{section}[flywheel,StartVideo{flywheel 1}] ...
```

As expected this command generates a section number. And in an interactive document you can click on *section nr* and jump to the correct location. At the moment that location is reached a video titled *flywheel 1* is started. In order to reach this kind of comfortable referencing we cannot escape a fully integrated reference mechanism.

Assume that you want to make a cross reference for a general purpose. The name of the reference point is not known yet. In the next example we want to start a video from a general purpose menu:

```
\startinteractionmenu[right]
  \but [previouspage] previous \\
  \but [nextpage]     next     \\
  \but [ShowAVideo]  video    \\
  \but [CloseDocument] stop    \\
\stopinteractionmenu
```

Now we can activate a video at any given moment by defining `ShowAVideo`:

```
\definerreference[ShowAVideo][StartVideo{a real nice video reel}]
```

This reference can be redefined or erased at any moment:

```
\definereference[ShowAVideo] []
```

```
\definereference [..] [...;...]
```

- 1 IDENTIFIER
- 2 REFERENCE

```
\startlinenumbering
```

A special case of referencing is that of referring to linenumbers.

```
\startline [line:a] Different line numbering mechanism can be used interchangeably. \startline [line:b] This leads to confusing input.
```

```
\stopline [line:a] \startline [line:c] Doesn't it? \stopline [line:c]
```

```
\stopline [line:b] A cross reference to a line can result in one line number or a range of lines. \someline[line:d] {A cross reference is specified by \type {\inline} where the word {\em line(s)} is automatically added.} Here we have three cross references: \inline [line:a], \inline [line:b], \inline[line:c] and \inline {as the last reference} [line:d].
```

```
\stoplinenumbering
```

With `\startlines.. \stoplines` you will obtain the range of lines in a cross reference and in case of `\someline` you will get the first line number. In this example we see that we can either let ConT<sub>E</sub>Xt generate a label automatically, or provide our own text between braces.

- 1 A special case of referencing is that of referring to linenumbers. Different line numbering mechanism can be used interchangeably. This leads to confusing input. Doesn't it? A cross reference to a line can result in one line number or a range of lines. **lines 1–2, line 2, line 2**
- 2
- 3
- 4 `\someline`[line:d] A cross reference is specified by `\inline` where the word *line(s)* is automatically added. Here we have three cross references: **lines 1–2, line 2, line 2** and as the last reference
- 5
- 6 ??.

```
\startlines ... \stoplines
```

```
\someline [..]
```

- \* REFERENCE

```
\inline [..]
```

- \* REFERENCE

## 12.6 Predefined references

One can imagine that it can be cumbersome and even dangerous for consistency when one has many references which the same label, like **figure** in `\in{figure}[somefig]`. For example, you

may want to change each **figure** into **Figure** afterwards. The next command can both save time and force consistency:

```
\definereferenceformat [.1.] [.,.2.,...]
1 IDENTIFIER
2 left = TEXT
   right = TEXT
   text = TEXT
   label = IDENTIFIER
```

Given the following definitions:

```
\definereferenceformat [indemo] [left=(,right=),text=demo]
\definereferenceformat [indemos] [left=(,right=),text=demos]
\definereferenceformat [anddemo] [left=(,right=),text=and]
```

we will have three new commands:

```
\indemo [demo:b]
\indemo {some text} [demo:b]
\indemos {some text} [demo:b] \indemo {and more text} [demo:c]
\indemos [demo:b] \anddemo [demo:c]
```

These will show up as:

**demo(BB)**  
**some text(BB)**  
**some text(BB) and more text(CC)**  
**demos(BB) and(CC)**

Instead of using the `text` parameter, one can use `label` and recall a predefined label. The `parameter` command can be used to specify the command to use (`\in` by default).

## 12.7 Registers

A book without a register is not likely to be taken seriously. Therefore we can define and generate one or more registers in Con $\TeX$ t. The index entries are written to a separate file. The Perl script `T $\E$ Xutil` converts this file into a format  $\TeX$  can typeset.

A register is defined with the command:

```
\defineregister [.1.] [.2.]
1 SINGULAR NAME
2 PLURAL NAME
```

There are a number of commands to create register entries and to place registers. One register is available by default:

```
\defineregister[index] [indices]
```

An entry is created by:

An entry has a maximum of three levels. The subentries are separated by a + or &. We illustrate this with an example.

```
\index{car}
\index{car+wheel}
\index{car+engine}
```

When index entries require special typesetting, for example `\s1` and `\kap` we have to take some measures, because these kind of commands are ignored during list generation and sorting. In those cases we can use the extended version. Between [ ] we type the literal ascii-string which will determine the alphabetical order.

For example we have defined logos or abbreviations like UN, UK and USA (see [section 12.2](#)), then an index entry must look like this:

```
\index[UN]{\UN}
\index[UK]{\UK}
\index[USA]{\USA}
```

If we do not do it this way UN, UK and USA will be placed under the \.

A cross reference within a register is created with:

This command has an extended version also with which we can input a ‘pure’ literal ascii string.

A register is generated and placed in your document with:

The next command results in register with title:

The register can be set up with the command `\setupregister`. When you use the command `\version[temporary]` during processing, the entries and their locations will appear in the margin (see section ??).



```

\setupregister [...1.] [...2.] [...,3.,...]
                                OPTIONAL
1  SINGULAR NAME
2  IDENTIFIER
3  n          = NUMBER
    balance   = yes no
    align     = inner outer left right flushleft flushright middle center normal no
              yes
    style     = normal bold slanted boldslanted type cap small... COMMAND
    pagestyle = normal bold slanted boldslanted type cap small... COMMAND
    textstyle = normal bold slanted boldslanted type cap small... COMMAND
    indicator = yes no
    coupling  = yes no
    cd:sectionnumber = yes no
    criterium = SECTION local all
    distance = DIMENSION
    symbol    = 1 2 ... n a ... none
    interaction = pagenumber TEXT
    expansion = yes no command
    referencing = on off
    command   = \...#1
    location  = left middle right
    maxwidth  = DIMENSION
    unknownreference = empty none
    alternative = a b A B
    prefix    = both first none
    compress  = no yes
    deeptextcommand = \...#1

```

By default a complete register is generated. However it is possible to generate partial registers. In that case the parameter `criterium` must be set. With `indicator` we indicate that we want a letter in the alphabetical ordering of the entries. When `referencing=on` is a pagereference is generated for every letter indicator, for example `index:a` or `index:w`. We can use these automatically generated references to refer to the page where for instance the `a`-entries start.

The commands we have mentioned thus far allow us to use a spacious layout in our source file. This means we can type the entries like this:

```

\chapter{Here we are}

\section{Where we are}
\index{here}
\index{where}

Wherever you are ...

```

Between `\chapter` and `\section` we should not type any text because the vertical spacing might be disturbed by the index entries. The empty line after the entry has no consequences. In case there are problems we always have the option to write index entries to the list by the more direct command:

There the `expansion` mechanism can be activated. Default expansion is inactive (see [page 229](#)). In this reference manual there is a register with commands. This register is defined and initialised with:

```
\defineregister [macro] [macros]
\setupregister [macro] [indicator=no]
```

And we can find entries like:

```
\macro{\tex{chapter}}
\macro{\tex{section}}
```

In case we want a register per chapter we can summon the accompanying register with the command below (the command `\tex` will place a `\` in front of a word, but is ignored during sorting):<sup>23</sup>

```
\placeregister [macro]
[criterium=chapter,n=2,before=,after=]
```

and we will obtain:

**TODO: next example was borked**

```
\start % dit moet, anders krijgen we dubbele letter-referenties
\setupregister [macro] [referencing=off,align=]
\getbuffer
\stop % register macro wordt immers ook aan het eind opgeroepen
```

A warning is due. The quality of the content of a register is completely in your hands. A bad selection of index entries leads to an inadequate register that is of no use to the reader.

Every entry shows one or more pagenumbers. With `symbol` we can define some alternatives. With `distance` the horizontal spacing between word and number or symbol is set.

symbol	display
a	a b c d
n	1 2 3 4
1	• • • •
2	■ ■ ■ ■

**Table 12.4** Alternatives for pagenumbers in registers.

Most of the time the layout of a register is rather simple. Some manuals may need some form of differentiating between entries. The definition of several registers may be a solution. However the layout can contribute to a better use of the register:

```
\index {entry}
\index[key] {entry}
\index[form:] {entry}
\index[form::key] {entry}
\index {form::entry}
\index[key] {form::entry}
```

<sup>23</sup> Of course, `\placemacro` and `\completemacros` are also available.

```
\index[form:] {form::entry}
\index[form:key]{form::entry}
```

The first two alternatives are known, but the rest is new and offers some control over the way the entry itself is typeset. The specification between [ ] relates to the pagenumber, the specification in front of the entry relates to the entry itself.

```
\setupregister[index][form][pagestyle=bold,textstyle=slanted]
```

Without any problems we can use different appearances for pagenumber and entry.

```
\setupregister[index][nb][pagestyle=bold]
\setupregister[index][hm][pagestyle=slanted]
```

With for example:

```
\index[nb:]{squareroot}
\index[hm:root]{$\sqrt{2}$}
```

The index entries we have discussed so far indicate the one page where the entry is made, but we can also indicate complete ranges of pages using:

The entries in between, which are of the same order, are not placed in the register.

```
\startregister[endless]{endless}
..... an endless story .....
\stopregister[endless]
```

An extensive index entry, i.e. an entry with a large number of appearances, may have an uncomfortably long list of pagenumbers. Especially in interactive documents this leads to endless back and forth clicking. For this purpose we designed the feature of linked index entries. This means that you can couple identical entries into a list that enables the user to jump from entry to (identical) entry without returning to the register. The coupling mechanism is activated by:

```
\setupregister[index][coupling=yes]
```

In this way a mechanism is activated that places references in the register (◀▶) as well as in the text (◀word▶) depending on the availability of alternatives. A jump from the register will bring you to the first, the middle or the last appearance of the entry.

This mechanism is only working at the first level; subentries are ignored. Clicking on the word itself will bring you back to the register. Because we need the clickable word in the text we use the following command for the index entry itself:

For example `\coupleindex{where}`. The couplings must be loaded with the command:

```
\coupleregister [.*.]
* IDENTIFIER
```

Normally this command is executed automatically when needed, so it's only needed in emergencies.

# 13 Descriptions

## 13.1 Introduction

In a document we can find text elements that bring structure to a document. We have already seen the numbered chapter and section titles, but there are more elements with a recognizable layout. We can think of numbered and non-numbered definitions, itemizations and citations. One of the advantages of T<sub>E</sub>X and therefore of ConT<sub>E</sub>Xt is that coding these elements enables us to guarantee a consistent design in our document, which in turn allows us to concentrate on the content of our writing.

In this chapter we will discuss some of the elements that will bring structure to your text. We advise you to experiment with the commands and their setups. When applied correctly you will notice that layout commands in your text are seldom necessary.

## 13.2 Definitions

Definitions of concepts and/or ideas, that are to be typeset in a distinctive way, can be defined by `\definedescription`.

```
\definedescription [..1..] [..,2..,..]  
                                OPTIONAL  
1 IDENTIFIER  
2 inherits from \setupdescriptions
```

The first argument of this command contains the name. After the definition a new command is available.

An example of the definition is:

```
\definedescription[definition] [location=top,headstyle=bold]  
\definition{icon}
```

```
An icon is a representation of an action or the name of a computer  
program. Icons are frequently used in operating systems on several  
computer platforms. \par
```

Several alternatives are displayed below:

**icon**            An icon is a representation of an action or the name of a computer program. Icons are frequently used in operating systems on several computer platforms.

**icon**            Some users of those computer platforms are using these icons with an almost religious fanaticism. This brings the word icon almost back to its original meaning.

- icon**            An icon should be recognizable for every user but they are designed within a cultural and historical setting. In this fast and ever changing era the recognizability of icons is relative.
- icon**            The 8-bit principle of computers was the reason that non-Latin scriptures were hardly supported by the operating systems. Not long ago this changed.
- icon**            What for some languages looked like a handicap has now become a feature. Thousands of words and concepts are already layed down in characters. These characters therefore can be considered icons.
- icon**            It is to be expected that people with expressive languages overtake us in computer usage because they are used to thinking in concepts.
- icon**            The not-so-young generation remembers the trashcan in the earlier operating systems used to delete files. We in Holland were lucky that the text beneath it said: trashcan. A specific character for the trashcan would have been less sensitive misinterpretation, than the rather American-looking garbage receptacle unknown to many young people.

In the fifth example the definition is placed serried and defined as:

```

\definedescription
  [definition]
  [location=serried,headstyle=bold,width=broad,sample={icon}]
\definition{icon}

What for some languages looked like a handicap has now become a feature.
Thousands of words and concepts are already layed down in characters.
These characters therefore can be considered icons. \par
    
```

In the seventh example we have set hang at broad. This parameter makes only sense when we set the label at the right or left. When we set width at fit or broad instead of a number, the width of the sample is used. With fit, no space is added, with broad, a space of distance is inserted. When no sample is given the with of the defined word is used. The parameter align specifies in what way the text is aligned. When the definition is placed in the margin or typeset in a serried format, the parameter margin is of importance. When set to standard or ja, the marging follows the document setting. Alternatively you can pass a dimension.

Some characteristics of the description can be specified with:

```

\setupdescriptions [...1,...] [...2,...]
                                OPTIONAL
1  IDENTIFIER
2  style           = normal bold slanted boldslanted type cap small... COMMAND
   color          = IDENTIFIER
   width          = fit broad DIMENSION
   distance       = DIMENSION
   sample         = TEXT
   text           = TEXT
   closesymbol    = TEXT
   closecommand   = \..#1
   closesymbol    = TEXT
   titleleft      = TEXT
   titleright     = TEXT
   titledistance  = DIMENSION
   titlestyle     = normal bold slanted boldslanted type cap small... COMMAND
   titlecolor     = IDENTIFIER
   align          = inner outer left right flushleft flushright middle center normal no yes
   margin         = standard yes no DIMENSION
   location       = left right top serried inmargin inleft inright hanging
   headstyle      = normal bold slanted boldslanted type cap small... COMMAND
   headcolor      = IDENTIFIER
   headcommand    = COMMAND
   hang           = fit broad NUMBER
   before         = COMMAND
   inbetween      = COMMAND
   after          = COMMAND
   indentnext     = yes no
   indenting      = never none not no yes always first next small medium big normal odd
                   even DIMENSION
   command        = COMMAND

```

The setup of a description can be changed with the command below. This has the same construct as `\definedescription`:

```
\setupdescriptions[<<name>>][<<setups>>]
```

When a description consists of more than one paragraph, use:

```
\startdefinition{icon}
```

An icon is a painting of Jesus Christ, Mother Mary or other holy figures. These paintings may have a special meaning for some religious people.

For one reason or the other the description icon found its way to the computer world where it leads its own life.

```
\stopdefinition
```

These commands will handle empty lines adequately.

## 13.3 Enumeration

Sometimes you will encounter text elements you would like to number, but they do not fit into the category of figures, tables, etc. Therefore ConTeXt has a numbering mechanism that we

use for numbering text elements like questions, remarks, examples, etc. Such a text element is defined with:

```
\defineenumeration [...,1...] [...,2.] [...,3.,...]
                        OPTIONAL      OPTIONAL
1  IDENTIFIER
2  IDENTIFIER
3  inherits from \setupenumerations
```

After such a definition, the following commands are available:

```
\<<name>>
\sub<<name>>
\subsub<<name>>
\subsubsub<<name>>
```

Where *name* stands for any chosen name.

The numbering can take place at four levels. Conversion is related to the last level. If you specify a text, then this will be a label that precedes every generated number. A number can be set and reset with the command:

```
\set<<enumeration>>{value}
\reset<<enumeration>>
```

You can use the start parameter in the setup command to explicitly state a startnumber. Keep in mind that the enumeration commands increase the number, so to start at 4, one must set the number at 3. Numbers and subnumbers and be explicitly increased with the commands:

```
\next<<enumeration>>
\nextsub<<enumeration>>
\nextsubsub<<enumeration>>
```

The example below illustrates the use of `\enumeration`. After the shown commands the content of a remark can be typed after `\remark`.

```
\defineenumeration
[remark]
[location=top,
text=Remark,
between=\blank,
before=\blank,
after=\blank]
```

Some examples of remarks are:

### Remark 1

After definition the ‘remark’ is available at four levels: `\remark`, `\subremark`, `\subsubremark` and `\subsubsubremark`.

### Remark 2

This command looks much like the command `\definedescription`.

The characteristics of numbering are specified with `\setupenumerations`. Many parameters are like that of the descriptions because numbering is a special case of descriptions.

```
\setupenumerations[<<name>>][<<setups>>]
```

```
\setupenumerations [...,1...] [...,2,...]
                        OPTIONAL
1 IDENTIFIER
2 inherits from \setupdescriptions
```

The characteristics of sub and subsub enumerations can be set too. For example:

```
\setupenumerations[example][headstyle=bold]
\setupenumerations[subexample][headstyle=slanted]
```

Just like the description command there is a `\start-\stop` construction for multi paragraph typesetting.

Sometimes the number is obsolete. For example when we number per chapter and we have only *one* example in a specific chapter. In that case you can indicate with a `[-]` that you want no number to be displayed.

### Remark

Because this remark was recalled by `\remark[-]` there is *no* number. Just as with other commands, we can also pass a reference label between `[ ]`. Also, we can setup the enumeration to stop numbering by setting number to `no`.

The numbering command can be combined usefully with the feature to move textblocks. An example is given in [section 15.4](#). In that example we also demonstrate how to couple one numbered text to another. These couplings only have a meaning in interactive documents where cross references (hyperlinks) can be useful.

The numbering of text elements can appear in different forms. In that case we can let one numbered text element inherit its characteristic from another. We illustrate this in an example.

```
\defineenumeration[first]
\first The numbering \type {first} is unique. We see that one
argument is sufficient. By default label and number are placed at the left
hand side.
\defineenumeration[second][first][location=right]
\second The \type {second} inherits its counters from \type {first},
but is placed at the right hand side. In case of three arguments the first
one is the copy and the second the original.
\defineenumeration[third][location=inright]
\defineenumeration[fourth][location=inright]
\third The numbered elements \type {third} and \type {fourth} are both
unique and are placed in right margin.
\fourth Both are defined in one command but they do have own
```



counters that are in no way coupled.

```
\defineenumeration[fifth][first]
```

```
\defineenumeration[sixth][first]
```

`\fifth` The elements `\type{fifth}` and `\type{sixth}` inherit the properties and counters of `\type{first}`.

`\sixth` Note: inheriting of `\type{second}` is not allowed because `\type{second}` is not an original! `\par`

It may seem very complex but the text below may shed some light on this issue:

#### **first 1**

The numbering `first` is unique. We see that one argument is sufficient. By default label and number are placed at the left hand side.

#### **second 2**

The `second` inherits its counters from `first`, but is placed at the right hand side. In case of three arguments the first one is the copy and the second the original.

#### **third 1**

The numbered elements `third` and `fourth` are both unique and are placed in right margin.

#### **fourth 1**

Both are defined in one command but they do have own counters that are in no way coupled.

#### **fifth 3**

The elements `fifth` and `sixth` inherit the properties and counters of `first`.

#### **sixth 4**

Note: inheriting of `second` is not allowed because `second` is not an original!

It is possible to couple a numbered text element to another. For example we may couple questions and answers. In an interactive document we can click on a question which will result in a jump to the answer. And vice versa. The counters must be synchronised. Be aware of the fact that the counters need some resetting now and then. For example at the beginning of each new chapter. This can be automated by setting the parameter `way` to `bychapter`.

```
\definedescription [question] [coupling=answer]
```

```
\definedescription [answer] [coupling=question]
```

## 13.4 Indenting

Indented itemizations, like dialogues, can be typeset with the command defined by

```
\defineindenting [.1.] [...,.2.,...]  
1 IDENTIFIER  
2 inherits from \setupindentations
```

After this command `\<<name>>`, `\sub<<name>>` and `\subsub<<name>>` are available.

The parameters can be set up with the command:

## 13.5 Numbered labels

There is another numbering mechanism that is used for numbering specific text labels that also enables you to refer to these labels. For example, when you want to refer in your text to a number of transparencies that you use in presentations the next command can be used:

```
\definelabel [.1.] [...,.2.,...]  
1 IDENTIFIER  
2 text      = TEXT  
   location = inmargin intext  
   way      = bytext bycd:section  
   blockway = yes no  
   headstyle = normal bold slanted boldslanted type cap small... COMMAND  
   headcolor = IDENTIFIER  
   before    = COMMAND  
   after     = COMMAND
```

Where the parameter `location` is set at `intext` and `inmargin`. After this definition the following commands are available:

```
\reset<<name>>  
\increment<<name>>  
\next<<name>>  
\current<<name>>[reference]
```

The `[reference]` after `currentname` is optional. After

```
\definelabel[video][text=video,location=inmargin]
```

This defines **video 1**\video, that results in a numbered label *video* in the margin. The command `\currentvideo` would have resulted in the number 0. The label can also be recalled with:

In our case, saying `\video` results in the marginal note concerning a video. The values of `before` and `after` are executed around the label (which only makes sense for in-text labels).

## 13.6 Itemize

Items in an itemization are automatically preceded by symbols or by enumerated numbers or characters. The symbols and the enumeration can be set up (see [table 13.1](#)). The layout can also be influenced. Itemization has a maximum of four levels.

setup	result	setup	result
n	1, 2, 3, 4	1	dot (•)
a	a, b, c, d	2	dash (–)
A	A, B, C, D	3	star (*)
KA	A, B, C, D	4	triangle (▷)
r	i, ii, iii, iv	5	circle (◦)
R	I, II, III, IV	6	big circle (◯)
KR	I, II, III, IV	7	bigger circle (⊝)
m	1, 2, 3, 4	8	square (◻)
g	$\alpha, \beta, \gamma$		
G	A, B, $\Gamma$		

**Table 13.1** Item separator identifications in itemizations.

The command to itemize is:

```
\startitemize[<<setups>>]
\item .....
\item .....
\stopitemize
```

So you can do things like this:

```
Which of these theses are true?

\startitemize[A]
\item The difference between a village and a city is the existence of
      a townhall.
\item The difference between a village and a city is the existence of
      a courthouse.
\stopitemize
```

This will lead to:

- Which of these theses are true?
- A. The difference between a village and a city is the existence of a townhall.
  - B. The difference between a village and a city is the existence of a courthouse.

The symbols used under 1 to 8 can be defined with the command `\definesymbol` (see section ??) and the conversion of the numbering with `\defineconversion` (see section ??). For example:

```
Do the following propositions hold some truth?

\definesymbol[1][\diamond]
\startitemize[1]
\item The city of Amsterdam is built on wooden poles.
\item The city of Rome was built in one day.
```

`\stopitemize`

results in:

Do the following propositions hold some truth?

- ◊ The city of Amsterdam is built on wooden poles.
- ◊ The city of Rome was built in one day.

The keys `n`, `a`, etc. are related to the conversions. This means that all conversions are accepted. Take for example:

α. a `g` for Greek characters

β. a `G` for Greek capitals

When the setup and the `[ ]` are left out then the default symbol is `typeset`.

The indentation and horizontal whitespace is set up locally or globally with:

These arguments may appear in different combinations, like:

```
What proposition is true?
\startitemize[a,packed][stopper=:]
\item 2000 is a leap-year
\item 2001 is a leap-year
\item 2002 is a leap-year
\item 2003 is a leap-year
\stopitemize
```

this will become:

What proposition is true?

- a: 2000 is a leap-year
- b: 2001 is a leap-year
- c: 2002 is a leap-year
- d: 2003 is a leap-year

Both argument are optional. The key `packed` is one of the most commonly used:

```
What proposition is true?
\startitemize[n,packed,inmargin]
\item[ok] 2000 is a leap-year
\item 2001 is a leap-year
\item 2002 is a leap-year
\item 2003 is a leap-year
\stopitemize
```

will result in:

What proposition is true?

1. 2000 is a leap-year
2. 2001 is a leap-year
3. 2002 is a leap-year
4. 2003 is a leap-year

It happens very often that an itemization is preceded by a sentence like “. . . *can be seen below:*”. In that case we add the key `intro` and the introduction sentence will be ‘connected’ to the itemization. After this setup a pagebreak between sentence and itemization is discouraged.

```
\startitemize[n,packed,inmargin,intro]
```

The setup of the itemization commands are presented in **table 13.2**.

setup	result
standard	default setup
packed	no white space between items
joinedup	no white space before and after itemization
paragraph	no white space before an itemization
<<n>>*serried	little horizontal white space after symbol
<<n>>*broad	extra horizontal white space after symbol
inmargin	item separator in margin
atmargin	item separator at the margin
stopper	punctuation after item separator
intro	no pagebreak
columns	two columns

**Table 13.2** Setup of `\setupitemize`.

In the last example we saw a reference point behind the command `\item` for future cross referencing. In this case we could make a cross reference to **answer 1** with the command `\in[ok]`.

The enumeration may be continued by adding the key `continue`, for example:

```
\startitemize[continue]
\item 2005 is a leap-year
\stopitemize
```

This would result in a rather useless addition:

5. 2005 is a leap-year

Another example illustrates that `continue` even works at other levels of itemizations:

- **supported image formats in pdfTeX**
  - a. png
  - b. eps
  - c. pdf
- **non supported image formats in pdfTeX**
  - a. jpg
  - b. gif
  - c. tif

This was typed as (in this document we have set `headstyle=bold`):

```
\startitemize[1,packed]
\head supported image formats in \PDFTEX \par
```

```

\startitemize[a]
\item png \item eps \item pdf
\stopitemize
\head non supported image formats in \PDFTEX \par
\startitemize[continue]
\item jpg \item gif \item tif
\stopitemize
\stopitemize

```

When we use the key `columns` the items are typeset in two columns. The number of columns can be set by the keys `one`, `two` (default), `three` or `four`.

```

\startitemize[n,columns,four]
\item png \item tif \item jpg \item eps \item pdf
\item gif \item pic \item bmp \item bsd \item jpe
\stopitemize

```

We can see that we can type the items at our own preference.

- |        |        |        |         |
|--------|--------|--------|---------|
| 1. png | 4. eps | 7. pic | 10. jpe |
| 2. tif | 5. pdf | 8. bmp |         |
| 3. jpg | 6. gif | 9. bsd |         |

In such a long enumerated list the horizontal space between `itemseparator` and text may be too small. In that case we use the key `broad`, here `2*broad`:

- |          |         |           |        |
|----------|---------|-----------|--------|
| I. png   | IV. eps | VII. pic  | X. jpe |
| II. tif  | V. pdf  | VIII. bmp |        |
| III. jpg | VI. gif | IX. bsd   |        |

The counterpart of `broad` is `serried`. We can also add a factor. Here we used `2*serried`.

- What format is this?

We can abuse the key `broad` for very simple tables. It takes some guessing to reach the right spacing.

This results in a rather strange example:

```

\startitemize[4*broad,packed]
\sym {yes} this is a nice format
\sym {no} this is very ugly
\stopitemize

```

```

yes    this is a nice format
no     this is very ugly

```

The parameter `stopper` expects a character of your own choice. By default it is set at a period. When no level is specified and the `[ ]` are empty the actual level is activated. In section ?? we will discuss this in more detail. Stoppers only apply to ordered (numbered) list.

There are itemizations where a one line head is followed by a text block. In that case you use `\head` instead of `\item`. You can specify the layout of `\head` with the command `\setupitemize`. For example:

```
\setupitemize[each][headstyle=bold]
```

```
\startitemize[n]
```

```
\head A title head in an itemization
```

After the command `\type{\head}` an empty line is mandatory. If you leave that out you will get a very long header.

```
\stopitemize
```

This becomes:

### 1. **A title head in an itemization**

After the command `\head` an empty line is mandatory. If you leave that out you will get a very long header.

If we would have used `\item` the head would have been typeset in a normal font. Furthermore a pagebreak could have been introduced between head and textblock. This is not permitted when you use `\head`.

```
\head [...*...]
      OPTIONAL
* REFERENCE
```

When you want to re-use the last number instead of increasing the next item you can use `\sub`. This feature is used in discussion documents where earlier versions should not be altered too much for reference purposes.

1. This itemization is preceded by `\startitemize[n,packed]`.
- + 1. This item is preceded by `\sub`, the other items by `\item`.
2. The itemization is ended by `\stopitemize`.

The most important commands are:

```
\item [...*...]
      OPTIONAL
* REFERENCE
```

```
\sub [...*...]
      OPTIONAL
* REFERENCE
```

In addition to `\item` there is `\sym`. This command enables us to type an indented text with our own symbol.

```
\sym {.*.}
* CONTENT
```

Another alternative to `\item` is `\mar`. The specified argument is set in the margin (by default a typeletter) and enables us to comment on an item.

```
\mar [...1;...] {..2.}
      OPTIONAL
1 REFERENCE
2 CONTENT
```

Some at first sight rather strange alternatives are:

```
\its [...*...]  
      OPTIONAL
* REFERENCE
```

```
\ran {...}  
* CONTENT
```

These acronyms are placeholders for `items` and `range`. We illustrate most of these commands with an example that stems from a ntg questionnaire:

```
no          yes
o o o o o   I can not do without TEX.
o o o o o   I will use TEX forever.
o o o o o   I expect an alternative to TEX in the next few years.
o o o o o   I use TEX and other packages.
o o o o o   I hardly use TEX.
o o o o o   I am looking for another system.
```

The source is typed below. Look at the setup, it is local.

```
\startitemize[5,packed][width=8em,distance=2em,items=5]
\ran {no\hss yes}

\its I can not do without \TeX.
\its I will use \TeX\ forever.
\its I expect an alternative to \TeX\ in the next few years.
\its I use \TeX\ and other packages.
\its I hardly use \TeX.
\its I am looking for another system.

\stopitemize
```

For the interactive version there is:

```
\but [...*...]  
* REFERENCE
```

This command resembles `\item` but produces an interactive symbol that executes the reference sequence specified.

The example below shows a combination of the mentioned commands. We also see the alternative `\nop`.



- **he got a head ache**

1. of all the items  
he had to learn at school
- ++ 2. because the marginal explanation
- + 2. of the substantial content
- # turned out to be mostly symbolic

This list was typed like this:

```
\startitemize
\head he got a head ache

  \startitemize[n,packed]
  \item of all the items
  \nop he had to learn at school
  \mar{++} because the marginal explanation
  \sub of the substantial content
  \sym{\#} turned out to be mostly symbolic
  \stopitemize
\stopitemize
```

With the no-operation command:

```
\nop
```

During the processing of itemizations the number of items is counted. This is the case with all versions. The next pass this information is used to determine the optimal location to start a new page. So do not despair when at the first parse your itemizations do not look the way you expected. When using  $\TeX$ exec this is all taken care of.

We have two last pieces of advises. When items consist of two or more paragraphs always use `\head` instead of `\item`, especially when the first paragraph consists only one line. The command `\head` takes care of adequate pagebreaking between two paragraphs. Also, always use the key `[intro]` when a one line sentence precedes the itemization. This can be automated by:

```
\setupitemize[each][autointro]
```

## 13.7 Items

A rarely used variant of producing lists is the command `\items`. It is used to produce simple, one level, vertical or horizontal lists. The command in its simplest form looks like this:

```
\items{<<alternative 1>>,<<alternative 2>>, ..., <<alternative N>>}
```

Instead of an alternative you can also type `-`. In that case space is reserved but the item is not set. The layout of such a list is set with the command:

```
\setupitems [...,.*,...]

* location = left right inmargin top bottom
  symbol   = 1 2 ... n a ... TEXT none
  width    = DIMENSION
  n        = NUMBER unknown
  before   = COMMAND
  inbetween = COMMAND
  align    = inner outer left right flushleft flushright middle center normal no yes
  after    = COMMAND
```

The number (n) as well as the width are calculated automatically. When you want to do this yourself you can use the previous command or you pass the options directly. We show some examples.

```
\items[location=left]{png,eps,pdf}
```

- png
- eps
- pdf

```
\items[location=bottom]{png,eps,pdf}
```

- png
- eps
- pdf

```
\items[location=right,width=2cm]{png,eps,pdf}
```

- png
- eps
- pdf

```
\items[location=top,width=6cm,align=left]{png,eps,pdf}
```

- png
- eps
- pdf

```
\items[location=inmargin]{png,eps,pdf}
```

- png
- eps
- pdf

```
\items[location=left,n=2,symbol=5]{jpg,tif}
```

- jpg
- tif

```
\items[symbol=3,n=6,width=\hsize,location=top]{png,eps,pdf,jpg,tif}
```

\*  
\*  
\*  
\*  
\*  
\*

png  
eps  
pdf  
jpg  
tif

The setup just after `\items` have the same effect as those of `\setupitems`:

```
\items [..,.1.,..] {.. .2. ..}
      OPTIONAL
1 inherits from \setupitems
2 CONTENT
```

## 13.8 Citations

The use of quotes depends on the language of a country: ‚Nederlands‘, ‘English’, ‚Deutsch‘, «Français». The consistent use of single and double quotes is supported by a number of commands. A citation in the running text is typeset by:

```
\startquotation [...,*;...] ... \stopquotation
* left middle right
```

This command can be compared with `\startnarrower` and has the same setup parameters. The quotes are placed around the text and they fall outside the textblock:

“In commercial advertising ‘experts’ are quoted. Not too long ago I saw a commercial where a washing powder was recommended by the Dutch Society of Housewives. The remarkable thing was that there was a spokesman and not a spokeswoman. He was introduced as the “director”. It can’t be true that the director of the Society of Housewives is a man. Can it?”

In this example we see two other commands:

```
\startquotation
In commercial advertising \quote {experts} are quoted. Not too
long ago I saw a commercial where a washing powder was recommended
by the Dutch Society of Housewives. The remarkable thing was that
there was a spokesman and not a spokeswoman. He was introduced as
the \quotation {director}. It can't be true that the director of the
Society of Housewives is a man. Can it?
\stopquotation
```

The command `\quotation` produces double quotes and `\quote` single quotes.

```
\quote {.*.}
* CONTENT
```

```
\quotation {...}
```

```
* CONTENT
```

These commands adapt to the language. In Dutch, English, German and French texts other quotes are activated. The body font is set with:

```
\setupquote [...,*...]
```

```
* before = COMMAND
  after  = COMMAND
  style  = normal bold slanted boldslanted type cap small... COMMAND
  color  = IDENTIFIER
  location = TEXT margin
```

The location of a period, inside or outside a citation is somewhat arbitrary. The opinions on this issue differ considerably.

He said: “That is a bike” to which she replied: “Take a hike”.

The quotes are language dependent. Therefore it is of some importance that language switching is done correctly.

```
\quotation {He answered: \fr \quotation {Je ne parle pas fran\c cais}.}
\quotation {He answered: \quotation {\fr Je ne parle pas fran\c cais}.}
\quotation {\fr Il r\'epondait: \quotation{Je ne parle pas fran\c cais}.}
\fr \quotation {Il r\'epondait: \quotation{Je ne parle pas fran\c cais}.}
```

Watch the subtle difference.

“He answered: « Je ne parle pas français ».”

“He answered: “Je ne parle pas français”.”

“Il répondait: « Je ne parle pas français ».”

« Il répondait: « Je ne parle pas français ». »

When we want different quotes, we can change them. This is a language related setting.

```
\setuplanguage
[en]
[leftquote=\upperleftsinglesixquote,
leftquotation=\upperleftdoublesixquote]
```

For consistency, such a setting can best be put into the local system file `cont-sys.tex`, together with other local settings. The following quotes are available:

<code>\lowerleftsinglesixquote</code>		<code>\lowerrightsinglesixquote</code>	
<code>\lowerleftdoublesixquote</code>		<code>\lowerrightdoublesixquote</code>	
<code>\upperleftsinglesixquote</code>		<code>\upperrightsinglesixquote</code>	
<code>\upperleftdoublesixquote</code>		<code>\upperrightdoublesixquote</code>	
<code>\upperleftsinglesixquote</code>		<code>\upperrightsinglesixquote</code>	
<code>\upperleftdoublesixquote</code>		<code>\upperrightdoublesixquote</code>	

# 14 Lines and frames

## 14.1 Introduction

T<sub>E</sub>X has an enormous capacity in handling text, but is very weak at handling graphical information. Lines can be handled adequately as long as you use vertical or horizontal lines. However, you can do graphical work with T<sub>E</sub>X by combining T<sub>E</sub>X and MetaPost.

In this chapter we introduce a number of commands that relate to drawing straight lines in your text. We will see a very sophisticated command `\framed` that can be used in many ways. The parameters of this command are also available in other commands.

## 14.2 Single lines

The simplest way to draw a line in ConT<sub>E</sub>Xt is:

```
\hairline
```

For example:

```
\hairline
In what fairy tale is the wolf cut open and filled with stones? Was it in
{Little Red Riding-hood} or in \quote {The wolf and the seven goats}.
\hairline
```

This will become:

---

In what fairy tale is the wolf cut open and filled with stones? Was it in Little Red Riding-hood or in ‘The wolf and the seven goats’.

---

It does not look good at all. This is caused by the fact that a drawn line gets its own vertical whitespace. In [section 14.4](#) we will show how to alter this.

The effects of the command `\hairline` is best illustrated when we visualize `\strut`’s. We did so by saying `\showstruts` first.

---

A strut is a character with a maximum height and depth, but no width. The text in this example is surrounded by two strutted lines.

---

It is also possible to draw a line over the width of the actual paragraph:

```
\thinrule
```

Or more than one lines by:

```
\thinrules [.*.]
           OPTIONAL
* inherits from \setupthinrules
```

For example:

```
\startitemize
\item question 1 \par \thinrules[n=2]
\item question 2 \par \thinrules[n=2]
\stopitemize
```

If you leave out a `\par` (or empty line), the thin rules come after the text. Compare

- question 1

---



---

- question 2

---



---

with

- question 1

---

- question 2

---

The last example was keyed in as:

```
\startitemize
\item question 1 \thinrules[n=2]
\item question 2 \thinrules[n=2]
\stopitemize
```

The parameters are set with:

```
\setupthinrules [.*.]

* interlinespace = small medium big
  n              = NUMBER
before          = COMMAND
inbetween       = COMMAND
after           = COMMAND
color           = IDENTIFIER
backgroundcolor = IDENTIFIER
height          = DIMENSION max
depth           = DIMENSION max
alternative     = a b c d
rulethickness   = DIMENSION
color           = IDENTIFIER
background      = color
backgroundcolor = IDENTIFIER
```

You can draw thin vertical or horizontal lines with the commands:

```
\v1 [.*.]

* NUMBER
```

```
\h1 [.*.]

* NUMBER
```

The argument is optional. To `\v1 (|)` you may pass a factor that relates to the actual height of a line and to `\h1 (—)` a width that relates to the width of an em. So `\v1[2]` produces a rule with a height of two lines.

## 14.3 Fill in rules

On behalf of questionnaires there is the command:

```
\fillinline [.,.1,...] .2.
              OPTIONAL
1  inherits from \setupfillinlines
2  NOTHING
```

With the accompanying setup command:

```
\setupfillinlines [.,.*,...]

* width      = DIMENSION
margin       = DIMENSION
distance     = DIMENSION
before       = COMMAND
after        = COMMAND
```

The example:

```
\fillinline[n=2,width=2cm]{name} \par
\fillinline[n=2,width=2cm]{address} \par
```

Leads to the next list:

```
name _____
address _____
```

An alternative is wanting the fill-in rule at the end of a paragraph. Then you use the commands:

```
\fillinrules [..., 1, ...] {2} {3}
                OPTIONAL          OPTIONAL
1  inherits from \setupfillinrules
2  CONTENT
3  CONTENT
```

```
\setupfillinrules [..., *, ...]
*  width           = fit broad DIMENSION
   distance        = DIMENSION
   before          = COMMAND
   after           = COMMAND
   style           = normal bold slanted boldslanted type cap small... COMMAND
   n               = NUMBER
   interlinespace = small medium big
   separator       = TEXT
```

The next example will show the implications:

```
\fillinline[width=3cm] Consumers in this shopping mall are frequently
confronted with questionnaires. Our hypothesis is that consumers rather
shop somewhere else than answer these kind of questionnaires. Do you
agree with this?
```

In this example we could of course have offered some alternatives for answering this question. By setting the width to broad, we get

```
Consumers in this shopping mall are frequently confronted with question-
naires. Our hypothesis is that consumers rather shop somewhere else than
answer these kind of questionnaires. Do you agree with this? _____
```

The next set of examples demonstrate how we can influence the layout.

```
\fillinrules[n=2,width=fit]{first}
\fillinrules[n=2,width=broad]{first}
\fillinrules[n=2,width=3cm]{first}
\fillinrules[n=2,width=fit,distance=.5em,separator=:]{first}
\fillinrules[n=2,width=broad,distance=.5em]{first}{last}
```



first \_\_\_\_\_

\_\_\_\_\_

first \_\_\_\_\_

\_\_\_\_\_

first \_\_\_\_\_

\_\_\_\_\_

first: \_\_\_\_\_

\_\_\_\_\_

first \_\_\_\_\_

\_\_\_\_\_

\_\_\_\_\_ last

## 14.4 Text lines

A text line is drawn just before and/or after a paragraph. The upper line may also contain text. The command is:

```
\textrule [.1.] {.2.}
           OPTIONAL OPTIONAL
1 top bottom
2 CONTENT
```

An example:

```
\textrule[top]{Instruments}
Some artists mention the instruments that they use during the production
of their \kap{CD}. In Peter Gabriel's \quote {Digging in the dust} he used
the {\em diembe}, {\em tama} and {\em surdu}. The information on another
song mentions the {\em doudouk}. Other \quote {unknown} instruments are
used on his \kap{cd} \quote {Passion}.
\textrule
```

This will result in:

— **Instruments** —

---

Some artists mention the instruments that they use during the production of their CD. In Peter Gabriel's 'Digging in the dust' he used the *diembe*, *tama* and *surdu*. The information on another song mentions the *doudouk*. Other 'unknown' instruments are used on his CD 'Passion'.

---

The behaviour of textlines is set up with the command below. With the parameter `width` you set the length of the line in front of the text.

```
\setuptextrules [...,*...]
```

- \* `location` = left inmargin
- `before` = COMMAND
- `after` = COMMAND
- `inbetween` = COMMAND
- `width` = DIMENSION
- `distance` = DIMENSION
- `bodyfont` = 5pt ... 12pt small big
- `color` = IDENTIFIER
- `style` = normal bold slanted boldslanted type cap small... COMMAND
- `rulecolor` = IDENTIFIER

These is also a `\start-\stop` alternative. This one also honors the `bodyfont` parameter.

```
\starttextrule [.1.] {.2.} ... \stoptextrule
                OPTIONAL OPTIONAL
1 top bottom
2 CONTENT
```

## 14.5 Underline

Underlining text is not such an ideal method to banner your text. Nevertheless we introduced this feature in ConT<sub>E</sub>Xt. Here is how it works. We use:

```
\underbar {.*.}
```

- \* CONTENT

A disadvantage of this command is that words can no longer be hyphenated. This is a nasty side-effect. But we do support nested underlining.

The spaces in the last paragraph were also underlined. If we do not want that in this paragraph we use:

```
\underbars {...*...}
```

- \* WORD

From the input we can see that the hyphen results from the compound word.

```
\underbar {A disadvantage of this command is that words can \underbar
{no} longer be hyphenated. This is a nasty side||effect. But we do
support \underbar {nested} underlining.}
```

```
\underbars {The spaces in the last paragraph were also underlined. If
we do not want that in this paragraph we use:}
```

The counterpart of these commands are:

```
\overbar {...}
* CONTENT
```

```
\overbars {... ..}
* WORD
```

You may wonder for what reasons we introduced these commands. The reasons are mainly financial:

```
product 1  1.420
product 2  3.182
total      4.602
```

This financial overview is made with:

```
\starttabulate[|l|r|]
\NC product 1 \NC          1.420 \NC \NR
\NC product 2 \NC          3.182 \NC \NR
\NC total    \NC \overbar{4.602} \NC \NR
\stoptabulate
```

The number of parameters in these commands is limited:

```
\setupunderbar [...,.*,...]
* alternative      = a b c
  rulethickness    = DIMENSION
  bottomoffset     = DIMENSION
  topoffset        = DIMENSION
  rulecolor        = IDENTIFIER
```

The alternatives are: alternative a, alternative b, alternative c while another line thickness results in: 1pt line, 2pt line.

A part of the text can be ~~striked~~ with the command:

```
\overstrike {...}
* CONTENT
```

This command supports no nesting. Single words are ~~striked~~ with:

```
\overstrikes {... ..}
* WORD
```

## 14.6 Framing

Texts can be framed with the command: `\framed`. In its most simple form the command looks like this:

```
\framed{A button in an interactive document is a framed text
with specific characteristics.}
```

The becomes:

A button in an interactive document is a framed text with specific characteristics.

The complete definition of this command is:

```
\framed [..., 1, ...] {...}
                OPTIONAL
1  inherits from \setupframed
2  CONTENT
```

You may notice that all arguments are optional.

```
\framed
[height=broad]
{A framed text always needs special attention as far as the spacing
is concerned.}
```

Here is the output of the previous source code:

A framed text always needs special attention as far as the spacing is concerned.

For the height, the values `fit` and `broad` have the same results. So:

```
\hbox
{\framed[height=broad]{Is this the spacing we want?}
\hskip1em
\framed[height=fit] {Or isn't it?}}
```

will give us:

Is this the spacing we want?

Or isn't it?

To obtain a comparable layout between framed and non-framed framing can be set on and off.

yes	no	yes
no	yes	no

The `rulethickness` is set with the command `\setuprulethickness` (see section ??).

A framed text is typeset 'on top of' the baseline. When you want real alignment you can use the command `\inframed`.

```
to \framed{frame} or to be \inframed{framed}
```

or:

to `\frame` or to be `\framed`

It is possible to draw parts of the frame. In that case you have to specify the separate sides of the frame with `leftframe=on` and the alike.

We will now show some alternatives of the command `\framed`. Please notice the influence of `offset`. When no value is given, the offset is determined by the height and depth of the `\strut`, that virtual character with a maximum height and depth with no width. When exact positioning is needed within a frame you set `offset` at `none` (see also [tables 14.1, 14.2 and 14.3](#)). Setting the offset to `none` or `overlay`, will also disable the strut.

<code>width=fit</code>
<code>width=broad</code>
<code>width=8cm,height=1.5em</code>
<code>offset=5pt</code>
<code>offset=0pt</code>
<code>offset=none</code>
<code>offset=overlay</code>
<code>width=8cm,height=1.5em,offset=0pt</code>
<code>width=8cm,height=1.5em,offset=none</code>

The commands `\lbox` (ragged left), `\cbox` (ragged center) and `\rbox` (ragged right) can be combined with `\framed`:

left of the middle	just in the middle	right of the middle
<code>\lbox</code>	<code>\cbox</code>	<code>\rbox</code>

The second text is typed as follows:

```
\framed
 [width=.2\hsize,height=3cm]
 {\cbox to 2.5cm{\hsize2.5cm just\\in the\\middle}}
```

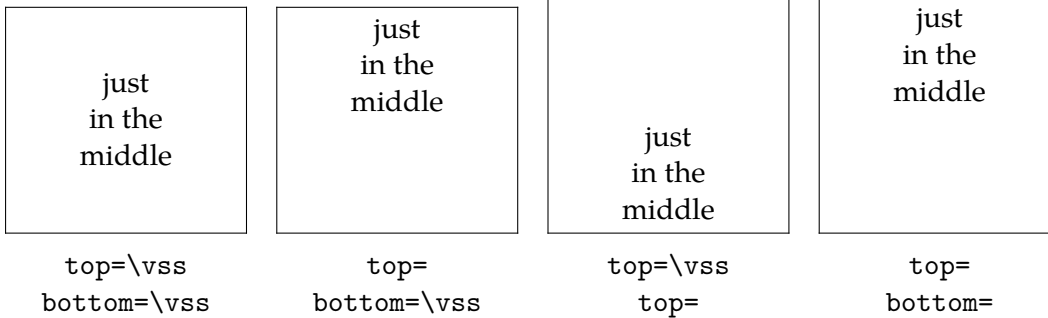
There is a more convenient way to align a text, since we have the parameters `align` and `top` and `bottom`. In the next one shows the influence of `top` and `bottom` (the second case is the default).

```
\setupframed[width=.2\hsize,height=3cm,align=middle]
\startcombination[4]
 {\framed[bottom=\vss,top=\vss]{just\\in the\\middle}}
 {\type{top=\vss}\crlf\type{bottom=\vss}}
 {\framed[bottom=\vss,top=] {just\\in the\\middle}}
 {\type{top=} \crlf\type{bottom=\vss}}
 {\framed[bottom=,top=\vss] {just\\in the\\middle}}
```

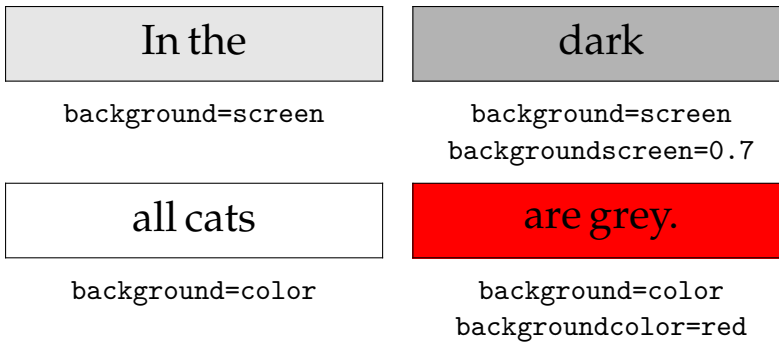
```

{\type{top=\vss}\crlf\type{top=}}
{\framed[bottom=,top=]      {just\\in the\\middle}}
{\type{top=}      \crlf\type{bottom=}}
\stopcombination

```



In the background of a framed text you can place a screen or a coloured background by setting `background` at `color` or `screen`. Don't forget to activate the the colour mechanism by saying (`\setupcolors[state=start]`).



There is also an option to enlarge a frame or the background by setting the `frameoffset` and/or `backgroundoffset`. These do not influence the dimensions. Next to screens and colours you can also use your own kind of backgrounds. This mechanism is described in [section 9.3](#).

The command `\framed` itself can be an argument of `\framed`. We will obtain a framed frame.

```

\framed
[width=3cm,height=3cm]
{\framed[width=2.5cm,height=2.5cm]{hello world}}

```

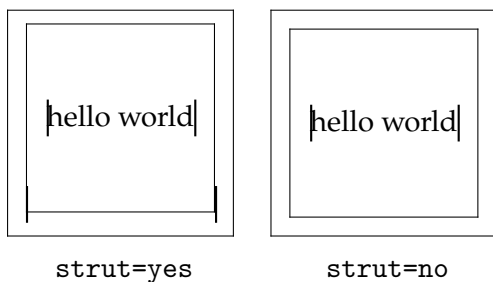
In that case the second frame is somewhat larger than expected. This is caused by the fact that the first framed has a strut. This strut is placed automatically to enable typesetting one framed text next to another. We suppress `\strut` with:

```

\framed
[width=3cm,height=3cm,strut=no]
{\framed[width=2.5cm,height=2.5cm]{hello world}}

```

When both examples are placed close to one another we see the difference:



A `\hairline` is normally draw over the complete width of a text (`\hsize`). Within a frame the line is drawn from the left to the right of framed box.

Consequently the code:

```
\framed[width=8cm,align=middle]
{when you read between the lines \hairline
you may see what effort it takes \hairline
to write a macropackage}
```

produces the following output:

when you read between the lines
you may see what effort it takes
to write a macropackage

When no width is specified only the vertical lines are displayed.

```
their opinions|differ|considerately
```

Which was obtained with:

```
\framed
{their opinions \hairline differ \hairline considerately}
```

The default setup of `\framed` can be changed with the command:

```

\setupframed [.1.] [...,.2.,...]
                    OPTIONAL
1 IDENTIFIER
2 height           = fit broad DIMENSION
width             = fit broad fixed local DIMENSION
autowidth        = yes no force
offset           = none overlay default DIMENSION
location         = depth hanging high lohi low top middle bottom keep
option           = none empty
strut            = yes no global local
align            = inner outer left right flushleft flushright middle center normal no
                  yes
bottom           = COMMAND
top              = COMMAND
frame            = on off none overlay
topframe         = on off
bottomframe      = on off
leftframe        = on off
rightframe       = on off
frameoffset      = DIMENSION
framedepth      = DIMENSION
framecorner      = round rectangular
frameradius     = DIMENSION
framecolor       = IDENTIFIER
background       = screen color none foreground IDENTIFIER
backgroundscreen = NUMBER
backgroundcolor  = IDENTIFIER
backgroundoffset = frame DIMENSION
backgrounddepth  = DIMENSION
backgroundcorner = round rectangular
backgroundradius = DIMENSION
depth            = DIMENSION
corner           = round rectangular
radius           = DIMENSION
empty            = yes no
foregroundcolor  = IDENTIFIER
foregroundstyle  = normal bold slanted boldslanted type cap small... COMMAND
rulethickness    = DIMENSION

```

The command `\framed` is used within many other commands. The combined use of `offset` and `strut` may be very confusing. It really pays off to spend some time playing with these macros and parameters, since you will meet `\framed` in many other commands. Also, the parameters `width` and `height` are very important for the framing texts. For that reason we summarize the consequences of their settings in [table 14.1](#), [14.2](#) and [14.3](#).

		offset			
		.25ex	0pt	none	overlay
strut	yes	⏏		.	
	no	□	.	.	

**Table 14.1** The influence of `strut` and `offset` in `\framed` (1).



		offset			
		.25ex	Opt	none	overlay
strut	yes				
	no				

**Table 14.2** The influence of strut and offset in `\framed` (2).

		width	
		fit	broad ( <code>\hsize=4cm</code> )
height	fit		
	broad		

**Table 14.3** The influence of height and width in `\framed`.

happy  
 birthday  
 to you

At first sight it is not so obvious that `\framed` can determine the width of a paragraph by itself. When we set the parameter `align` the paragraph is first typeset and then framed. This feature valuable when typesetting titlepages. In the example left of this text, linebreaks are forced by `\\`, but this is not mandatory. This example was coded as follows:

```

\placefigure
 [left,none]
 {}
 {\framed[align=middle]{happy\\birthday\\to you}}
    
```

The parameter `offset` needs some special attention. By default it is set at `.25ex`, based on the curently selected font. The next examples will illustrate this:

```

\hbox{\bf \framed{test} \sl \framed{test} \tfa \framed{test}}
\hbox{\framed{\bf test} \framed{\sl test} \framed{\tfa test}}
    
```

The value of `1ex` outside `\framed` determines the offset. This suits our purpose well.

<b>test</b>	<i>test</i>	test
<b>test</b>	<i>test</i>	test

The differences are very subtle. The distance between the framed boxes depends on the actual font size, the dimensions of the frame, the offset, and the strut.

`TeX` can only draw straight lines. Curves are drawn with small line pieces and effects the size of `dvi`-files considerably and will cause long processing times. Curves in `ConTeXt` are implemented by means of PostScript. There are two parameters that affect curves: `corner` and `radius`. When `corner` is set at `round`, round curves are drawn.

Don't be to edgy.

It is also possible to draw circles by setting radius at half the width or height. But do not use this command for drawing, it is meant for framing text. Use MetaPost instead.

Technically speaking the background, the frame and the text are separate components of a framed text. First the background is set, then the text and at the last instance the frame. The curved corner of a frame belongs to the frame and is not influenced by the text. As long as the radius is smaller than the offset no problems will occur.

## 14.7 Framed texts

When you feel the urge to put a frame around or a background behind a paragraph there is the command:

```
\startFRAMEDTEXT [1.] [2.,.,.] ... \stopFRAMEDTEXT
                OPTIONAL  OPTIONAL
1  left right middle none
2  inherits from \setupframedtexts
```

An application may look like this:

```
\startframedtext[left]
From an experiment that was conducted by C. van Noort (1993) it was
shown that the use of intermezzos as an attention enhancer is not very
effective.
\stopframedtext
```

From an experiment that was conducted by C. van  
Noort (1993) it was shown that the use of intermezzos  
as an attention enhancer is not very effective.

This can be set up with:

```
\setupframedtexts [1.] [2.,.,.]
                OPTIONAL
1  IDENTIFIER
2  bodyfont      = 5pt ... 12pt small big
   style        = normal bold slanted boldslanted type cap small... COMMAND
   left        = COMMAND
   right       = COMMAND
   before     = COMMAND
   after      = COMMAND
   inner      = COMMAND
   linecorrection = on off
   depthcorrection = on off
   margin     = standard yes no
   location   = left right middle none
   indenting  = never none not no yes always first next small medium big normal odd
               even DIMENSION
   inherits from \setupframed
```

Framed texts can be combined with the place block mechanism, as can be seen in **intermezzo 14.1**.

```
\placeintermezzo
[here][int:demo 1]
{An example of an intermezzo.}
\startframedtext
  For millions of years mankind lived just like animals. Then
  something happened, which unleashed the power of our imagination.
  We learned to talk.
  \blank
  \rightaligned{--- The Division Bell / Pink Floyd}
\stopframedtext
```

In this case the location of the framed text (between [ ]) is left out.

For millions of years mankind lived just like animals.  
 Then something happened, which unleashed  
 the power of our imagination. We learned to talk.  
 — The Division Bell / Pink Floyd

**Intermezzo 14.1** An example of an intermezzo.

You can also draw a partial frame. The following setup produces **intermezzo 14.2**.

```
\setupframedtexts[frame=off,topframe=on,leftframe=on]
```

Why are the world leaders not moved by songs  
 like *Wozu sind Kriege da?* by Udo Lindenberg. I  
 was, and now I wonder why wars go on and on.

**Intermezzo 14.2** An example of an intermezzo.

You can also use a background. When the background is active it looks better to omit the frame.

An intermezzo like this will draw more attention,  
 but the readability is far from optimal. However,  
 you read can it. This inermezzo was set up with :

```
\setupframedtexts[frame=off,background=screen]
```

**Intermezzo 14.3** An example of an intermezzo with background.

**Intermezzo 14.4** demonstrate how to use some color:

```
\setupframedtexts
[background=screen,
```

```

frame=off,
rightframe=on,
framecolor=darkgreen,
rulethickness=3pt]
\placeintermezzo
[here][int:color]
{An example of an intermezzo with a trick.}
\startframedtext
  The trick is really very simple. But the fun is gone when Tom, Dick
  and Harry would use it too.
\stopframedtext

```

The trick is really very simple. But the fun is gone  
when Tom, Dick and Harry would use it too.

#### Intermezzo 14.4 An example of an intermezzo with a trick.

So, in order to get a partial frame, we have to set the whole frame to off. This is an example of a situation where we can get a bit more readable source when we say:

```

\startbuffer
\startframedtext ... \stopframedtext
\stopbuffer

\placeintermezzo
[here][int:color]
{An example of an intermezzo with a trick.}\getbuffer}

```

You do not want to set up a framed text every time you need it, so there is the following command:

```

\defineframedtext [.1.] [...,2.,...]
                                OPTIONAL
1 IDENTIFIER
2 inherits from \setupframedtexts

```

The definition:

```

\defineframedtext
[musicfragment]
[frame=off, rightframe=on, leftframe=on]

\placeintermezzo
[here] []
{An example of a predefined framed text.}
\startmusicfragment

```

Imagine that there are fragments of music in your interactive document.  
You will not be able to read undisturbed.

```
\stopmusicfragment
```

results in:

Imagine that there are fragments of music in your interactive document. You will not be able to read undisturbed.

**Intermezzo 14.5** An example of a predefined framed text.

## 14.8 Margin rules

To add some sort of flags to paragraphs you can draw vertical lines in the margin. This can be used to indicate that the paragraph was altered since the last version. The commands are:

```
\startmarginrule [...] ... \stopmarginrule
```

\* NUMBER

```
\marginrule [!.] {!.}
```

1 NUMBER

2 CONTENT

The first command is used around paragraphs, the second within a paragraph.

By specifying a level you can suppress a margin rule. This is done by setting the ‘global’ level higher than the ‘local’ level.

```
\setupmarginrules [!.]
```

\* level = NUMBER  
rulethickness = DIMENSION

In the example below we show an application of the use of margin rules.

```
\startmarginrule
```

The sound of a duck is a good demonstration of how different people listen to a sound. Everywhere in Europe the sound is equal. But in every country it is described differently:

kwaak||kwaak (Netherlands), couin||couin (French),  
gick||gack (German), rap||rap (Danish) and mech||mech  
(Spanish). If you speak these words aloud you will notice  
that

```
\startmarginrule[4] in spite of the \stopmarginrule  
consonants the sound is really very well described. And what
```

```
about a cow, does it say boe, mboe or mmmmmm?
\stopmarginrule
```

Or:<sup>24</sup>

The sound of a duck is a good demonstration of how different people listen to a sound. Everywhere in Europe the sound is equal. But in every country it is described differently: kwaak-kwaak (Netherlands), couin-couin (French), gick-gack (German), rap-rap (Danish) and mech-mech (Spanish). If you speak these words aloud you will notice that in spite of the consonants the sound is really very well described. And what about a cow, does it say boe, mboe or mmmmmm?

If we would have set `\setupmarginrules[level=2]` we would have obtained a margin rule in the middle of the paragraph. In this example we also see that the thickness of the line is adapted to the level. You can undo this feature with `\setupmarginrules[thickness=1]`.

## 14.9 Black rules

Little black boxes —we call them black rules— (■) can be drawn by `\blackrule`:

```
\blackrule [.,.*.,..]
           OPTIONAL
* inherits from \setupblackrules
```

When the setup is left out, the default setup is used.

```
\setupblackrules [.,.*.,..]
* width      = DIMENSION max
  height     = DIMENSION max
  depth      = DIMENSION max
  alternative = a b
  distance   = DIMENSION
  n          = NUMBER
  color      = IDENTIFIER
```

The height, depth and width of a black rule are in accordance with the usual height, depth and width of  $\TeX$ . When we use the key `max` instead of a real value the dimensions of  $\TeX$ 's `\strutbox` are used. When we set all three dimensions to `max` we get: ■.

- Black rules may have different purposes. You can use them as identifiers of sections or subsections. This paragraph is tagged by a black rule with default dimensions: `\inleft{\blackrule}`.

A series of black rules can be typeset by `\blackrules`:

```
\blackrules [.,.*.,..]
* inherits from \setupblackrules
```

<sup>24</sup> G.C. Molewijk, Spellingsverandering van zin naar onzin (1992).

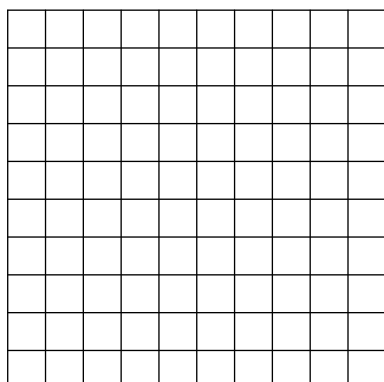
- ■ ■ There are two versions. Version a sets  $n$  black rules next to each other with an equal specified width. Version b divides the specified width over the number of rules. This paragraph is tagged with `\inleft{\blackrules}`. The setup after `\blackrule` and `\blackrules` are optional.

## 14.10 Grids

We can make squared paper (a sort of grid) with the command:

```
\grid [...,.*,...]
* x      = NUMBER
  y      = NUMBER
  nx     = NUMBER
  ny     = NUMBER
  dx     = NUMBER
  dy     = NUMBER
  xstep  = NUMBER
  ystep  = NUMBER
  offset = yes no
  factor = NUMBER
  scale  = NUMBER
  unit   = cm pt em mm ex es in
  location = left middle
```

The default setup produces:



It is used in the background when defining interactive areas in a figure. And for the sake of completeness it is described in this chapter.

# 15 Blocks

## 15.1 Introduction

A block in ConT<sub>E</sub>Xt is defined as typographical unit that needs specific handling. We distinguish the following block types:

- **floats**

Examples of floats are figures, tables, graphics, intermezzos etc. The locations of these blocks are determined by T<sub>E</sub>X and depends on the available space on a page.

- **textblocks**

Examples of textblocks are questions and answers in a studybook, summaries, definitions or derivatives of formulas. The location of these kind of blocks in the final document cannot be determined beforehand. And the information may be used repeatedly in several settings.

- **opposite blocks**

Opposite (or spread) blocks are typeset on the left-hand page when a single sided output is generated. The layout of the right-hand side page is influenced by the blocks on the left.

- **margin blocks**

Margin blocks are more extensive than single margin words. Text and figures can be placed in the margin with this feature.

There are a number of commands that support the use of these block types. These are discussed in this chapter. Furthermore we will discuss other forms of text manipulation. Formulas can also be seen as blocks. Since formulas are covered in a separate chapter we don't go into details here.

This chapter is typeset with the option `\version [temporary]`. This does not refer to the content but to the typesetting. With this option, design information is placed in the margin.

## 15.2 Floats

Floats are composed of very specific commands. For example a table in ConT<sub>E</sub>Xt is typeset using a shell around T<sub>A</sub>B<sub>L</sub>E. Drawings and graphics are made with external packages, as T<sub>E</sub>X is only capable of reserving space for graphics.

Most floats are numbered and may have a caption. A float is defined with the command:

```
\definefloat [.1.] [.2.]  
1 SINGULAR NAME  
2 PLURAL NAME
```

In ConT<sub>E</sub>Xt, figures, graphics, tables, and intermezzos are predefined with:

```
\definefloat [figure] [figures]
```



```

\definefloat [table]      [tables]
\definefloat [graphic]    [graphics]
\definefloat [intermezzo] [intermezzos]

```

As a result of these definitions you can always use `\placefigure`, `\placetable`, `\placegraphic` and `\placeintermezzo`. Of course, you can define your own floats with `\definefloat`. You place your newly defined floats with the command:

When a float cannot be placed at a specific location on a page, `ConTeXt` will search for the most optimal alternative. `ConTeXt` provides a number of placement options for floats. These are listed in **table 15.1**.

preference	result
left	left of text
right	right of text
here	preferably here
top	at top of page
bottom	at bottom of page
inleft	in left margin
inright	in right margin
inmargin	in the margin (left or right)
margin	in the margin (margin float)
page	on a new (empty) page
opposite	on the left page
always	precedence over stored floats
force	per se here

**Table 15.1** Preferences for float placement.

The commands can be used without the left and right brackets. For example:

```
\place...{<<caption>>}{<<content>>}
```

When the caption is left out, the float number is generated anyway. When the number is not needed you type `none`, like in:

```
\placefigure[none]{}{.....}
```

It is mandatory to end this command by an empty line or a `\par`. You don't have to embed a table in braces, since the `\start` and `\stop` commands have them built in:

```

\placetable
[here][tab:example]
{A very simple example of a table.}
\starttable[|c|c|]
\HL
\VL this \VL is      \VL\FR
\VL a   \VL table   \VL\LR
\HL
\stoptable

```

this	is
a	table

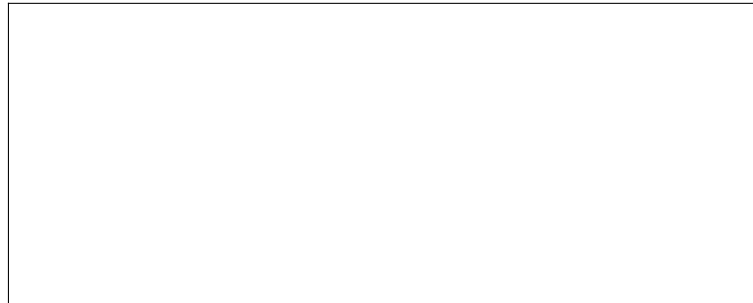
**Table 15.2** A very simple example of a table.

The vertical whitespace for a float can be reserved with:

This command can be used without the left and right bracket. An example of a reservation is:

```
\reservefigure
[height=4cm,width=10cm,frame=on] [here] [fig:reservation]
{An example of a reservation.}
```

Which results in **figure 15.1**.



**Figure 15.1** An example of a reservation.

When the content of a float is not yet available, you can type `\empty...` instead of `\place...`. In this way you can also reserve vertical whitespace. When no option is added, so `{}` is typed, the default empty float is used. However, whether the figure or table is available is not that important. You can always type:

```
\placefigure{This is a figure caption.}{}
```

As a first argument you can specify a key `left` or `right` that will cause `ConTeXt` to let the text flow around the float. The second optional parameter can be a cross reference, to be used later, like `\at{page} [fig:schematic process]`.

```
\placefigure[here] [fig:demo]{This a figure caption.}{}
```

As we will later see, you can also use the next command:

Preferences are `left`, `right` or `middle`. Furthermore you can specify `offset` in case the text should align with the float. Both setups can be combined: `[left,offset]`.

A list of used floats is generated with the command:

For example, the command `\placelistoffigures` would typeset a list of figures. The list follows the numbering convention that is set with the command `\setupnumbering`, which was discussed at page ??.

The next command generates a list of floats on a separate page.

Pagebreaks that occur at unwanted locations can be enforced in the same way that is done with a table of contents (see [section 12.1](#)):

```
\completelistof<<floats>>[pageboundaries={8.2,20.4}]
```

As with tables of content the default local lists are generated. Recalling a list within a chapter produces a list for that specific chapter. So, if you want a list of all figures, you need to specify criterium as all.

15.1	An example of a reservation.	280
15.2		283
15.3		284
15.4		284
15.5		285
15.6	An example of <code>\startcombination...</code>	285
15.7	The spacing within combinations (1).	286
15.8	The spacing within combinations (2).	287
15.9	Combinations without captions.	287

The previous list was produced by saying:

```
\placelistoffigures[criterium=chapter]
```

The characteristics of a specific class of floats are specified with the command:

```
\setupfloat [.1.] [.,.2.,..]
1 IDENTIFIER
2 height          = DIMENSION
  width           = DIMENSION
  maxheight       = DIMENSION
  maxwidth        = DIMENSION
  minwidth        = DIMENSION
  default         = IDENTIFIER
  pageboundaries = LIST
  leftmargindistance = DIMENSION
  rightmargindistance = DIMENSION
  location        = left middle right
  inherits from  \setupframed
```

The (predefined) floats can also be set up with the more meaningful commands `\setupfigures`, `\setuptables` etc.

The height and width relate to the vertical whitespace that should be reserved for an empty float. All settings of `\framed` can be used, so when frame is set to on, we get a framed float.

The next two commands relate to *all* floats. The first command is used for setting the layout including the caption:

```

\setupfloats [...,*...]
```

* location	=	left right middle
width	=	fit DIMENSION
before	=	COMMAND
after	=	COMMAND
margin	=	DIMENSION
spacebefore	=	small medium big none
spaceafter	=	small medium big none
sidespacebefore	=	small medium big none
sidespaceafter	=	small medium big none
indentnext	=	yes no
ntop	=	NUMBER
nbottom	=	NUMBER
nlines	=	NUMBER
default	=	IDENTIFIER
tolerance	=	0 1 2
leftmargindistance	=	DIMENSION
rightmargindistance	=	DIMENSION
sidealign	=	normal line
numbering	=	yes nocheck

*inherits from \setupframed*

The second command is used for setting the enumerated captions of figures, tables, intermezzos, etc.

```

\setupcaptions [...,*...]
```

* location	=	top bottom none high low middle left middle right lefthanging righthanging leftmargin rightmargin innermargin outermargin
width	=	fit broad max DIMENSION
minwidth	=	fit DIMENSION
headstyle	=	normal bold slanted boldslanted type cap small... COMMAND
style	=	normal bold slanted boldslanted type cap small... COMMAND
number	=	yes no none
inbetween	=	COMMAND
align	=	inner outer left right flushleft flushright middle center normal no yes
conversion	=	numbers characters Characters romannumerals Romannumerals
way	=	bytext bycd:section
separator	=	TEXT
stopper	=	TEXT
command	=	COMMAND
distance	=	DIMENSION

You can also set up captions for a specific class of floats, like figures. The first argument of the next command is the name of that class of floats.

```

\setupcaption [1.] [...,2...]
```

- 1 IDENTIFIER
- 2 *inherits from \setupcaptions*

The commands assigned to `before`, `after` are executed before and after placing the float. The parameter `inbetween` is executed between the float and the caption. All three normally have a `\blank` command assigned.

The parameter `style` is used for numbering (**Figure x.y**) and `width` for the width of the caption label. The parameter `margin` specifies the margin space around a float when it is surrounded by text. The float macros optimize the width of the caption (at top or bottom) related to the width of the figure or table.

**Figure 15.2**

```
\setupcaptions[location=high]
\setupfloats[location=left]
```

With the three variables `ntop`, `nbottom` and `nlines` the float storage mechanism can be influenced. The first two variables specify the maximum number of floats that are saved per page at the top or the bottom of a page.

By default these variables have the values 2 and 0. Assume that ten figures, tables and/or other floats are stored, then by default two floats will be placed at each new page (if possible). For example, at a forced pagebreak or at the beginning of a new chapter, all stored floats are placed.

The parameter `nlines` has the default value 4. This means that never less than four lines will be typeset on the page where the floats are placed.

We continue with a few examples of floats (figures) placed next to the running text. This looks like:

```
\placefigure[right,none]{}{}
... here is where the text starts ....
```

For illustrating the mechanism we do need some text. Therefore the examples are used to explain some issues on the float mechanism.

Floats are placed automatically. The order of appearance follows the order you have keyed in the source. This means that larger floats are placed somewhere else in your document. When `\version[temporary]` is set, you can get information on the float mechanism. By consulting that information you get some insight into the process.

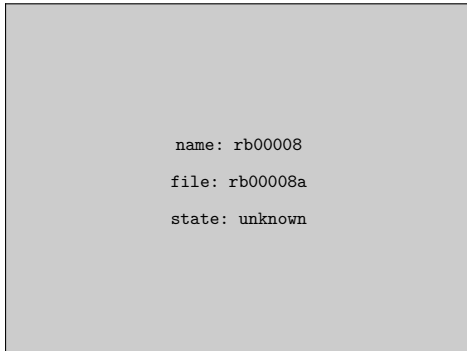
Floats can be surrounded by text. The float at the right was set with `\placefigureright[right,none]{}{...}`.

The float mechanism works automatically. Should it occur that pages are left blank as a result of poor float placement, you will need to make some adaptations manually. You can downsize your figure or table or alter your text. It is also a good practice to define your float some paragraphs up in your source. However, all of this should be done at the final production stage.

With the key `force` you can force a float to be placed at that exact location. Tables or figures that are preceded

```
name: rb00006
file: rb00006a
state: unknown
```

by text like: ‘as we can see in the figure below’ may be defined with this option.



In manuals and study books we encounter many illustrations. It is almost unavoidable to manually adapt these for optimal display. However, the float commands in ConT<sub>E</sub>Xt are optimized in such a way that you can produce books with hundreds of floats effortlessly. The worst case is that some floats are stored and placed at the end of the chapter. But this can be influenced with the command `\startpostponing`. Postponing is done with the keys `always` which can be combined with the location, like `[left,always]` or `[here,always]`. Because the order of the floats is changed several parses are necessary for the document. These processes can be traced

via messages on the terminal.

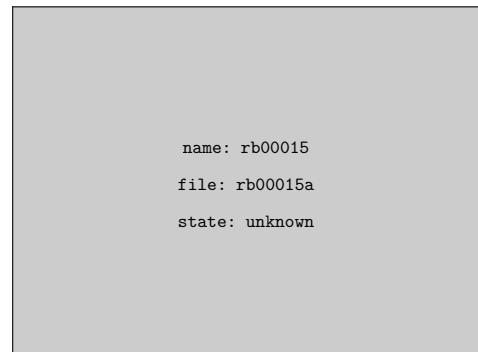
This brings us to a figure that is placed at the left side of a page. The side float mechanism is inspired and based on a mechanism of D. Comenetz. In the background three mechanisms are active. A mechanism to typeset a figure on top, inbetween, or under existing text. There is a mechanism to place figures on the right or left of a page. And there is a third mechanism to typeset text next to a figure.

We see an example of the last mechanism. The text is enclosed by the commands:

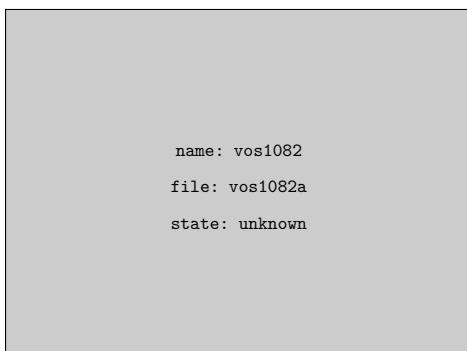
```

\startfiguretext
  [right]{}{\externalfigure[rb00015]}
....
\stopfiguretext

```



**Figure 15.3**



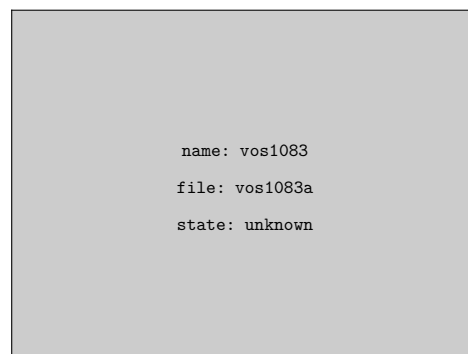
**Figure 15.4**

It is obvious that we can also place the figure at the left. With `\start...text` we can add the key `offset`. Here we used `[left,offset]`.

When the text is longer than expected, then it will *not* flow around the float. By default the floats are handled in the same order they are typed in the source file. This means that the stored figures are placed first. If this is not desired you can type the key `always`. The actual float will get priority.

There are more options. In this case the setup `[right,middle]` is given. In the same way we place text high and low.

When the key `long` is used the rest of the text is filled out with empty lines, as here.



**Figure 15.5**

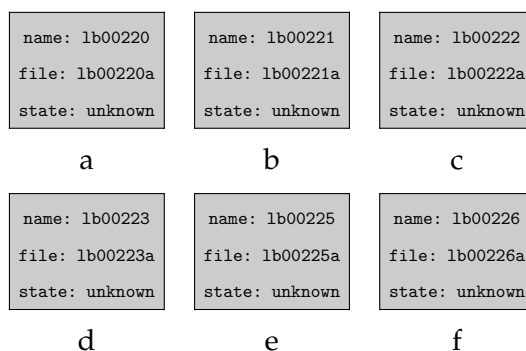
When several figures are set under each other, making them the same width makes for a nice presentation on the page. This looks better.

## 15.3 Combining figures

For reasons of convenience we now discuss a command that enables us to combine floats into one.

```
\startcombination [.*.] ... \stopcombination
* N*M
```

This command is used to place the figures under or next to each other.



**Figure 15.6** An example of `\startcombination....`

The example in **figure 15.6** is typeset with the commands:

```
\placefigure
[here]
[fig:combinations]
{An example of \tex{startcombination...}.}
{\startcombination[3*2]
  {\externalfigure[lb00220]} {a} {\externalfigure[lb00221]} {b}
  {\externalfigure[lb00222]} {c} {\externalfigure[lb00223]} {d}}
```

```
{\externalfigure[lb00225]} {e} {\externalfigure[lb00226]} {f}
\stopcombination}
```

Between [ ] we specify how the combination is combined: [3\*2], [4\*2] etc. When we put two floats next to each other it is sufficient to specify [2], [4] etc.

The floats, mostly figures or tables, are specified within two arguments. The first content is placed over the second content: {xxx}{yyy}. The second argument can be empty: {xxx}{}. The general construct looks like this:

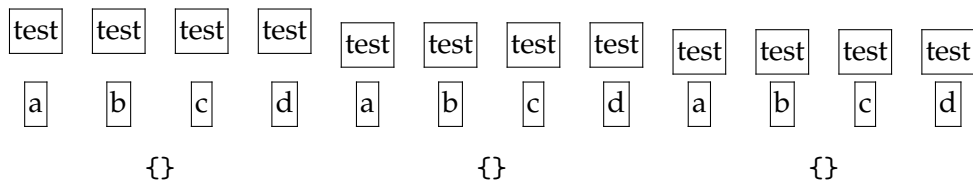
```
\startcombination[n*m]
  {text 1} {subcaption 1}
  {text 2} {subcaption 2}
  .....
\stopcombination
```

The combination can be set up with:

```
\setupcombinations [...,*.,...]
* before      = COMMAND
  inbetween   = COMMAND
  after       = COMMAND
  distance    = DIMENSION
  height      = DIMENSION fit
  width       = DIMENSION fit
  location    = top middle bottom left right
  align       = inner outer left right flushleft flushright middle center normal no yes
  style       = normal bold slanted boldslanted type cap small... COMMAND
  color       = IDENTIFIER
```

With distance you specify the horizontal distance between objects. The parameters align relates to the subcaption. By default the text and objects are centered. The width is the total width of the combination.

The three parameters before, after and between are processed in the order of specification in [figure 15.8](#). There are some examples in [figure 15.7](#). We can see in [figure 15.9](#) that when the title in the second argument is empty the spacing adapted.

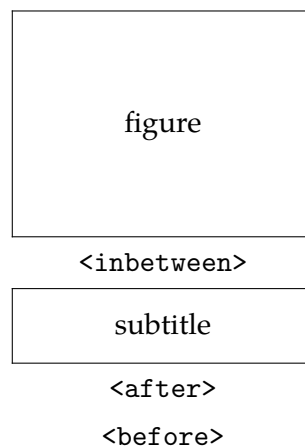


**Figure 15.7** The spacing within combinations (1).

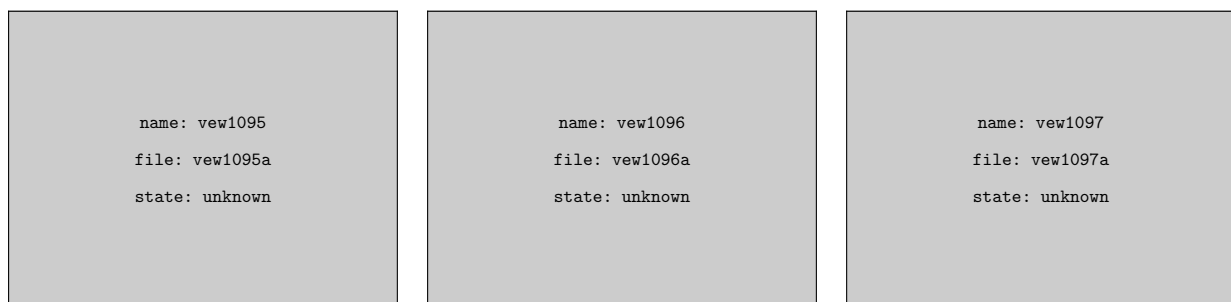
Using combinations require figures that have the correct dimensions or equal proportions. Unequally proportioned figures are hard to combine.

The simple version of combining is this:





**Figure 15.8** The spacing within combinations (2).



**Figure 15.9** Combinations without captions.

```
\placesidebyside {..} {..}
```

```
1 CONTENT
2 CONTENT
```

```
\placeontopofeachother {..} {..}
```

```
1 CONTENT
2 CONTENT
```

We use them in this way:

```
\placesidebyside      {\framed{\Logo[ADE]}} {\framed{\Logo[BUR]}}
\placeontopofeachother {\framed{\Logo[ADE]}} {\framed{\Logo[BUR]}}
```

## 15.4 Text blocks

For practical reasons we sometimes want to key text somewhere in the source that should be typeset at a completely different location in the typeset document. It is also useful to be able

to use text more than once. The commands described below are among the eldest of ConTEXT. They were one of the reasons to start writing the macropackage.

You can mark text (a text block) and hide or move that block, but first you have to define it using:

```
\defineblock [...]  
* IDENTIFIER
```

If necessary you can pass several names in a comma-delimited list. After the definition you can mark text with:

```
\begin<<name>>  
.....  
.....  
\end<<name>>
```

Between the begin- and end command you can use any command you want.

The commands below tell ConTEXT to hide or recall text blocks:

```
\hideblocks [...1;...] [...2;...]  
                                OPTIONAL  
1 IDENTIFIER  
2 IDENTIFIER
```

```
\useblocks [...1;...] [...2;...]  
                                OPTIONAL  
1 IDENTIFIER  
2 IDENTIFIER
```

```
\keepblocks [...1;...] [...2;...]  
                                OPTIONAL  
1 IDENTIFIER  
2 all IDENTIFIER
```

```
\selectblocks [...1;...] [...2;...] [...3.]  
                                OPTIONAL  OPTIONAL  
1 IDENTIFIER  
2 IDENTIFIER  
3 criterium = all SECTION
```

```
\processblocks [...1;...] [...2;...]
                                OPTIONAL
1  IDENTIFIER
2  IDENTIFIER
```

These commands make it necessary to process your text at least twice. You can also recall more than one text block, for example [question, answer].

In hidden and re-used blocks commands for numbering can be used. Assume that you use questions and answers in your document. By defining the questions as text blocks you can:

1. at that location typeset the questions
2. only use the questions and use the answers in a separate chapter
3. use questions and answers in a separate chapter
4. hide the answers
5. etc.

When we choose **option 2** the definitions look like this:

```
\defineenumeration[question] [location=top, text=Question]
\defineenumeration[answer] [location=top, text=Answer]
\defineblock[question, answer]
\hideblocks[answer]
```

A question and answer in the source look like this:

```
\beginquestion
\question Why do we use blocks? \par
\endquestion

\beginanswer
\answer I really don't know. \par
\endanswer
```

The questions are only used in the text. Questions and answers are both numbered. Answers are summoned by:

```
\chapter{Answers}
\reset[answer]
\useblocks[answer]
```

The command `\reset...` is necessary for resetting the numbering mechanism. When the answers are used in the same chapter you can use the following commands:

```
\section{Answers}
\reset[answer]
\selectblocks[answer] [criterion=chapter]
```

You must be aware of the fact that it may be necessary to (temporarily) disable the reference mechanism also:

```
\setupreferencing[state=stop]
```

A more complex situation is this one. Assume that you have several mathematical formulas in your document, and that you want to recapitulate the more complex ones in a separate chapter at the end of the document. You have to specify an [-] at formulas you do not want repeated.

```
\defineblock[formula]
\beginformula
\placeformula[newton 1]$$$f=ma$$$
\endformula
```

This can also be written as:

```
\beginformula[-]
\placeformula[newton 2]$$$m=f/a$$$
\endformula
```

When you re-use the formulas only the first one is typeset. The rest of the formulas is processed, so the numbering will not falter.

The opposite is also possible. By default all local specifications are undone automatically. This means for example that the enumeration of text elements like questions, answers, definitions, etc. can be temporarily stopped. When numbering should continue you specify: [+].<sup>25</sup>

Among the parameters of the number mechanism we (in some cases) use the parameter `blockwise`. This parameter relates to numbering within a set of blocks, for example per chapter.

You may have a document in which the questions and answers are collected in text blocks. The questions are typeset in the document and the answers in a separate appendix. Answers and question are put at the same location in the source file. When we number the questions and answers per chapter, then question 4.12 is the 12th question in chapter 4. The correct number is used in the appendix. In this example answer 4.12 refers to question 4.12 and not the appendix number.

In case we do want the appendix number to be the prefix of the blocknumber we set the parameter `blockwise` at no. This is a rather complex situation and will seldom occur.

Earlier we discussed the initializing and resetting of counters. For reasons of uniformity we also have:

```
\reset [...,*...]
* IDENTIFIER
```

In future there will be an option to sort blocks. For that purpose a second set of optional [ ] in `\selectblocks` is available. The first argument is used for ‘tags’. These tags are logical labels that enable us to recall the blocks.

```
\beginremark[important]
This is an important message!
\endremark
```

Now we can recall the ‘important’ messages by:

<sup>25</sup> When you use enumerations within text blocks you can best use the `\start . . . stop` alternative (see page ??).

```
\useblocks[remark][important]
```

or:

```
\selectblocks[remark][important][criterium=chapter]
```

Here, `criterium` has the same function as in lists (like tables of content) and registers: it limits the search. In this case, only the blocks belonging to this chapter will be typeset.

More than one ‘tag’ is allowed in a comma delimited list. Text blocks may be nested:

```
\beginpractice
\beginquestion
\question Is that clear? \par
\endquestion
\beginanswer
\answer Yes it is! \par
\endanswer
\endpractice
```

In this case we use three blocks. Such blocks are stored in a file. This file must be available when the blocks are re-used. This means that the document must be processed at least twice. When blocks are summoned at the end of your source file only one processing step is sufficient but then you have to type the command `nomoreblocks` before the blocks are recalled:

```
\nomoreblocks
```

After this command no blocks should be specified. In the future commands will be developed for local adaptations of the layout of text blocks. Until that moment the following command is all there is:

```
\setupblock [...1,...] [...2,...]
1 IDENTIFIER
2 before = COMMAND
  after  = COMMAND
  inner  = COMMAND
  style  = normal bold slanted boldslanted type cap small... COMMAND
  file   = FILE
```

A block is being processed within a group, in other words: within `{}`. The setup of `before` and `after` are used outside this group, and the setup of `inner` is used within the group. For example if we mark a re-used text block in the margin we can use the following setup:

```
\defineblock[exampletext]
\beginexampletext
If you wonder why this mechanism was implemented consider an educational
document with hundreds of \quote {nice to know} and \quote {need to know}
text blocks at several ability levels.
\endexampletext
```

```
\setupblock[exampletext] [inner=\margintitle{reused}]
\useblocks[exampletext]
```

The first text is set without an indicator in the margin and the second is. If we would have used `before` instead of `inner` some grouping problems had occurred.

**reused** If you wonder why this mechanism was implemented consider an educational document with hundreds of ‘nice to know’ and ‘need to know’ text blocks at several ability levels.

You can import text blocks from other source files. For example if you want to use text blocks from a manual for students in a manual for teachers, you can specify:

```
\setupblock
[homework]
[file=student,
before=\startbackground,
after=\stopbackground]
```

In that case the blocks are imported from the file `student.tex`. In this example these blocks are typeset differently, with a background. When the student material is specified with:

```
\beginhomework[meeting 1]
.....
\endhomework
```

we can summon the blocks in the teacher’s manual with:

```
\useblocks[homework] [meeting 1]
```

In extensive documents it will take some time to generate these products. But this mechanism guarantees we use the same homework descriptions in the students and teachers manual. Furthermore it saves typing and prevents errors.

Questions and answers are good examples of text blocks that can be hidden and moved. The example below will illustrate this. Because commands like `\question` have a paragraph as an argument the `\par`’s and/or empty lines are essential.

In the setup we see that questions and answers are coupled. A coupling has a meaning in interactive documents.

```
\defineblock[question]
\defineblock[answer]

\defineenumeration[question] [location=inmargin,coupling=answer]
\defineenumeration[answer] [location=top,coupling=question]

\hideblocks[answer]

\starttext

\chapter{\CONTEXT}

\CONTEXT\ is a macropackage that is based on \TEX. \TEX\ is a typesetting
system and a programm. This unique combination is used extensively in
\CONTEXT.

\beginquestion
\startquestion
```

To date, the fact that `\TEX\` is a programming language enables `\CONTEXT\` to do text manipulations that cannot be done with any other known package.

Can you mention one or two features of `\CONTEXT\` that are based on the fact that `\TEX\` is programming language?

```

\stopquestion
\endquestion

\beginanswer
  \answer You can think of features like floating blocks and text block
  manipulation. \par
\endanswer

\beginquestion
  \question Are there any limitations in \TEX ? \par
\endquestion

\beginanswer
  \answer Yes and no. The implementation of \TEXEXEC\ is done in
  \PERL\ rather than in \TEX.
\endanswer

\TEX\ is a very powerful tool, but much of its power is yet to be
unleashed. \CONTEXT\ tries to make a contribution with its user||friendly
interface and its support of many features, like interactivity.

\chapter{Answers}
\useblocks[question,answer]

\stoptext

```

With `\processblocks` blocks are processed but not typeset. Assume that we have two types of questions:

```
\defineblock[easyquestion,hardquestion]
```

When both types of questions use the same numbering mechanism, we can recall the hard questions in their original order by hiding the easy questions.

```

\processblocks[easyquestion]
\useblocks[hardquestion]

```

## 15.5 Opposite blocks

In future versions of ConTeXt there will be support of spread based typesetting. For the moment the only command available is:

```
\startopposite ... \stopopposite
```

Everything between start and stop is typeset at the left page in such a way that it is aligned with the last paragraph that is typeset on the right page.

```
\setupoppositeplacing [.*.]
* state      = start stop
  before    = COMMAND
  inbetween = COMMAND
  after     = COMMAND
```

## 15.6 Margin blocks

Within limits you can place text and figures in the margin. In this case the margin is handled as a separate (very narrow) page next to the actual page.

```
\startmarginblock ... \stopmarginblock
```

This can be setup with:

```
\setupmarginblocks [.,.*.,..]
* location  = inmargin left middle right
  style     = normal bold slanted boldslanted type cap small... COMMAND
  width     = DIMENSION
  align     = inner outer left right flushleft flushright middle center normal no yes
  top       = COMMAND
  inbetween = COMMAND
  bottom    = COMMAND
  left      = COMMAND
  right     = COMMAND
  before    = COMMAND
  after     = COMMAND
```

*The mechanism to place blocks is still under construction.*

## 15.7 Hiding text

It is possible to hide text (skip during processing) by:

```
\starthiding ... \stophiding
```

## 15.8 Postponing text

Text elements can be postponed (stored) and placed at the next empty page. This option is needed in case ConTeXt encounters large figures or tables. The postponed textelement is placed at the next page generated by T<sub>E</sub>X or forced by the user with a manual page break.



```
\startpostponing ... \stoppostponing
```

Several text blocks can be postponed and stored. This process can be followed on screen during document generation.

```
\startpostponing
\placefigure{A rather large figure.}{...}
\stoppostponing
```

When a lot of text elements are postponed or when a figure uses a complete page we advise you to add `\page` after the postponing. Otherwise there is the possibility that a blank page is inserted. This is caused by the fact that the postponing mechanism and the float mechanism are completely independent.

```
\startpostponing
\placefigure{A very large figure.}{...}
\page
\stoppostponing
```

## 15.9 Buffers

Buffers simplify the moving of text blocks. They are stored in a file with the extension `tmp` and are used to bring readability to your source. Furthermore they can be recalled at any location without retyping them.

```
\startBUFFER [...] ... \stopBUFFER
      OPTIONAL
* IDENTIFIER
```

```
\startbuffer [...] ... \stopbuffer
      OPTIONAL
* IDENTIFIER
```

```
\getbuffer [...]
      OPTIONAL
* IDENTIFIER
```

```
\typebuffer [...]
* IDENTIFIER
```

The example below shows the use of these commands.

```
\startbuffer
We see that a {\em buffer} works something like a {\em block}.\par
```

```

\stopbuffer
\startlines
{\tf \getbuffer}
{\bf \getbuffer}
{\sl \getbuffer}
\stoptlines

```

This results in:

We see that a *buffer* works something like a *block*.

**We see that a *buffer* works something like a *block*.**

*We see that a buffer works something like a block.*

The name is optional. A name makes sense only when several buffers are used. Most of the time the default buffer will do. Most examples in this manual are typed in buffers.

In chapter ?? we can see that the last argument of a `\place<<block>>` can be rather extensive. A buffer can be useful when such large tables are defined.

```

\startbuffer
... <</rm many lines>> ...
\stopbuffer

\placetable{A table.}{\getbuffer}

```

The buffer is set up with:

```

\setupbuffer [.1.] [.,.,2.,...]
                OPTIONAL
1  IDENTIFIER
2  paragraph = NUMBER
   before   = COMMAND
   after    = COMMAND

```

The first argument is optional and relates to the buffers you defined yourself. You can define your own buffer with:

```

\definebuffer [.*.]
*  IDENTIFIER

```

Be aware of possible conflicting names and use capital letters. After this command `/get<<buffer>>` and `/type<<buffer>>` are available where `<<buffer>>` is the name of the buffer.

# 16 Figures

## 16.1 Introduction

In this chapter we discuss how to place figures in your document. In [section 15.2](#) we introduced the float mechanism. In this chapter the placement of figures is discussed. Most of the time these figures are created with external applications.

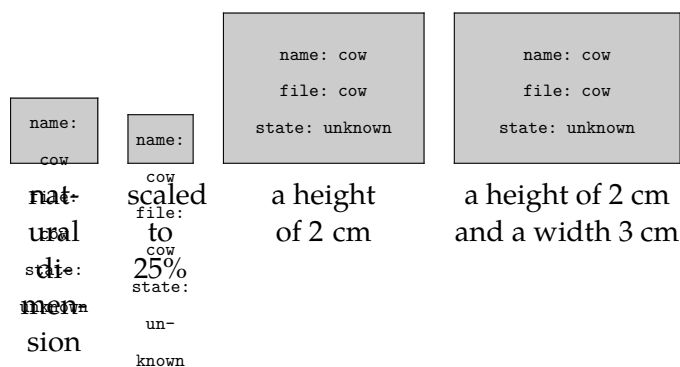
After processing a document the result is a dvi file or, when we use pdfTeX, a pdf file. The dvi document reserves space for the figure, but the figure itself will be put in the document during postprocessing of the dvi file. pdfTeX needs no postprocessing and the external figures are automatically included in the pdf file.

External figures may have different formats like the vector formats eps and pdf, or the bitmap formats tif, png and jpg. Note that we refer to figures but we could also refer to movies. ConTeXt has special mechanisms to handle figures generated by MetaPost. We have to take care that fonts used in MetaPost figures are recognized by pdfTeX. Finally, we'll see that MetaPost code can be embedded in ConTeXt documents.

Normally, users need not concern themselves with the internal mechanisms used by ConTeXt for figure processing. However some insight may be useful.

## 16.2 Defining figures

A figure is designed within specific dimensions. These dimensions may or may not be known by the document designer.



If the original dimensions are unknown, then scaling the figure to 40% can have some astonishing results. A figure with width and height of 1 cm becomes almost invisible, but a figure width and height of 50 cm will still be very large when scaled to 40% of its original size. A better strategy is to perform the scaling based on the current bodyfont size, the width of text on the page, or to set absolute dimensions, such as 3 cm by 2 cm.

To give TeX the opportunity to scale the figure adequately the file format must be known. [Table 16.1](#) shows the file formats supported by dvips, dvipsone, and pdfTeX respectively. pdfTeX has the unique capability to determine the file format during processing.

When we use dvi, TeX can determine the dimensions of an eps illustration by searching for the so called *bounding box*. However, with other formats such as tif, the user is responsible for the determination of the figure dimensions.

	eps	pdf	MetaPost	tif	png	jpg	mov
dvips	+	-	+	-	-	-	+
dvipsone	+	-	+	+	-	-	+
pdfTeX	-	+	+	+	+	+	+

**Table 16.1** Some examples of supported file formats.

Now, let us assume that the dimensions of a figure are found. When we want to place the same figure many times, it would be obvious to search for these dimensions only once. That is exactly what happens. When a figure is found it is stored as an object. Such an object is re-used in TeX and in pdf but not in dvi, since reuse of information is not supported by the dvi format. To compensate for this shortcoming, when producing dvi output, ConTeXt will internally reuse figures, and put duplicates in the dvi file.

```
\useexternalfigure[some logo][logo][width=3cm]
\placeexternalfigure{first logo}{\externalfigure[some logo]}
\placeexternalfigure{second logo}{\externalfigure[some logo]}
```

So, when the second logo is placed, the information collected while placing the first one is used. In pdfTeX even the content is reused, if requested, at a different scale.

A number of characteristics of external figures are specified by:

```
\setupexternalfigures [.*.]
* scale      = NUMBER
  yscale     = NUMBER
  yscale     = NUMBER
  factor     = max fit broad
  wfactor    = NUMBER max broad fit
  hfactor    = NUMBER max broad fit
  width      = DIMENSION
  height     = DIMENSION
  frame      = on off
  preset     = yes no
  display    = FILE
  preview    = yes no
  repeat     = yes no
  object     = yes no
  type       = eps mps pdf tif png jpg mov cd:tex
  method     = eps mps pdf tif png jpg mov cd:tex
  option     = frame empty test
  frames     = on off
  ymax       = NUMBER
  xmax       = NUMBER
  directory  = TEXT
  location   = local global default none
  maxwidth   = DIMENSION
  maxheight  = DIMENSION
  conversion = TEXT
  prefix     = TEXT
```

This command affect all figures that follow. Three options are available: `frame`, `empty` and `test`. With `empty` no figures are placed, but the necessary space is reserved. This can save you some time when ‘testing’ a document.<sup>26</sup> Furthermore the figure characteristics are printed in that space. When `frame` is set at on a frame is generated around the figure. The option `test` relates to testing hyperactive areas in figures.

When ConT<sub>E</sub>Xt is not able to determine the dimensions of an external figure directly, it will fall back on a simple database that can be generated by the Perl script T<sub>E</sub>Xutil. You can generate such a database by calling this script as follows:

```
texutil --figures *.tif
```

This will generate the `texutil.tuf` file, which contains the dimensions of the `tif` figures found. You need to repeat this procedure every time you change a graphic. Therefore, it can be more convenient to let ConT<sub>E</sub>Xt communicate with T<sub>E</sub>Xutil directly. You can enable that by adding `\runutilityfiletrue` to your local `cont-sys.tex` file.

When a figure itself is not available but it is listed in the `texutil.tuf` file then ConT<sub>E</sub>Xt presumes that the figure does exist. This means that the graphics do not need to be physically present on the system.

Although ConT<sub>E</sub>Xt very hard tries to locate a figure, it may fail due to missing or invalid figure, or invalid path specifications (more on that later). The actual search depends on the setup of directories and the formats supported. In most cases, it it best not to specify a suffix or type.

```
\externalfigure[hownice]
\externalfigure[hownice.pdf]
\externalfigure[hownice][type=pdf]
```

In the first case, ConT<sub>E</sub>Xt will use the graphic that has the highest quality, while in both other cases, a `pdf` graphic will be used. In most cases, the next four calls are equivalent, given that `hownice` is available in MetaPost output format with a suffix `eps` or `mps`:

```
\externalfigure[hownice]
\externalfigure[hownice][type=eps]
\externalfigure[hownice][type=eps,method=mps]
\externalfigure[hownice][type=mps]
```

In most cases, a MetaPost graphic will have a number as suffix, so the next call makes the most sense:

```
\externalfigure[hownice.1]
```

Let us summarize the process. Depending on the formats supported by the currently selected driver (`dvi`, `pdfTEX`, etc.), ConT<sub>E</sub>Xt tries to locate the graphics file, starting with the best quality. When found, ConT<sub>E</sub>Xt first tries to determine the dimensions itself. If this is impossible, ConT<sub>E</sub>Xt will look into `texutil.tuf`. The graphic as well as the file `texutil.tuf` are searched on the current directory (`local`) and/or dedicated graphics directories (`global`), as defined by `\setupexternalfigures`. By default the `location` is set at `{local,global}`, so both the `local` and `global` directories are searched. You can set up several directories for your search by providing a comma-delimited list:

```
\setupexternalfigures[directory={c:/fig/eps,c:/fig/pdf}]
```

<sup>26</sup> A similar effect can be obtained with the `--fast` switch in T<sub>E</sub>Xexec.

Even if your operating uses a `\` as separator, you should use a `/`. The figure directory may be system dependent and is either set in the file `cont-sys`, in the document preamble, or in a style.

An external figure is summoned by the command `\externalfigure`. The cow is recalled with:

```
\externalfigure[cow][width=2cm]
```

For reasons of maintenance it is better to specify all figures at the top of your source file or in a separate file. The figure definition is done with:

```
\useexternalfigure [.1.] [.2.] [.3.] [..., .4., ...]
                    OPTIONAL   OPTIONAL   OPTIONAL
1  IDENTIFIER
2  FILE
3  IDENTIFIER
4  inherits from \setupexternalfigures
```

Valid definitions are:

```
\useexternalfigure [cow]
\useexternalfigure [some cow] [cow230]
\useexternalfigure [big cow] [cow230] [width=4cm]
```

In the first definition, the figure can be recalled as `cow` and the graphics file is also `cow`. In the second and third definition, the symbolic name is `some cow`, while the filename is `cow230`. The last example also specifies the dimensions.

The `scale` is given in percentages. A scale of 800 (80%) reduces the figure, while a value of 1200 (120%) enlarges the figure. Instead of using percentages you can also scale with a factor that is related to the actual bodyfont. A setup of `hfactor=20` supplies a figure with 2 times the height of the bodyfont size, and `hfactor=120` will result in a width of 12 times the bodyfont size (so 144pt when using a 12pt bodyfont size). When we want to place two figures next to one another we can set the height of both figures with `hfactor` at the same value:

```
\useexternalfigure[alfa][file0001][hfactor=50]
\useexternalfigure[beta][file0002][hfactor=50]

\placefigure
{Two figures close to one another.}
\startcombination[2]
  {\externalfigure[alfa]} {this is alfa}
  {\externalfigure[beta]} {this is beta}
\stopcombination
```

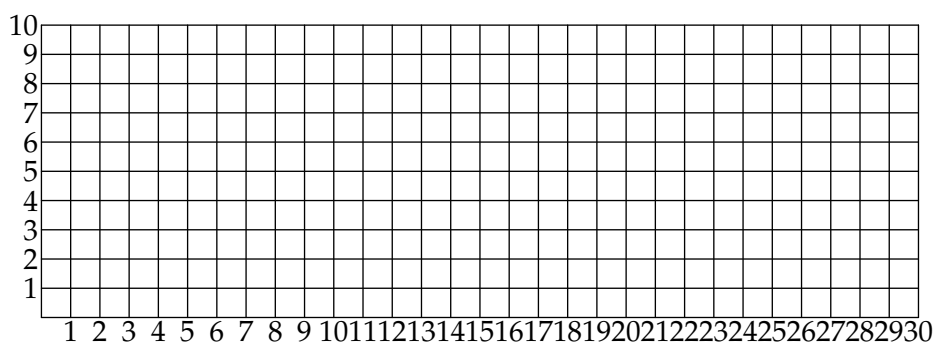
We can see that `\externalfigure` is capable of using a predefined figure. The typographical consistency of a figure may be enhanced by consistently scaling the figures. Also, figures can inherit characteristics of previously defined figures:

```
\useexternalfigure [alfa] [file0001] [hfactor=50]
\useexternalfigure [beta] [file0002] [alfa]
\useexternalfigure [gamma] [file0003] [alfa]
\useexternalfigure [delta] [file0004] [alfa]
```

Normalizing a figure's width must also be advised when figures are placed with `\startfiguretext` below one another.

In most cases you will encounter isolated figures of which you want to specify width or height. In that case there is no relation with the bodyfont except when the units `em` or `ex` are used.

In **figure 16.1** we drew a pattern with squares of a factor 10.



**Figure 16.1** Factors at the actual bodyfont.

## 16.3 Recalling figures

A figure is recalled with the command:




```
\externalfigure [.1.] [..2..,..3..]
                    OPTIONAL
1 FILE
2 inherits from \setupexternalfigures
```

For reasons of downward compatibility a figure can also be recalled with a command that equals the figure name. In the example below we also could have used `\acow` and `\bcow`, unless they are already defined. Using `\externalfigure` instead is more safe, since it has its own namespace.




```
\useexternalfigure[acow][cow][factor=10]
\useexternalfigure[bcow][cow][factor=20]
\placefigure[left,none]{\externalfigure[bcow]}
```

The `\hbox{\externalfigure[acow]}` is a very well known animal in the Dutch landscape. But for environmental reasons the `\hbox{\externalfigure[acow]}` is slowly disappearing. In the near future the cow will fulfil a marginal `\inleft{\externalfigure[bcow]}` role in the Netherlands. That is the reason why we would like to write the word `\hbox{\externalfigure[bcow]}` in big print.

Here we see how `acow` and `bcow` are reused. This code will result in:

The  is a very well known animal in the Dutch landscape. But for environmental reasons the  is slowly disappearing. In the near future the cow will fulfil a marginal role in the Netherlands. That is the reason why we would like to write the word  in big print.

Normalized figures adapt to the actual bodyfont at least when the font is set with `\setupbodyfont` or `\switchtobodyfont`. When a text is used for different media and is generated with different font sizes the use of normalized figures is a good practice. The example above looks different in a smaller fontsize.

The  is a very well known animal in the Dutch landscape. But for environmental reasons the  is slowly disappearing. In the near future the cow will fulfil a marginal role in the Netherlands. That is the reason why we would like to write the word  in big print.

## 16.4 Automatic scaling

In cases where you want the figure displayed as big as possible you can set the parameter `factor` at `max`, `fit` or `broad`. In most situations the value `broad` will suffice, because then the caption still fits on a page.

setup	result
<code>max</code>	maximum width or height
<code>fit</code>	remaining width or height
<code>broad</code>	more remaining width or height
<code>number</code>	scaling factor (times 10)

**Table 16.2** Normalized figures.

So, one can use `max` to scale a figure to the full page, or `fit` to let it take up all the remaining space. With `broad` some space is reserved for a caption.

Sometimes it is not clear whether the height or the width of a figure determines the optimal display. In that case you can set `factor` at `max`, so that the maximal dimensions are determined automatically.

```
\externalfigure[cow][factor=max]
```

This figure of a cow will scale to the width or height of the text, whichever fits best. Even combinations of settings are possible:

```
\externalfigure[cow][factor=max,height=.4\textheight]
```

In this case, the cow will scale to either the width of the text or 40% of the height of the text, depending on what fits best.

As already said, the figures and their characteristics are stored in the file `textutil.tuf` and can be displayed with:



```
\showexternalfigures [...,.*,..]
                        OPTIONAL
* alternative = a b c
```

There are two alternatives: a, b and c. The first alternative leaves room for figure corrections and annotations, the second alternative is somewhat more efficient and places more figures on one page. The third alternative puts each figure on its own page. Of course one needs to provide the file `texutil.tuf` by saying:

```
texutil --figures *.mps *.jpg *.png
```

Even more straightforward is running `TeXexec`, for instance:

```
texexec --figures=c --pdf *.mps *.jpg *.png
```

This will give you a pdf file of the figures requested, with one figure per page.

## 16.5 T<sub>E</sub>X-figures

Figures can be scaled. This mechanism can also be used for other text elements. These elements are then stored in separate files or in a buffer. The next example shows how a table is scaled to the pagewidth. The result is typeset in [figure 16.2](#).

```
\startbuffer[table]
\starttable[|||||]
\HL
\VL \bf factor          \VL \bf width          \VL
\VL \bf height         \VL \bf width and height \VL
\VL \bf nothing        \VL \SR
\HL
\VL \type{max}         \VL automatically   \VL
\VL automatically     \VL automatically   \VL
\VL width or height   \VL \FR
\VL \type{fit}         \VL automatically   \VL
\VL automatically     \VL automatically   \VL
\VL width or height   \VL \MR
\VL \type{broad}       \VL automatically   \VL
\VL automatically     \VL automatically   \VL
\VL width or height   \VL \MR
\VL \type{...}         \VL width           \VL
\VL height             \VL isometric       \VL
\VL original dimensions \VL \LR
\HL
\stoptable
\stopbuffer
\placefigure
[here][fig:table]
{An example of a \TEX\ figure.}
```

```

{\externalfigure[table.buffer][width=\textwidth]}
\placefigure
{An example of a \TEX\ figure.}
{\externalfigure[table][width=.5\textwidth, type=buffer]}

```

factor	width	height	width and height	nothing
max	automatically	automatically	automatically	width or height
fit	automatically	automatically	automatically	width or height
broad	automatically	automatically	automatically	width or height
...	width	height	isometric	original dimensions

**Figure 16.2** An example of a T<sub>E</sub>X figure.

factor	width	height	width and height	nothing
max	automatically	automatically	automatically	width or height
fit	automatically	automatically	automatically	width or height
broad	automatically	automatically	automatically	width or height
...	width	height	isometric	original dimensions

**Figure 16.3** An example of a T<sub>E</sub>X figure.

With `\typesetbuffer` you go a step further: not just one text element but a whole document can be typeset and inserted as figure. As an example, the second page of some text on A7-paper with landscape orientation is shown in [figure 16.4](#).

```

\startbuffer[a7-buf]
\setuppapersize[A7, landscape][A7, landscape]
\showframe
\input tufte
\stopbuffer

\placefigure[][fig:a7-landscape-layout]
{An example for \tex{typesetbuffer}.}
{\typesetbuffer[a7-buf][page=2]}

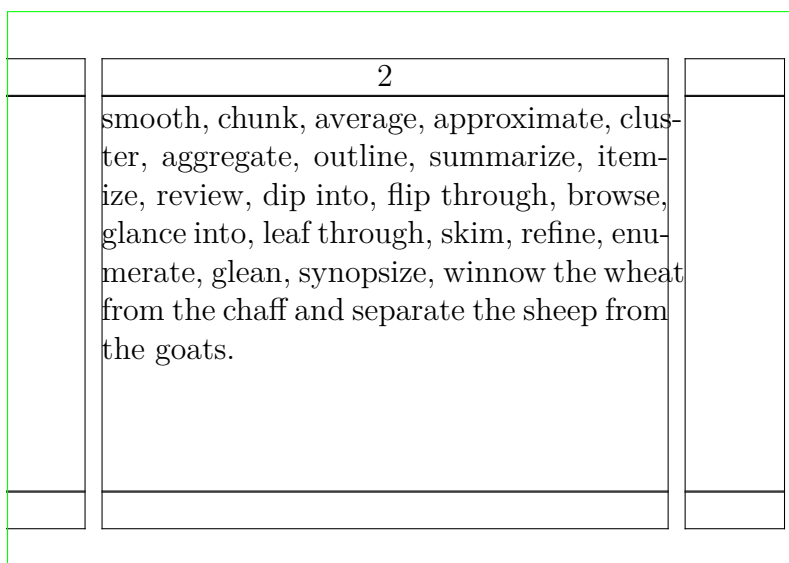
```

## 16.6 Extensions of figures

In the introduction we mentioned different figure formats like eps and png. In most situations the format does not have to be specified. On the contrary, format specification would mean that we would have to re-specify when we switch from dvi to pdf output. The figure format that ConT<sub>E</sub>Xt will use depends on the special driver. First preference is an outline, second a bitmap.

MetaPost figures, that can have a number as suffix, are recognized automatically. ConT<sub>E</sub>Xt will take care of the font management when it encounters MetaPost figures. When color is disabled, or rgb is to be converted to cmyk, ConT<sub>E</sub>Xt will determine what color specifications have to be converted in the MetaPost file. If needed, colors are converted to weighted grey scales, that print acceptable on black and white printers. In the next step the fonts are smuggled into the file.<sup>27</sup> In case of pdf output the MetaPost code is converted into pdf by T<sub>E</sub>X.

<sup>27</sup> Fonts are a problem in MetaPost files, since it is up to the postprocessor to take care of them. In this respect, MetaPost output is not self contained.



**Figure 16.4** An example for `\typesetbuffer`.

If necessary the code needed to insert the graphic is stored as a so called object for future reuse. This saves processing time, as well as bytes when producing pdf. You can prevent this by setting `object=no`.

When eps and mps (MetaPost) figures are processed ConTeXt searches for the high resolution bounding box. By default the PostScript bounding box may have a deviation of half a point, which is within the accuracy of our eyes. Especially when aligning graphics, such deviations will not go unnoticed.

ConTeXt determines the file format automatically, as is the case when you use:

```
\externalfigure[cow]
```

Sometimes however, as we already explained, the user may want to force the format for some reason. This can be done by:

```
\externalfigure[cow.eps]
\externalfigure[cow][type=eps]
```

In special cases you can specify in which way figure processing takes place. In the next example ConTeXt determines dimensions as if the file were in eps format, that is, it has a bounding box, but processes the files as if it were a MetaPost file. This kind of detailed specification is seldom needed.

```
\externalfigure[graphic.xyz][type=eps,method=mps]
```

The automatic searching for dimensions can be blocked by `preset=no`.

## 16.7 Movies

In ConTeXt moving images or ‘movies’ are handled just like figures. The file format type is not determined automatically yet. This means the user has to specify the file format.

```
\externalfigure[demo.mov][label=demo,width=4cm,height=4cm,preview=yes]
```

With this setup a preview is shown (the first image of the movie). If necessary an ordinary (static) figure can be layed over the first movie image with the overlay mechanism.

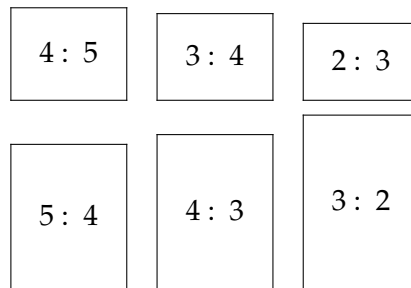
Movies can be controlled either by clicking on them, or by providing navigational tools, like:

```
... \goto {start me} [StartMovie{demo}] ...
```

A more detailed discussion on controlling widgets is beyond this chapter. Keep in mind that you need to distribute the movies along with your document, since they are not included. This makes sense, since movies can be pretty large.

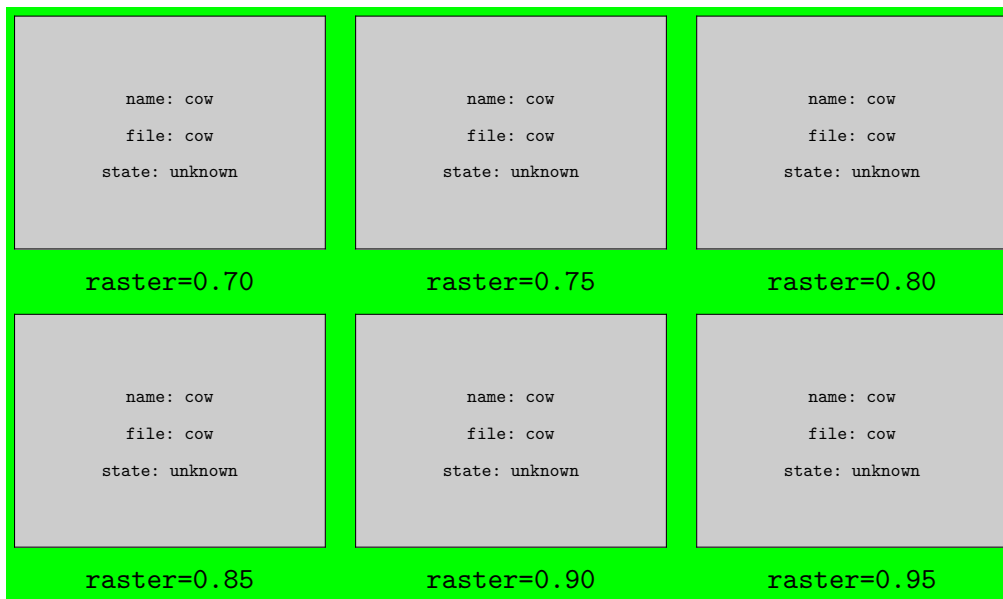
## 16.8 Some remarks on figures

Figures, and photos in particular, have to be produced with consistent proportions. The proportions specified in [figure 16.5](#) can be used as a guideline. Scaling of photos may cause quality loss.



**Figure 16.5** Some preferred image proportions.

In the background of a figure you typeset a background (see figure ??). In this example the external figures get a background (for a black and white reader: a green screen).



**Figure 16.6** Some examples of backgrounds in figures.

```
\setupfloats  
  [background=color,  
   backgroundcolor=green,  
   backgroundoffset=3pt]  
\useexternalfigure [cow]  
  [hfactor=80,  
   background=screen,  
   backgroundscreen=0.75]
```

Note that we use only one float and that there are six external figures. The background of the float is used for the complete combination and the background of the external figure only for the figure itself.

# 17 Tabulation

The second mechanism for generating tabular information is tabulation. We will see that the specification of tabulations does not differ much from that of tables.

Tabular information can be found in the running text and the location of that information is fixed (i.e. it is not allowed to float like tables and figures).

The tabulation mechanism is meant for that tabular information in which cells may contain information with more than one paragraph. However the table and tabular mechanism can be used indifferently we advise you to use them consistently because the spacing within the both mechanisms differ.

The table commands form a layer around `\TABLE`, but the tabulation commands are written for `\ConTeXt`. The tabulation mechanism uses the same interface when possible. As we do in the table mechanism we use `\NC` as column separator and `\NR` as row separator.

```
\starttabulate[|l|c|r|]
\NC this and that \NC left and right \NC here and there \NC \NR
\NC low and high \NC up and down \NC back and forth \NC \NR
\stoptabulate
```

```
this and that    left and right    here and there
low and high    up and down    back and forth
```

The three commands `l`, `c` and `r` stand for:

- `l` left align
- `c` center
- `r` right align

There are spacing commands. These relate to one–line as well as multi–line (paragraphs) cells.

```
in spacing left
jn spacing right
kn spacing around
```

The factor *n* is applied to the unit of spacing which is default set at `.5em` (see `\setuptabulate`).

```
\starttabulate[|l|k2c|r|]
\NC this and that \NC left and right \NC here and there \NC \NR
\NC low and high \NC up and down \NC back and forth \NC \NR
\stoptabulate
```

```
this and that    left and right    here and there
low and high    up and down    back and forth
```

The width of a column is set with:

```
\starttabulate[|lw(4cm)|w(4cm)l|r|]
\NC this and that \NC left and right \NC here and there \NC \NR
\NC low and high \NC up and down \NC back and forth \NC \NR
\stoptabulate
```

this and that	left and right	here and there
low and high	up and down	back and forth

The most important reason for developing the tabulation mechanism lies in the fact that we wanted to be able to type set multi paragraph columns. A prerequisite was that we should be able to use the full width of the text body. This option is supported by:

w(*d*) 1 line, fixed width  
p(*d*) paragraph, fixed width  
p paragraph, maximum width

In the next example the first column has an unknown width. The second column contains a left aligned paragraph with a width of 4 cm. The third column has a width of 2 cm and consists of one line. The last column contains a paragraph that occupies the remaining width.

```
\starttabulate[|l|p(4cm)l|w(2cm)|p|]
...
\stoptabulate
```

A four column table with four paragraphs is specified with:

```
\starttabulate[|p|p|p|p|]
...
\stoptabulate
```

In stead of specifying a body font in each cell we can specify them per column. In the next tabulation the definition is [|lT|p|].

B **boldface**  
I *italic*  
R *roman*  
S *slanted*  
T teletype

Math is possible with:

m in-line math  
M display math

With the letter f we can specify a body font, like f\bs. There are also the following commands:

f\command font specification  
b{..} place .. before the entry  
a{..} place .. after the entry  
h\command apply \command on the entry

The h-command (hook) allows some tricks like:

```
\starttabulate[|w(2cm)h{\inframed}|b{({}a{)}}|p|]
\HC {Uggly} \NC isn't it? \NC he says. \NC \NR
\HC {Beautiful} \NC but meaningless \NC I would say. \NC \NR
\stoptabulate
```

Because we use \inframed the frame remains within the line. The command applies only to the cells that are preceded by \HC. The {} are important because \inframed expects these.

Uggy	(isn't it?)	he says.
Beautiful	(but meaningless)	I would say.

We can use `h` for alternative situations, like:

```
em]
```

item	number
figures	=5
tables	=8
formulas	=12

All three cells are adapted. Do not forget the `{}` in the column with the numbers!

```
\unexpanded\def\SmallDash#1{\blackrule[width=#1em]}
\starttabulate[|1|1h\SmallDash|]
\HL
\NC \bf item \NC \bf number \NC \NR
\HL
\NC figures \HC {5} \NC \NR
\NC tables \HC {8} \NC \NR
\NC formulas \HC {12} \NC \NR
\HL
\stoptabulate
```

We used `\NC` as a column separator but an alternative is `\EQ` that places a specified character.

```
\starttabulate
\NC =||sign \EQ a separator can be specified by altering the
variable \type {EQ} \NC \NR
\NC :||character \EQ default a colon is used but an equal sign
is a reasonable alternative \NC \NR
\stoptabulate
```

This results in:

```
--sign = a separator can be specified by altering the variable EQ
:-character = default a colon is used but an equal sign is a reasonable alternative
```

We saw `\NC` for normal cell entries, `\EQ` for entries separated by a character and `\HC` for entries that are influenced by a command. There is also `\HQ` for a cell entry with a separator and a command. When no formatting is needed there are the commands: `\RC` and `\RQ`.

separator	normal	raw	command
yes	<code>\EQ</code>	<code>\RQ</code>	<code>\HQ</code>
no	<code>\NC</code>	<code>\RC</code>	<code>\HC</code>

This small tabulation shows all three alternatives. Here we have a tabulation with four centered columns, **boldface** or `verbatim`, of which two cells have a different alignment. The table is coded as:

```
\starttabulate[|*{4}{cBh{\type}}|]
\NC separator \NC normal \NC raw \NC command \NC \NR
\RC \bf yes \HC {\EQ} \HC {\RQ} \HC {\HQ} \NC \NR
```



```
\RC \bf no          \HC {\NC} \HC {\RC} \HC {\HC} \NC \NR
\stoptabulate
```

The equal sign or any other character can be forced with the e command in the definition.

e sets a symbol in front of the next column

When several columns have an equal specification we can combine those specifications. Note that the number of | must be correct.

```
\starttabulate[|*{3}{k1pc|}]
\NC this and that \NC left and right \NC here and there \NC \NR
\NC low and high \NC up and down \NC back and forth \NC \NR
\stoptabulate
```

Here we typed  $1 + 3 \times 1 = 4$  times a |.

this and that	left and right	here and there
low and high	up and down	back and forth

A better example of the automatic cell width determination is the next one.

tables We use `\starttable` when we typeset tables but the exact location is not fixed and the information is allowed to float in the running text.

tabulation The command `\starttabulate` is meant for tabular information that is part of the running text. The automatic calculation of the cell width is a feature in this mechanism.

This tabulation was typed as:

```
\starttabulate[[1|p|]
\NC tables \NC We use \type {\starttable} when we typeset tables
but the exact location is not fixed and the
information is allowed to float in the running
text. \NC \NR
\NC tabulation \NC The command \type {\starttabulate} is meant for
tabular information that is part of the running text.
The automatic calculation of the cell width
is a feature in this mechanism. \NC \NR
\stoptabulate
```

When no tabulation is specified it is assumed that `[[1|p|]` is wanted. To prevent typing the same specification all over again you can use the tabulation format definition command:

```
\definetabulate[Three] [[1B|1S|p|]
\startThree
\NC one \NC two \NC three four five six seven eight nine ten eleven
twelve thirteen fourteen fifteen and so on \NC \NR
\stopThree
```

**one** *two* three four five six seven eight nine ten eleven twelve thirteen fourteen fifteen and so on

The tabulation commands can be summarized with:

```
\definetabulate [.1.] [.2.] [.3.]
                    OPTIONAL
1 IDENTIFIER
2 IDENTIFIER
3 TEXT
```

The first argument gives the tabulation a logical name. The second argument is optional and specifies the associated tabulations; later on we will give an example. The last argument specifies the cells.

Then we have:

```
\startTABULATE [.1.] [...,.2.,...] ... \stopTABULATE
                    OPTIONAL      OPTIONAL
1 TEXT
2 inherits from \setupexternalfigures
```

In this command the first argument specifies the cells, the second and optional argument the set up.

```
\setuptabulate [.1.] [...,.2.,...]
                    OPTIONAL
1 IDENTIFIER
2 unit           = DIMENSION
  indenting      = never none not no yes always first next small medium big normal odd
                  even DIMENSION
  before         = COMMAND
  after         = COMMAND
  inner         = COMMAND
  EQ            = TEXT
  rulecolor     = IDENTIFIER
  align         = inner outer left right flushleft flushright middle center normal no
                  yes
  rulethickness = DIMENSION
  distance      = blank grid depth DIMENSION small medium big none
  bodyfont     = 5pt ... 12pt small big
  rule         = normal line
  split        = yes no
```

The optional argument specifies the associated tabulations. When the parameter `indenting` is set at `yes`, the width of the tabulations will adapt to the actual indent. In case of a `\start ... \stopnarrower` environment the left and right indent are taken into account. The parameter `unit` is used for the spacing commands `i`, `j` and `k`. The commands specified after the parameter `inner` are applied just in front of the first row and are effective in the whole tabulation.

The possibilities for framing tabulations are limited. You can add horizontal lines with `\HL`. This command takes care of the vertical spacing as the next example illustrates:

```
\starttabulate[|l|p|]
\HL
```

```

\NC small \NC They say, small is beautiful. \NC \NR
\HL
\NC medium \NC It seems that medium is the message. \NC \NR
\HL
\NC large \NC Large T-shirts are always sold out. \NC \NR
\HL
\stoptabulate

```

When a pagebreak occurs in the middle of a tabulation the horizontal line is repeated automatically. Vertical spacing can be set by `\FL`, `\ML` and `\LL`. These commands stand for *first*, *middle* and *last line*.

---

```

small      They say, small is beautiful.
medium    It seems that medium is the message.
large     Large T-shirts are always sold out.

```

---

The spacing around the lines is related to the depth of a line.

```
\setuptabulate[distance={depth,medium}]
```

There are different ways to adapt this set up, like:

```

\setuptabulate[distance=none]
\setuptabulate[distance=big]
\setuptabulate[distance={blank,small}]
\setuptabulate[distance={1ex,medium}]
\setuptabulate[distance=1cm]

```

Tabulation is meant for the running text but it can also be used in a floating block. In that case the spacing around tabulation is suppressed. In the running text the actual whitespace and `textwidth` are taken into account.

- This means that a tabulation within an itemization is adapted to the indent.  
You see? As we can expect the width of a paragraph is adapted to the width of the text.  
And you can even put an itemize in such a cell.
  - like this
  - or that
- This little table was defined like this:

```

\starttabulate
\NC You see? \NC As we can expect the width of a paragraph is adapted
to the width of the text. And you can even put an
itemize in such a cell.
\startitemize[packed]
\item like this
\item or that
\stopitemize \NC \NR
\stoptabulate

```

We can use and abuse tabulations to obtain some special effects. Vice versa common effects can be combined quite well with tabulations. The next, somewhat strange example will illustrate that.

- |           |       |               |            |       |
|-----------|-------|---------------|------------|-------|
| 1. first  | ••••• | this or that  | $\alpha$ . | alpha |
| 2. second | ••••• | so and so     | $\beta$ .  | beta  |
| 3. third  | ••••• | here or there | $\gamma$ . | gamma |

In these kind of situations we should set the itemization with the key packed.

```

\starttabulate[|p(2cm)|p(4cm)|p|]
\NC \startitemize[n,packed]
    \item first \item second \item third
\stopitemize
\NC \startitemize[packed][items=5,width=4em,distance=.5em]
    \its this or that \its so and so \its here or there
\stopitemize
\NC \startitemize[g,packed,broad]
    \item alpha \item beta \item gamma
\stopitemize
\NC\NR
\stoptabulate

```

The content of a tabulation has some limitations, because  $\TeX$  first reads the complete table. These limitations relate to the macros that use  $\catcode$  adaptations. In normal situations you will not notice these limitations, only when you have typeset  $\TeX$  input with  $\TeX$ .

While discussing tables we already saw a financial table. These kind of tables can best be set with the tabulation commands.

not so much	1.220
somewhat more	5.186
together	$\overline{6.406}$

This tabulation was typed like this:

```

\starttabulate[|l|r|]
\NC not so much \NC 1.220 \NC \NR
\NC somewhat more \NC 5.186 \NC \NR
\NC together \NC \overbar{6.406} \NC \NR
\stoptabulate

```

As soon as we work with numbers there are several ways of alignment. Like in tables we can make use of  $\sim$ , but we have to indicate the meaning of  $\sim$  explicitly. This is caused by the fact that we still want to use the  $\sim$  within paragraphs as a non-hyphenatable space.

```

\starttabulate[|l|~c|]
\NC this is less \NC ~12 \NC \NR
\NC than that \NC 185 \NC \NR
\stoptabulate

```

We return to the defining of categories of tabulations. An application of this option can be found in the commands that make up a legend with a formula.

```

\definetabulate [legend] [ |emj1|i1|mR| ]
\definetabulate [legend] [two] [ |emj1|emk1|i1|mR| ]
\setuptabulate [legend] [unit=.75em,EQ={}]

```

After these definitions that are default in ConTeXt we can type:

```
\startlegend
\NC w \NC the width of a box \NC pt \NR
\NC h \NC the height of a box \NC pt \NR
\NC d \NC the depth of a box \NC pt \NR
\stoplegend
```

This very simple legend becomes this:

```
w = the width of a box pt
h = the height of a box pt
d = the depth of a box pt
```

An extra entry is possible when we add the key two:

```
\startlegend[two]
\NC w \NC width \NC the width of a box \NC pt \NR
\NC h \NC height \NC the height of a box \NC pt \NR
\NC d \NC depth \NC de depth of a box \NC pt \NR
\stoplegend
```

This related tabulation inherits the set up of the original. We also could have defined `\startlegendtwo`, but the mentioned definition originates from the older functionality that was part of earlier ConTeXt versions.

```
w = width = the width of a box pt
h = height = the height of a box pt
d = depth = de depth of a box pt
```

In a similar way the commands for typesetting facts are defined.

```
\definetabulate [fact] [|R|ecmj1|iimR|]
\setuptabulate [fact] [unit=.75em,EQ={=}]
```

The first column is set in roman and the next column is separated by an equal sign. That second column is centered and is set in math mode. That column also has some more whitespace. The last column is also set in math mode but the characters are set in roman. Some whitespace is added.

```
\startfact
\NC width \NC w \NC 48pt \NR
\NC height \NC h \NC 9pt \NR
\NC depth \NC d \NC 3pt \NR
\stopfact
```

This results in:

```
width w = 48pt
height h = 9pt
depth d = 3pt
```

In reality we also give a value to `inner` and then specifications as below are possible:

```
\startfact
\\ width \\ w \\ 48pt \\
```

```

\\ height \\ h \\ 9pt \\
\\ depth \\ d \\ 3pt \\
\stopfact

```

We want to conclude with an example of an automatic calculation of the width of a paragraph. This command shows —and we already saw that in other examples— that the last `\NC` is redundant.

```

\starttabulate[|B1|p|B1|]
\NC Read Me \NC \input tufte \NC Edward Tufte \NR
\stoptabulate

```

**Read Me** We thrive in information–thick worlds because of our marvelous **Edward Tufte** and everyday capacity to select, edit, single out, structure, highlight, group, pair, merge, harmonize, synthesize, focus, organize, condense, reduce, boil down, choose, categorize, catalog, classify, list, abstract, scan, look into, idealize, isolate, discriminate, distinguish, screen, pigeonhole, pick over, sort, integrate, blend, inspect, filter, lump, skip, smooth, chunk, average, approximate, cluster, aggregate, outline, summarize, itemize, review, dip into, flip through, browse, glance into, leaf through, skim, refine, enumerate, glean, synopsisize, winnow the wheat from the chaff and separate the sheep from the goats.

As was said earlier Con<sub>T</sub>E<sub>X</sub>t takes care of adequate page breaking in the middle of a tabulation. When we set `\tracetabulatetrue` red lines are drawn in positions where breaking is not allowed.

```

\starttabulate[|c|p|p|]
\NC \bf Alpha \NC \bf Beta \NC \bf Gamma \NC\NR
\NC 1 \NC right indeed \NC definitely wrong \NC\NR
\NC 2 \NC \thinrules[n=3] \NC \thinrules[n=3] \NC\NR
\NC 3 \NC oh yes \NC simply no \NC\NR
\NC 4 \NC very true \NC as false as can be \NC\NR
\NC 5 \NC \thinrules[n=5] \NC \thinrules[n=5] \NC\NR
\NC 6 \NC \thinrules[n=3] \NC \thinrules[n=4] \NC\NR
\stoptabulate

```

Alpha	Beta	Gamma
1	right indeed	definitely wrong
2		
3	oh yes	simply no
4	very true	as false as can be
5		

6

```

\starttabulate[|c|p|p|]
\NC \bf Alpha \NC \bf Beta      \NC \bf Gamma      \NC\NR
\NC 1          \NC right indeed \NC definitely wrong \NC\NR
\NC 2          \NC oh yes       \NC simply no      \NC\NR
\NC 3          \NC very true    \NC as false as can be \NC\NR
\NC 4          \NC the whole truth \NC but the truth   \NC\NR
\stoptabulate

```

<b>Alpha</b>	<b>Beta</b>	<b>Gamma</b>
1	right indeed	definitely wrong
2	oh yes	simply no
3	very true	as false as can be
4	the whole truth	but the truth

# 18 Formulas

## 18.1 Introduction

For what reason do we need a complete chapter on formulas? The reason is obvious: a considerable part of the functionality of  $\text{\TeX}$  relates to math typesetting since the main reason for developing  $\text{\TeX}$  was the need for typesetting math.

In  $\text{\ConTeXt}$  math typesetting is not really an issue.  $\text{\ConTeXt}$  was developed for typesetting educational materials and not necessarily math. Therefore more attention was paid to chemical formulas and consistent use of units than to math. Math was available anyhow.

In  $\text{\ConTeXt}$  the functionality is more oriented towards the educational disciplines and these can be found in specific modules. A module will not supply basic functionality because it can be found in the core.

There are modules for chemical stuff, units and flow-charts, which all have their own manual. The same goes for the math module. This module contains the same functionality as the macros developed by the *American Mathematical Society*. Those macros are well-known in the  $\text{\TeX}$  community. Most extensions concern the interface and consistent spacing. In this chapter we pay attention to the standard functionality in  $\text{\ConTeXt}$ .

## 18.2 Basic commands

Typesetting formulas is one of the strong points of  $\text{\TeX}$ . Special commands are available for typesetting math. These commands are enclosed by single or double dollar signs.

In the running text we use single dollar signs:  $\$a=b^2+1/c\$$  becomes  $a = b^2+1/c$ . In conjunction with `in-line-math` there is `display-math`, or rather formulas surrounded by whitespace. Those formulas are frequently numbered. The location and way of numbering can be set with:

```
\setupformulas [...,*.,...]  
  
* location      = left right  
  left         = TEXT  
  right        = TEXT  
  align        = inner outer left right flushleft flushright middle center normal no yes  
  option       = middle  
  strut        = yes no  
  distance     = DIMENSION  
  margin       = DIMENSION standard yes no  
  align        = flushleft flushright middle center  
  leftmargin   = DIMENSION  
  rightmargin  = DIMENSION  
  indentnext   = yes no  
  alternative  = IDENTIFIER  
  spacebefore  = DIMENSION  
  after        = DIMENSION  
  separator    = TEXT  
  conversion   = numbers characters Characters romannumerals Romannumerals TEXT
```



With `left` and `right` characters on the left or right side of the formula number are set up. Default these are `(` and `)`.

A (numbered) formula is defined with the commands:

```
\placeformula [...1;...] {..2.} $$..3.$$
          OPTIONAL  OPTIONAL
```

1 REFERENCE  
2 CONTENT  
3 DISPLAY MATH

```
\placesubformula [...1;...] {..2.} $$..3.$$
          OPTIONAL  OPTIONAL
```

1 REFERENCE  
2 CONTENT  
3 DISPLAY MATH

The reference and subnumber are optional. Below we give some examples of formulas. In the margin we display the references. Typing the formula number manually is necessary when we make use of tables, matrices and  $\TeX$ -commando's like `\displaylines`. In the examples we use `$$` to save some space; however we advise you to use the command `\startformula`.

**FIXME:** Mark IV doesn't have a `\formulanumber` command at the moment, the rest of this paragraph is suppressed

When we want *no* numbers we have to indicate that explicitly by means of `[-]`:

```
\placeformula[-]
  $$\displaylines
    {ab=ba\hfill\cr
     ac+bc=(a+b)c\hfill\cr}$$
```

This results in:

$$ab = ba$$

$$ac + bc = (a + b)c$$

We also could have used here `\startformula... \stopformula`:

```
\placeformula[-]
  \startformula
  \displaylines{ab=ba\hfill\cr ac+bc=(a+b)c\hfill\cr}
  \stopformula
```

The use of the `\start... \stop`-pair has the advantage that we can test symmetry in some wordprocessors. The disadvantage is we can not see immediately that we work in math mode.

```
\startFORMULA ... \stopFORMULA
```

The next examples does use numbers. In this example [that's it] is a logical name, a label, for future referencing.

```
\placeformula
\startformula
\displaylines
{a\times b=b\times a\hfill\formulanumber\cr
a+b=b+a\hfill\subformulanumber\cr
ac+bc=(a+b)c\hfill\formulanumber[that's it]{x}\cr}
\stopformula
```

This becomes:

**FIXME:** getbuffer suppressed

## 18.3 Legends

In case of physics formulas you may want to explain the meaning of the used symbols. There are two commands to do that:

```
\startlegend [.1.] .2. .3. .4. ... \stoplegend
                OPTIONAL
1 two
2 NOTHING
3 NOTHING
4 NOTHING
```

```
\startfact .1. .2. .3. ... \stopfact
1 NOTHING
2 NOTHING
3 NOTHING
```

A legend and facts are coded as follows:

```
\placeformula[for:force]$$F = m a$$
\startlegend
\leg F \ force          \ N          \
\leg m \ mass           \ kg          \
\leg a \ acceleration   \ m/{s^2} \
\stoplegend
```

Determine by means of formula~\in[for:force] the acceleration~\$a\$ when given is that:

```
\startfact
\fact mass  \ m  \ 10~kg  \
\fact force \ F  \ 1500~N  \
\stopfact
```

This results in:

$$F = ma \tag{18.1}$$

$F$  = force             $N$   
 $m$  = mass             $kg$   
 $a$  = acceleration  $m/s^2$

Determine by means of formula **18.1** the acceleration  $a$  when given is that:

mass  $m = 10\ kg$   
force  $F = 1500\ N$

A combination is also possible:

$F =$             = force             $N$   
 $m = 10$         = mass             $kg$   
 $a = 1500$       = acceleration  $m/s^2$

This was specified in this way:

```
\startlegend[two]
\leg F \ \        \ \ force            \ \ N        \ \
\leg m \ \    10 \ \ mass            \ \ kg        \ \
\leg a \ \ 1500 \ \ acceleration \ \ m/{s^2} \ \
\stoplegend
```

## 18.4 Units

A unit can be typeset with:

```
10~$\rm m^3$
```

For the purpose of consistent typesetting the command `\unit` is available. This is an example of the use of synonyms as described in [section 12.2](#).

```
\unit {strange} {m^3\!/s^2} {a strange unit}
```

In this case the `\!` takes care of backskipping the `/` in such a way that in stead of  $m^3/s^2$  we get  $m^3/s^2$ . In fact we can do without these kind of cryptic typing, because the unit module offers a better alternative. The module is loaded in the set up area of your source file with:

```
\usemodule[unit]
```

After that you can type the recall unit by typing them. For example:

```
... 10 \Meter \Per \Second\ ...
... 33 \Kilo \Gram \Per \Square \Meter\ ...
```

At this point we advise you to read the manual that comes with this module for more examples. When we use math commands there may occur problems as soon as we use  $\$$  in a nested way. When we are in math mode and we use a  $\$$  for the purpose of switching to math mode we just end math mode like this:

```
 $\$a \$\times\$ b\$$ 
```

$\TeX$  will produce an error because  $\times$  is typed outside math mode. In this example we saw what goes wrong but the problem is less obvious in the next example:

```
\def\multiply{ $\times$ }
 $\$a \multiply b\$$ 
```

This seems correct but with  $\multiply$  we leave math mode. We can prevent errors by defining  $\multiply$  as follows:

```
\def\multiply{\ifmmode \times \else  $\times$  \fi}
```

The next commands does just that:

```
\mathematics {...}
* CONTENT
```

We can use this command in nested situations:

```
\mathematics{a\mathematics{b\mathematics{c\mathematics{d\mathematics{e}}}}}}
```

and it will result in a correct output:

*abcde*

so do not use this:

*abcde*

which we would have obtained by typing:

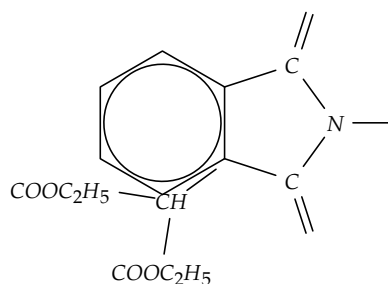
```
 $\$a\$b\$c\$d\$e\$$ 
```

## 18.5 Chemicals

Earlier we stated that in this chapter we also describe the module for chemical typesetting. This module is loaded with:

```
\usemodule[chemic]
```

The first version of this module used  $\text{P}\text{T}\text{E}\text{X}$  for positioning text and drawing the chemical structures, the current version uses  $\text{MetaPost}$  for drawing the graphics. The results are better and the files are more compact.



This chemical structure was typed as follows:

```
\startchemical[with=fit,height=fit]
\chemical
[SIX,B,C,ADJ1,
 FIVE,ROT3,SB34,+SB2,-SB5,Z345,DR35,SR4,CRZ35,SUB1,
 ONE,OFF1,SB258,Z0,Z28]
[C,N,C,O,O,
 CH,COOC_2H_5,COOC_2H_5]
\stopchemical
```

The interface (syntax) looks rather cryptic but after some practice its compactness is an asset. There is an extensive manual and a collection of examples available.

One characteristic of chemical typesetting is the fact that all super- respectively subscripts are at the same height. This is not the case in math typesetting where the location of the super- and subscripts depend on the available vertical space. The command `\chemical` takes this into account. When you want to put a chemical formula in a math formula—for example when you want to display an expression for a chemical equilibrium—there is the command `\ch`. This command has one argument and adapts automatically to its context:  $\frac{\text{\ch{N}}}{\text{\ch{O}}}$

## 18.6 Math

We limit ourselves only to those commands that are available by default. In addition to the commands mentioned here, the math module implements many more:

```
\usemodule[math]
```

The extra commands are described in a separate manual.

Like in plain  $\TeX$  we offer the next commands for switching to some specialized fonts:

```
\frak fraktur ABC
\cal calligraphic ABC
```

Alternatively one can use the commands `\fraktur`, `\gothic` and `\calligraphic` which each take one argument, like in `\fraktur{TEXT}`.

These are typical fonts meant for math typesetting and special characters.

Fractions can occur quite often so we also added the command `\frac` on request:  $\frac{a}{b}$  results as expected  $\frac{a}{b}$ . This command adapts to its surroundings as good as possible.

For instructional purposes a frame or a background can be useful to indicate the specific math symbol. There is a special version of `\framed`: `\maframed`. We give some examples:

```
\startformula
  y + \maframed{y} + y^{2} + y^{\maframed{2}}
\stopformula

\nonknuthmode % todo: one day this can be removed

\startformula
  x \times \maframed{y} \times y^{\maframed{z}_{\maframed{z}}}
\stopformula
```

$$y + \boxed{y} + y^2 + y^{\boxed{2}}$$

$$x \times \boxed{y} \times y^{\boxed{z}_{\boxed{z}}}$$

To obtain a good spacing in framed math texts the offset equals overlay. The offset is produced by giving `frameoffset` an adequate value. Other setups are also possible:

```
\startformula
  x \times y^{\maframed[framecolor=red]{z}_z}
\stopformula
```

$$x \times y^{\boxed{z}_z}$$

For in-line math the command `\inmaframed` is available.

It is possible to typeset fractions without switching to math mode with the command:

```
\fraction {.1.} {.2.}

1 CONTENT
2 CONTENT
```

The braces are essential in the next example.

If `\fraction{123}{456}` equals `\fraction{x}{y}`, then `\fraction{y}{x}` equals `\fraction{456}{123}`.

results in:

If  $\frac{123}{456}$  equals  $\frac{x}{y}$ , then  $\frac{y}{x}$  equals  $\frac{456}{123}$ .

## 18.7 Math collection

Math is a complicated matter and therefore we will not spend that many words on the gory details. For the user it is enough to know that you can mix different math fonts in a comfortable way and that ConTEXt will take care of the proper mapping on specific math fonts.

Because the wide range of math symbols can come from different fonts, math characters are organized into so called math collections. Normally such a collection is chosen automatically

when you load a font definition, just as with font encodings. The ams math fonts extend the default math collection, which gives you a comfortable fall back. More information can be found in the documentation of the math module.

You can generate a list of the current math character set with the command `\showmathcharacters`.

command does not exist in mkiv

# 19 MetaPost

In a ConTeXt document we can use MetaPost code directly. For example:

```
\startMPgraphic
  fill unitsquare scaled 100 withcolor (.2,.3,.4) ;
\stopMPgraphic
```

A direct relation with the ConTeXt color mechanism is obvious:

```
\startMPgraphic
  fill unitsquare scaled 100 withcolor \MPcolor{mark} ;
\stopMPgraphic
```

MetaPost support is very extensive. You can store definitions and re-use them at random. If possible processed MetaPost pictures are re-used.

A detailed discussion on embedding MetaPost graphics is beyond this manual, and therefore will be covered elsewhere. For the moment it is enough to know the basics of putting for instance graphics in the background. In the next example, a graphic is calculated each time it is referred to:

```
\startuseMPgraphic{test a}
  fill unitsquare xscaled \overlaywidth yscaled \overlayheight ;
\stopuseMPgraphic
\defineoverlay[A Nice Rectangle][\useMPgraphic{test a}]
\setupbackgrounds[page][background=A Nice Rectangle]
```

When the graphic does not change, we can best reuse it, like:

```
\startreusableMPgraphic{test b}
  fill unitsquare xscaled \overlaywidth yscaled \overlayheight ;
\stopreusableMPgraphic
\defineoverlay[A Nice Rectangle][\reuseMPgraphic{test b}]
\setupbackgrounds[page][background=A Nice Rectangle]
```

When using the ConTeXt command line interface T<sub>E</sub>Xexec, graphics are processed automatically. Unless one calls MetaPost at runtime, a second pass is needed to get the graphics in their final state.



# 20 Layers

**TODO:** All about layers

## 21 Interactive documents

**TODO:** This should explain the various interaction menus and the use of widgets / ECMAScript

## 22 Modules

**TODO:** What modules are and how to write them

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FIXME: No definitions can be placed

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# D Distributed ConTeXt files

## D.1 Files in tex/context/base

<b>filename(s)</b>	<b>title</b>	<b>subtitle</b>
anch-bar.mkii (mkiv)	ConTeXt Anchoring Macros	Margin Bars and alike
anch-bck.mkvi	ConTeXt Anchoring Macros	Backgrounds
anch-pgr.lua (mkii,mkiv)	ConTeXt Anchoring Macros	Positioning Graphics
anch-pos.lua (mkii,mkiv)	ConTeXt Anchoring Macros	Positioning Support
anch-snc.mkii (mkiv)	ConTeXt Anchoring Macros	Synchronization
anch-tab.mkiv	ConTeXt Anchoring Macros	Table Extensions
attr-col.lua (mkiv)	ConTeXt Attribute Macros	Color
attr-eff.lua (mkiv)	ConTeXt Attribute Macros	Effects
attr-ini.lua (mkiv)	ConTeXt Attribute Macros	Initialization
attr-lay.lua (mkiv)	ConTeXt Attribute Macros	Viewerlayers
attr-mkr.lua (mkiv)	ConTeXt Attribute Macros	Markers
attr-neg.lua (mkiv)	ConTeXt Attribute Macros	Negation
back-exp.lua (mkiv)	ConTeXt Backend Macros	XML export
back-ini.lua (mkiv)	ConTeXt Backend Macros	Initialization
back-pdf.lua (mkiv)	ConTeXt Backend Macros	pdf
back-swf.mkiv	ConTeXt Backend Macros	Shockwave Experiment
back-u3d.mkiv	ConTeXt Backend Macros	U3D Experiment
bibl-bib.lua (mkiv)	ConTeXt Bibliography Support	Initialization
bibl-tra.lua (mkii,mkiv)	ConTeXt Publication Module	Publications
bibl-tst.lua		
blob-ini.lua (mkiv)	ConTeXt Lua Typesetting	Initialization
buff-imp-default.lua (mkiv)	ConTeXt Visualizer Macros	Default
buff-imp-escaped.lua (mkiv)	ConTeXt Visualizer Macros	Escaped
buff-imp-lua.lua (mkiv)	ConTeXt Visualizer Macros	Lua
buff-imp-mp.lua (mkiv)	ConTeXt Visualizer Macros	MetaPost
buff-imp-nested.lua (mkiv)	ConTeXt Visualizer Macros	Nested
buff-imp-parsed-xml.lua (mkiv)	ConTeXt Visualizer Macros	Parsed xml
buff-imp-tex.lua (mkiv)	ConTeXt Visualizer Macros	TeX
buff-imp-xml.lua (mkiv)	ConTeXt Visualizer Macros	xml
buff-ini.lua (mkii,mkiv)	ConTeXt Buffer Macros	Buffers
buff-par.lua (mkvi)	ConTeXt Buffer Macros	Parallel
buff-ver.lua (mkii,mkiv)	ConTeXt Buffer Macros	Verbatim
bxml-apa.mkiv	APA bibliography style	Publications
catc-act.mkii (mkiv)	ConTeXt Catcode Macros	Default Catcode Tables
catc-ctx.mkii (mkiv)	ConTeXt Catcode Macros	Extra Tables
catc-def.mkii (mkiv)	ConTeXt Catcode Macros	Default Tables
catc-ini.lua (mkii,mkiv)	ConTeXt System Macros	Catcode Handling
catc-sym.mkii (mkiv)	ConTeXt Catcode Macros	Some Handy Constants
catc-xml.mkii (mkiv)	ConTeXt Catcode Macros	xml Catcode Tables
char-act.mkiv	ConTeXt Character Support	Active
char-def.lua	companion to char-ini.mkiv	
char-enc.lua (mkiv)	ConTeXt Character Support	Encodings
char-ent.lua	companion to math-ini.mkiv	
char-ini.lua (mkiv)	ConTeXt Character Support	Initialization
char-map.lua	companion to char-ini.mkiv	
char-tex.lua	companion to char-ini.mkiv	
char-utf.lua (mkiv)	ConTeXt Character Support	Unicode UTF
chem-ini.lua (mkiv)	companion to chem-ini.mkiv	Chemistry
chem-str.lua (mkiv)	companion to chem-str.mkiv	Chemistry

cldf-bas.lua (mkiv)	ConTeXt Lua Document Functions	Basics
cldf-com.lua (mkiv)	ConTeXt Lua Document Functions	Initialization
cldf-ini.lua (mkiv)	ConTeXt Lua Document Functions	Initialization
cldf-int.lua (mkiv)	ConTeXt Multilingual Macros	Initialization
cldf-prs.lua	companion to cldf-ini.mkiv	
cldf-ver.lua (mkiv)	ConTeXt Lua Document Functions	Verbatim
colo-ema.mkii	ConTeXt Color Macros	Emacs Colors
colo-ext.mkii (mkiv)	ConTeXt Color Macros	Extras
colo-grp.mkiv	ConTeXt Color Macros	Groups
colo-hex.mkii	ConTeXt Color Macros	Hex Colors
colo-icc.lua	companion to colo-ini.mkiv	
colo-imp-dem.mkiv	ConTeXt Color Macros	Demo Palets and Groups
colo-imp-ema.mkiv	ConTeXt Color Macros	Emacs Colors
colo-imp-rgb.mkiv	ConTeXt Color Macros	RGB
colo-imp-x11.mkiv	ConTeXt Color Macros	X11
colo-imp-xwi.mkiv	ConTeXt Color Macros	X Windows
colo-ini.lua (mkii,mkiv)	ConTeXt Color Macros	Initialization
colo-rgb.mkii	ConTeXt Color Macros	RGB
colo-run.lua (mkii,mkiv)	ConTeXt Color Macros	Runtime loaded commands
colo-x11.mkii	ConTeXt Color Macros	X11
colo-xwi.mkii	ConTeXt Color Macros	X Windows
cont-cs.mkii (mkiv)	ConTeXt	ConTeXt Czech Format Generation
cont-de.mkii (mkiv)	ConTeXt	ConTeXt German Format Generation
cont-en.mkii (mkiv)	ConTeXt	ConTeXt English Format Generation
cont-err.mkii	ConTeXt System Files	Just A warning
cont-fil.mkii (mkiv)	ConTeXt Miscellaneous Macros	File Synonyms
cont-fr.mkii (mkiv)	ConTeXt	ConTeXt French Format Generation
cont-gb.mkii (mkiv)	ConTeXt	ConTeXt English Format Generation
cont-it.mkii (mkiv)	ConTeXt	ConTeXt Italian Format Generation
cont-log.mkii (mkiv)	ConTeXt Miscellaneous Macros	TeX Logos
cont-new.mkii (mkiv)	ConTeXt Miscellaneous Macros	New Macros
cont-nl.mkii (mkiv)	ConTeXt	ConTeXt Dutch Format Generation
cont-nop.mkiv	ConTeXt Miscellaneous Macros	Startup Dummy
cont-pe.mkiv	ConTeXt	ConTeXt English Format Generation
cont-ro.mkii (mkiv)	ConTeXt	ConTeXt Romanian Format Generation
cont-sys.ori	ConTeXt Miscellaneous Macros	System Specific Setups
cont-yes.mkiv	ConTeXt Miscellaneous Macros	Startup Stub
context.css (lus,mkii,mkiv,rme)	ConTeXt	ConTeXt Format Generation
context-base.lmx	companion to mtx-server-ctx-startup.tex	
context-characters.lmx	companion to context.tex	
context-debug.lmx	companion to context.tex	
context-error.lmx	companion to context.tex	
context-fonttest.lmx	companion to mtx-server-ctx-fonttest.tex	
context-help.lmx	companion to comm-xml.tex	
context-timing.lmx	companion to mtx-timing.tex	
context-version.pdf (png)		
core-con.lua (mkii,mkiv)	ConTeXt Core Macros	Conversion
core-ctx.ctx (lua,mkii,mkiv)	ConTeXt Core Macros	Job Control
core-dat.lua (mkiv)	ConTeXt Core Macros	Multipass Datasets
core-def.mkii (mkiv)	ConTeXt Core Macros	Defaults
core-env.lua (mkii,mkiv)	ConTeXt Core Macros	New ones
core-fil.mkii	ConTeXt Core Macros	File Support
core-fnt.mkii	ConTeXt Core Macros	Fonts
core-gen.mkii	ConTeXt Core Macros	General
core-ini.mkii (mkiv)	ConTeXt Core Macros	Additional Initialization

core-job.mkii	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Core Macros	Job Handling
core-mis.mkii	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Core Macros	Miscellaneous
core-par.mkii	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Core Macros	Paragraph Tricks
core-stg.mkii	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Core Macros	Strategies
core-sys.lua (mkii,mkiv)	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Core Macros	System
core-two.lua (mkii,mkiv)	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Core Macros	Two Pass Data
core-uti.lua (mkii,mkiv)	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Core Macros	Utility File Handling
core-var.mkii	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Core Macros	Variables
data-aux.lua	companion to luat-lib.mkiv	
data-bin.lua	companion to luat-lib.mkiv	
data-con.lua	companion to luat-lib.mkiv	
data-crl.lua	companion to luat-lib.mkiv	
data-ctx.lua	companion to luat-lib.mkiv	
data-env.lua	companion to luat-lib.mkiv	
data-exp.lua	companion to luat-lib.mkiv	
data-fil.lua	companion to luat-lib.mkiv	
data-gen.lua	companion to luat-lib.mkiv	
data-ini.lua	companion to luat-lib.mkiv	
data-inp.lua	companion to luat-lib.mkiv	
data-lst.lua	companion to luat-lib.mkiv	
data-lua.lua	companion to luat-lib.mkiv	
data-met.lua	companion to luat-lib.mkiv	
data-out.lua	companion to luat-lib.mkiv	
data-pre.lua	companion to luat-lib.mkiv	
data-res.lua	companion to luat-lib.mkiv	
data-sch.lua	companion to luat-lib.mkiv	
data-tex.lua	companion to luat-lib.mkiv	
data-tmf.lua	companion to luat-lib.mkiv	
data-tmp.lua	companion to luat-lib.mkiv	
data-tre.lua	companion to luat-lib.mkiv	
data-use.lua	companion to luat-lib.mkiv	
data-vir.lua	companion to luat-lib.mkiv	
data-zip.lua	companion to luat-lib.mkiv	
enco-032.mkii	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Encoding Macros	Unicode Goodies
enco-037.mkii	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Unicode Macros	Encoding for vector 37
enco-acc.mkii	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Encoding Macros	Composed Characters Commands
enco-agr.mkii	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Unicode Macros	Ancient Greek
enco-ans.mkii	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Encoding Macros	y&y texnansi Encoding
enco-cas.mkii	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Encoding Macros	Named Glyph Case Mapping
enco-chi.mkii	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Encoding Macros	Traditional and Simplified Chinese
enco-com.mkii	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Encoding Macros	Composed Characters Commands
enco-cyr.mkii	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Encoding Macros	Cyrillic
enco-def.mkii	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Encoding Macros	Default Character Definitions
enco-ec.mkii	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Encoding Macros	LaT <sub>E</sub> X EC Encoding
enco-ecm.mkii	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Encoding Macros	Glyphs that may not be present in EC
enco-el.mkii	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Encoding Macros	EuroLetter
enco-fde.mkii	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Encoding Macros	German Input Filter
enco-ffr.mkii	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Encoding Macros	French Input Filter
enco-fpl.mkii	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Encoding Macros	Polish Input Filter
enco-fro.mkii	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Encoding Macros	Romanian Input Filter
enco-fs1.mkii	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Encoding Macros	Slovenian Specialities
enco-grk.mkii	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Encoding Macros	Greek
enco-heb.mkii	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Encoding Macros	Hebrew
enco-ibm.mkii		
enco-il2.mkii	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Encoding Macros	Czech and Slovak ISO Latin 2 Encoding
enco-ini.mkii (mkiv)	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Encoding Macros	Initialization
enco-l7x.mkii	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Encoding Macros	LaT <sub>E</sub> X L7x Encoding



enco-lat.mkii		
enco-mis.mkii	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Encoding Macros	Missing Glyphs
enco-pdf.mkii	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Encoding Macros	y&y texnansi Encoding
enco-pfr.mkii	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Encoding Macros	PDF Resources
enco-pol.mkii	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Encoding Macros	Polish Mixed Encoding
enco-qx.mkii	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Encoding Macros	Polish QX Encoding
enco-raw.mkii		
enco-run.mkii	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Encoding Macros	Runtime Macros
enco-t5.mkii	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Encoding Macros	New Vietnamese Encoding
enco-tbo.mkii	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Encoding Macros	TeXBaseOne Encoding
enco-uc.mkii	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Encoding Macros	Unicode (backwards mapping)
enco-vis.mkii		
enco-vna.mkii	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Encoding Macros	Vietnamese Accents
enco-win.mkii		
enco-x5.mkii	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Encoding Macros	Vietnamese Encoding
export-example.tex (css, rng)	companion to context.mkiv	
file-ini.lua (mkvi)	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt File Macros	Helpers
file-job.lua (mkvi)	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Core Macros	Job Handling
file-lib.lua (mkvi)	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt File Macros	Module Support
file-mod.lua (mkvi)	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt File Macros	Module Support
file-res.lua (mkvi)	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt File Macros	Resolvers
file-syn.lua (mkvi)	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt File Macros	Module Support
filt-bas.mkii	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Filter Macros	A Base Collection
filt-ini.mkii	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Filter Macros	Initialization
font-afk.lua	companion to font-afm.lua	
font-afm.lua	companion to font-ini.mkiv	
font-age.lua	companion to luatex-fonts.lua	
font-agl.lua	companion to font-ini.mkiv	
font-arb.mkii		
font-aux.lua (mkvi)	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Font Support	Helpers
font-bfm.mkii	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Font Macros	Mixed Normal and Bold Math
font-chi.mkii	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Font Macros	Chinese
font-chk.lua (mkiv)	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Font Macros	Checking
font-cid.lua	companion to font-otf.lua (cidmaps)	
font-col.lua (mkvi)	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Font Macros	Fallbacks (collections)
font-con.lua	companion to font-ini.mkiv	
font-ctx.lua	companion to font-ini.mkiv	
font-def.lua	companion to font-ini.mkiv	
font-emp.mkvi	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Font Macros	Emphasis
font-enc.lua	companion to font-ini.mkiv	
font-enh.lua	companion to font-ini.mkiv	
font-ext.lua	companion to font-ini.mkiv and hand-ini.mkiv	
font-fbk.lua	companion to font-ini.mkiv	
font-fea.mkvi	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Font Macros	features
font-fil.mkvi	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Font Macros	Classes and Files
font-gds.lua (mkvi)	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Font Support	Colorschemes
font-heb.mkii		
font-hsh.lua	companion to font-ini.mkiv	
font-ini.lua (mkii, mkvi)	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Font Macros	Initialization
font-jap.mkii	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Font Macros	Japanese
font-ldr.lua	companion to font-ini.mkiv	
font-lib.mkvi	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Font Macros	Libraries
font-log.lua	companion to font-ini.mkiv	
font-lua.lua	companion to font-ini.mkiv	
font-map.lua	companion to font-ini.mkiv	

font-mat.mkvi	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Font Macros	Math
font-mis.lua	companion to mtx-fonts	
font-nod.lua	companion to font-ini.mkiv	
font-odk.lua		
font-odv.lua	companion to font-ini.mkiv	
font-ota.lua	companion to font-otf.lua	
	(analysing)	
font-otb.lua	companion to font-ini.mkiv	
font-otc.lua	companion to font-otf.lua (context)	
font-otd.lua	companion to font-ini.mkiv	
font-otf.lua	companion to font-ini.mkiv	
font-oth.lua	companion to font-oth.lua	
	(helpers)	
font-oti.lua	companion to font-ini.mkiv	
font-otn.lua	companion to font-ini.mkiv	
font-otp.lua	companion to font-otf.lua (pack- ing)	
font-ott.lua	companion to font-otf.lua (tables)	
font-otx.lua	companion to font-otf.lua	
	(analysing)	
font-pat.lua	companion to font-ini.mkiv	
font-pre.mkiv	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Font Macros	Predefined
font-run.mkii (mkiv)	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Font Macros	Runtime Macros
font-set.mkvi	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Font Macros	Initial Loading
font-sol.lua (mkvi)	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Font Macros	Solutions
font-sty.mkvi	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Font Macros	Styles
font-sym.mkvi	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Font Macros	Symbolic Access
font-syn.lua	companion to font-ini.mkiv	
font-tfm.lua	companion to font-ini.mkiv	
font-tra.mkiv	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Font Macros	Tracing
font-trt.lua	companion to font-ini.mkiv	
font-uni.mkii (mkiv)	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Font Macros	Unicode
font-unk.mkii (mkiv)	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Font Macros	Unknown Defaults
font-var.mkvi	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Font Macros	Common Variables
font-vf.lua	companion to font-ini.mkiv	
font-ctx.mkii	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Font Macros	X <sub>Ǝ</sub> T <sub>E</sub> X Hacks
grph-epd.lua (mkiv)	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Graphic Macros	Merging Goodies
grph-fig.mkii (mkiv)	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Graphic Macros	Figure Inclusion
grph-fil.lua	companion to grph-fig.mkiv	
grph-inc.lua (mkii,mkiv)	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Graphic Macros	Figure Inclusion
grph-raw.lua (mkiv)	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Graphic Macros	Raw Bitmaps
grph-swf.lua	companion to grph-inc.mkiv	
grph-trf.mkii (mkiv)	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Graphic Macros	Transformations
grph-u3d.lua	companion to grph-inc.mkiv	
grph-wnd.lua	companion to grph-inc.mkiv	
hand-def.mkii	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Handling Macros	Default Protruding Factors
hand-ini.mkii (mkiv)	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Handling Macros	Initialization
java-ans.mkii	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt JavaScript Macros	Answer Analization
java-exa.mkii	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt JavaScript Macros	Example Support
java-fil.mkii	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt JavaScript Macros	Filing and Printing
java-fld.mkii	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt JavaScript Macros	Field Support
java-imp-exa.mkiv	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt JavaScript Macros	Example Support
java-imp-fil.mkiv	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt JavaScript Macros	Filing and Printing
java-imp-fld.mkiv	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt JavaScript Macros	Field Support
java-imp-rhh.mkiv	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt JavaScript Macros	Runtime Highlight Hack
java-imp-stp.mkiv	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt JavaScript Macros	Stepping
java-ini.lua (mkii,mkiv)	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt JavaScript Macros	Initialization

java-stp.mkii	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt JavaScript Macros	Stepping
l-boolean.lua	companion to luat-lib.mkiv	
l-dir.lua	companion to luat-lib.mkiv	
l-file.lua	companion to luat-lib.mkiv	
l-function.lua	companion to luat-lib.mkiv	
l-gzip.lua		
l-io.lua	companion to luat-lib.mkiv	
l-lpeg.lua	companion to luat-lib.mkiv	
l-lua.lua	companion to luat-lib.mkiv	
l-math.lua	companion to luat-lib.mkiv	
l-md5.lua		
l-number.lua	companion to luat-lib.mkiv	
l-os.lua	companion to luat-lib.mkiv	
l-package.lua	companion to luat-lib.mkiv	
l-pdfview.lua	companion to mtx-context.lua	
l-set.lua	companion to luat-lib.mkiv	
l-string.lua	companion to luat-lib.mkiv	
l-table.lua	companion to luat-lib.mkiv	
l-unicode.lua	companion to luat-lib.mkiv	
l-url.lua	companion to luat-lib.mkiv	
l-xml.lua	this module is replaced by the lxml-* ones	
lang-all.xml		
lang-alt.mkii	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Language Macros	Altaic Languages
lang-ana.mkii	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Language Macros	Anatolian Languages
lang-art.mkii	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Language Macros	Artificial Languages
lang-bal.mkii	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Language Macros	Baltic Languages
lang-cel.mkii	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Language Macros	Celtic Languages
lang-chi.mkii	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Language Macros	Chinese
lang-ctx.mkii	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Language Macros	Generic Patterns
lang-cyr.mkii	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Language Macros	Cyrillic Languages
lang-def.lua (mkiv)	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Language Macros	Languages Definitions
lang-dis.mkii	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Language Macros	Distribution Patterns
lang-frd.mkii (mkiv)	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Language Macros	Language Frequency Table Data
lang-frq.mkii (mkiv)	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Language Macros	Frequency Tables
lang-frq-de.lua		
lang-frq-en.lua		
lang-frq-nl.lua		
lang-ger.mkii	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Language Macros	Germanic Languages
lang-grk.mkii	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Language Macros	Uralic Languages
lang-ind.mkii	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Language Macros	Indo Iranian Languages
lang-ini.lua (mkii,mkiv)	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Language Macros	Initialization
lang-ita.mkii	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Language Macros	Italic Languages
lang-jap.mkii	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Language Macros	Japanese
lang-lab.lua (mkii,mkiv)	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Language Macros	Labels
lang-mis.mkii (mkiv)	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Language Macros	Compounds
lang-rep.lua	companion to lang-rep.mkiv	
lang-run.mkii	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Language Macros	Runtime Macros
lang-sla.mkii	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Language Macros	Slavic Languages
lang-spa.mkii (mkiv)	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Language Macros	Spacing
lang-spe.mkii	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Language Macros	Specifics
lang-txt.lua	companion to lang-lab.mkiv	
lang-ura.mkii	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Language Macros	Uralic Languages
lang-url.lua (mkii,mkiv)	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Language Macros	Language Options
lang-vn.mkii	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Language Macros	Vietnamese
lang-wrd.lua (mkiv)	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Language Macros	Checking
layo-ini.lua (mkiv)	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Layout Macros	Initialization

lpdf-ano.lua	companion to lpdf-ini.mkiv	
lpdf-col.lua	companion to lpdf-ini.mkiv	
lpdf-enc.lua	companion to lpdf-ini.mkiv	
lpdf-epa.lua	companion to lpdf-epa.mkiv	
lpdf-epd.lua	companion to lpdf-epa.mkiv	
lpdf-fld.lua	companion to lpdf-ini.mkiv	
lpdf-fmt.lua	companion to lpdf-ini.mkiv	
lpdf-grp.lua	companion to lpdf-ini.mkiv	
lpdf-ini.lua	companion to lpdf-ini.mkiv	
lpdf-mis.lua	companion to lpdf-ini.mkiv	
lpdf-mov.lua	companion to lpdf-ini.mkiv	
lpdf-nod.lua	companion to lpdf-ini.mkiv	
lpdf-pda.xml		
lpdf-pdx.xml		
lpdf-ren.lua	companion to lpdf-ini.mkiv	
lpdf-swf.lua	companion to lpdf-ini.mkiv	
lpdf-tag.lua	companion to lpdf-tag.mkiv	
lpdf-u3d.lua	companion to lpdf-ini.mkiv	
lpdf-wid.lua	companion to lpdf-ini.mkiv	
lpdf-xmp.lua	with help from Peter Rolf	
luat-bas.mkiv	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Lua Macros	Basic Lua Libraries
luat-bwc.lua	companion to luat-lib.mkiv	
luat-cbk.lua	companion to luat-lib.mkiv	
luat-cnf.lua	companion to luat-lib.mkiv	
luat-cod.lua (mkiv)	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Lua Macros	Code
luat-env.lua	companion to luat-lib.mkiv	
luat-exe.lua	companion to luat-lib.mkiv	
luat-fio.lua	companion to luat-lib.mkiv	
luat-fmt.lua	companion to mtxrun	
luat-ini.lua (mkiv)	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Lua Macros	Initialization
luat-iop.lua	companion to luat-lib.mkiv	
luat-lib.mkiv	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Lua Macros	Libraries
luat-lua.lua	companion to luat-lib.mkiv	
luat-mac.lua	companion to luat-lib.mkiv	
luat-run.lua	companion to luat-lib.mkiv	
luat-soc.lua		
luat-sta.lua		
luat-sto.lua	companion to luat-lib.mkiv	
lxml-aux.lua	this module is the basis for the lxml-* ones	
lxml-css.lua (mkiv)	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Modules	Css Helpers
lxml-ctx.lua (mkiv)	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt xml Support	Initialization
lxml-dir.lua	this module is the basis for the lxml-* ones	
lxml-ent.lua	this module is the basis for the lxml-* ones	
lxml-inf.lua	this module is the basis for the lxml-* ones	
lxml-ini.mkiv	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt xml Support	Initialization
lxml-lpt.lua	this module is the basis for the lxml-* ones	
lxml-mis.lua	this module is the basis for the lxml-* ones	
lxml-sor.lua (mkiv)	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt xml Support	Sorting
lxml-tab.lua	this module is the basis for the lxml-* ones	
lxml-tex.lua	companion to lxml-ini.mkiv	

lxml-xml.lua	this module is the basis for the lxml-* ones	
m-arabtex.mkii	ConTeXt Modules	Arabic
m-barcodes.mkiv	ConTeXt Extra Modules	Barcodes
m-chart.lua (mkii,mkvi)	ConTeXt Modules	Flow Charts
m-chemic.mkii (mkiv)	ConTeXt Extra Modules	ppchTeX (Plain Pictex Context cHemie TeX)
m-cweb.tex	ConTeXt Extra Modules	cweb Pretty Printing Macros
m-database.lua (mkii,mkiv)	ConTeXt Modules	Database Thingies
m-datastrc.tex	ConTeXt Modules	Database Support
m-directives.mkiv		
m-dratex.mkii	ConTeXt Extra Modules	DraTeX Loading Macros
m-edtsnc.mkii	ConTeXt Modules	Editor Synchronization
m-educat.tex	ConTeXt Extra Modules	Educational Extras
m-fields.mkiv	ConTeXt Extra Modules	Fields
m-format.tex	ConTeXt Modules	Ancient Formatting Code
m-graph.mkii (mkiv)	ConTeXt Extra Modules	MetaPost graph module support
m-hemistich.mkiv	ConTeXt Extra Modules	Hemistiches
m-ipsum.mkiv	ConTeXt Extra Modules	Ipsum
m-json.mkiv	ConTeXt Modules	Json
m-layout.tex	ConTeXt Modules	Additional Layouts
m-level.mkii	ConTeXt Extra Modules	Catching Nesting Errors
m-logcategories.mkiv		
m-markdown.lua (mkiv)	ConTeXt Modules	Processing MarkDown
m-mathcrap.mkiv	ConTeXt Modules	Math Crap
m-mkii.mkiv		
m-mkivhacks.mkiv	ConTeXt Modules	Temporary Compatibility Hacks
m-morse.mkvi	ConTeXt Extra Modules	Morse
m-narrowtt.tex	ConTeXt Modules	Narrow Verbatim
m-newmat.tex	ConTeXt Math Module	AMS-like math extensions
m-nodechart.lua (mkvi)	ConTeXt Modules	Node Visualization
m-ntb-to-xtb.mkiv		
m-obsolete.mkii (mkiv)		
m-oldfun.mkiv	ConTeXt Support Macros	Fun Stuff
m-oldnum.mkiv	ConTeXt Support Macros	Numbers
m-pdfsrc.mkii	ConTeXt Modules	Editor Synchronization
m-pictex.tex	ConTeXt Extra Modules	PjCTeX Loading Macros
m-pstricks.lua (mkii,mkiv)	ConTeXt Extra Modules	pstricks Connections
m-punk.mkiv	ConTeXt Modules	Punk Support
m-r.mkii	ConTeXt Modules	R Support
m-spreadsheet.lua (mkiv)	ConTeXt Extra Modules	Spreadsheets
m-sql.mkiv	ConTeXt Extra Modules	SQL
m-steps.lua (mkii,mkvi)	ConTeXt Modules	Step Charts & Tables
m-streams.tex	ConTeXt Modules	Streams
m-subsub.tex	ConTeXt Private Modules	More Section Levels
m-tex4ht.mkii		
m-timing.mkiv	ConTeXt Modules	Timing
m-trackers.mkiv		
m-translate.mkiv	ConTeXt Modules	Translations
m-units.mkii (mkiv)	ConTeXt Extra Modules	Scientific Units
m-visual.mkii (mkiv)	ConTeXt Extra Modules	Visualization and Faking
m-zint.mkiv	ConTeXt Extra Modules	Zint Barcode Generator
math-acc.mkvi	ConTeXt Math Macros	Accents
math-act.lua	companion to math-ini.mkiv	
math-ali.mkiv	ConTeXt Math Macros	Math Alignments
math-ams.mkii	ConTeXt Math Macros	AMS Specials
math-arr.mkii (mkiv)	ConTeXt Math Macros	Arrows

math-cow.mkii	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Math Macros	Cow Math
math-def.mkiv	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Math Macros	Definitions
math-del.mkiv	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Math Macros	Delimiters
math-dim.lua	companion to math-ini.mkiv	
math-dir.lua	companion to typo-dir.mkiv	
math-dis.mkiv	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Math Macros	Display
math-eul.mkii	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Math Macros	Virtual Euler Specials
math-ext.lua	companion to math-ini.mkiv	
math-fbk.lua	companion to math-ini.mkiv	
math-fen.mkiv	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Math Macros	Fences
math-for.mkiv	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Structure Macros	Math Numbering
math-fou.mkii	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Math Macros	Fourier Specials
math-frc.lua (mkii,mkiv)	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Math Macros	Fractions
math-ini.lua (mkii,mkiv)	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Math Macros	Initializations
math-inl.mkiv	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Math Macros	Inline
math-int.mkiv	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Math Macros	Scripts
math-lbr.mkii	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Math Macros	Lucida Specials
math-map.lua	companion to math-ini.mkiv	
math-mis.mkiv	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Math Macros	Miscellaneous
math-noa.lua	companion to math-ini.mkiv	
math-pln.mkii (mkiv)	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Math Macros	Plain Helpers
math-rad.mkvi	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Math Macros	Radicals
math-ren.lua	companion to math-ren.mkiv	
math-run.mkii	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Math Macros	Runtime Macros
math-scr.mkiv	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Math Macros	Scripts
math-stc.mkvi	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Math Macros	Stackers
math-tag.lua	companion to math-ini.mkiv	
math-tex.mkii		Plain Specials
math-tim.mkii	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Math Macros	Mathtime Specials
math-ttv.lua	traditional tex vectors, companion to math-vfu.lua	
math-uni.mkii	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Math Macros	unicode support
math-vfu.lua	companion to math-ini.mkiv	
meta-clp.mkii	MetaPost Graphics	Clipping
meta-dum.mkii	MetaPost Graphics	Dummy (External) Graphics
meta-fig.mkii (mkiv)	MetaPost Graphics	Stand Alone Graphics
meta-fnt.lua (mkiv)	MetaPost Graphics	Fonts
meta-fun.lua (mkiv)	MetaPost Graphics	Goodies
meta-grd.mkiv	MetaPost Graphics	grids
meta-imp-clp.mkiv	MetaPost Graphics	Clipping
meta-imp-dum.mkiv	MetaPost Graphics	Dummy (External) Graphics
meta-imp-fen.mkiv	MetaPost Graphics	Fences
meta-imp-mis.mkiv	MetaPost Graphics	Misc Test Graphics
meta-imp-nav.mkiv	MetaPost Graphics	Navigational Graphics
meta-imp-pre.mkiv	MetaPost Graphics	Predefined Goodies
meta-imp-txt.mkiv	MetaPost Graphics	Text Tricks
meta-ini.lua (mkii,mkiv)	MetaPost Graphics	Initialization
meta-mis.mkii	MetaPost Graphics	Misc Test Graphics
meta-nav.mkii	MetaPost Graphics	Navigational Graphics
meta-pag.mkii (mkiv)	MetaPost Graphics	Initialization
meta-pdf.lua (mkii,mkiv)	MetaPost Graphics	Conversion to pdf
meta-pdh.lua (mkiv)	MetaPost Graphics	Conversion to pdf
meta-pre.mkii	MetaPost Graphics	Predefined Goodies
meta-tex.lua (mkii,mkiv)	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Support Macros	MetaPost fast text insertion
meta-txt.mkii	MetaPost Graphics	Text Tricks
meta-xml.mkii (mkiv)	MetaPost Graphics	XML Hacks
metatex.tex (lus)	MetaT <sub>E</sub> X	MetaT <sub>E</sub> X Format Generation

mllib-ctx.lua (mkiv)	MetaPost Integrated Graphics	Basics
mllib-pdf.lua (mkiv)	MetaPost Integrated Graphics	Conversion to PDF
mllib-pps.lua (mkiv)	MetaPost Integrated Graphics	Basics
mllib-run.lua	companion to mllib-ctx.mkiv	
mtx-context-arrange.tex	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Extra Trickry	Arrange Files
mtx-context-combine.tex	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Extra Trickry	Combine Files
mtx-context-common.tex	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Extra Trickry	Common Stuff
mtx-context-copy.tex	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Extra Trickry	Copying Files
mtx-context-ideas.tex	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Extra Trickry	Placeholder File
mtx-context-listing.tex	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Extra Trickry	Listing Files
mtx-context-markdown.tex	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Extra Trickry	Rendering Markdown Files
mtx-context-select.tex	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Extra Trickry	Selecting Files
mtx-context-sql.tex	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Extra Trickry	SQL Tables
mtx-context-timing.tex	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Extra Trickry	Timing Runs
mtx-context-xml.tex	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Extra Trickry	Analyzing XML files
mult-aux.lua (mkii,mkiv)	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Multilingual Macros	helpers
mult-chk.lua (mkii,mkiv)	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Multilingual Macros	Checking
mult-com.mkii	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Multilingual Macros	Commands
mult-con.mkii	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Multilingual Macros	Constants
mult-de.mkii		
mult-def.lua (mkii,mkiv)	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Multilingual Macros	Definitions
mult-dim.mkvi	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Core Macros	General
mult-en.mkii		
mult-fr.mkii		
mult-fst.mkii	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Multilingual Macros	Speed Up
mult-fun.lua		
mult-ini.lua (mkii,mkiv)	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Multilingual Macros	Initialization
mult-it.mkii		
mult-low.lua	companion to mult-ini.mkiv	
mult-mcs.mkii		
mult-mde.mkii		
mult-men.mkii		
mult-mes.lua	companion to mult-ini.mkiv	
mult-mfr.mkii		
mult-mit.mkii		
mult-mnl.mkii		
mult-mno.mkii		
mult-mpe.mkii		
mult-mps.lua		
mult-mro.mkii		
mult-nl.mkii		
mult-pe.mkii		
mult-prm.lua (mkiv)	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Multilingual Macros	Primitives
mult-ro.mkii		
mult-sys.mkii (mkiv)	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Multilingual Macros	System
node-acc.lua	companion to node-ini.mkiv	
node-aux.lua	companion to node-ini.mkiv	
node-bck.lua (mkiv)	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Node Macros	Backgrounds
node-dir.lua	companion to node-ini.mkiv	
node-ext.lua	companion to node-ini.mkiv	
node-fin.lua (mkiv)	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Node Macros	Finalizing
node-fnt.lua	companion to font-ini.mkiv	
node-ini.lua (mkiv)	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Node Macros	Initialization
node-inj.lua	companion to node-ini.mkiv	
node-ltp.lua	a translation of the built in par-builder, initial convertsin by Taco Hoekwater	

node-met.lua		
node-mig.lua	(mkiv)	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Node Macros
node-pag.lua	(mkiv)	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Node Macros
node-pro.lua		companion to node-ini.mkiv
node-ref.lua		companion to node-ref.mkiv
node-res.lua		companion to node-ini.mkiv
node-rul.lua	(mkiv)	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Core Macros
node-ser.lua		companion to node-ini.mkiv
node-shp.lua		companion to node-ini.mkiv
node-snp.lua		companion to node-ini.mkiv
node-tex.lua		companion to node-ini.mkiv
node-tra.lua		companion to node-ini.mkiv
node-tsk.lua		companion to node-ini.mkiv
node-tst.lua		companion to node-ini.mkiv
node-typ.lua		companion to node-ini.mkiv
norm-alo.mkii		ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Norm Macros
norm-ctx.mkii	(mkiv)	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Norm Macros
norm-etx.mkii		ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Norm Macros
norm-ltx.mkii		ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Norm Macros
norm-ptx.mkii		ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Norm Macros
norm-tex.mkii		ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Norm Macros
norm-xtx.mkii		ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Norm Macros
pack-bar.mkiv		ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Packaging Macros
pack-bck.mkvi		ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Packaging Macros
pack-box.mkii	(mkiv)	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Packaging Macros
pack-com.mkiv		ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Packing Macros
pack-cut.mkiv		ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Packaging Macros
pack-fen.mkiv		ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Packaging Macros
pack-lyr.mkii	(mkiv)	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Packaging Macros
pack-mis.mkvi		ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Core Macros
pack-mrl.mkiv		ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Packaging Macros
pack-obj.lua	(mkii,mkiv)	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Packaging Macros
pack-pos.mkiv		ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Packaging Macros
pack-rul.lua	(mkii,mkiv)	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Packaging Macros
page-app.mkii	(mkiv)	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Page Macros
page-bck.mkii	(mkiv)	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Page Macros
page-box.mkvi		ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Page Macros
page-brk.mkiv		ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Page Macros
page-col.mkiv		ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Page Macros
page-com.mkiv		ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Page Macros
page-fac.mkiv		ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Page Macros
page-flt.lua	(mkiv)	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Page Macros
page-flw.mkii	(mkiv)	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Page Macros
page-grd.mkiv		ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Page Macros
page-imp.mkii	(mkiv)	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Page Macros
page-inf.mkiv		ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Page Macros
page-ini.mkii	(mkiv)	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Page Macros
page-inj.lua	(mkvi)	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Page Module
page-ins.lua	(mkii,mkiv)	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Insertion Macros
page-lay.mkii	(mkiv)	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Page Macros
page-lin.lua	(mkii,mkiv)	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Core Macros
page-log.mkii		ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Page Macros
page-mak.mkii	(mkvi)	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Page Macros
page-mar.mkii		ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Page Macros
page-mbk.mkvi		ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Page Macros
page-mis.mkii		ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Page Macros
page-mix.lua	(mkiv)	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Page Macros
		Inserts
		Page Building
		Bars
		Aleph and Omega
		Aleph and Omega
		$\epsilon$ -T <sub>E</sub> X
		LuaT <sub>E</sub> X
		pdfT <sub>E</sub> X
		T <sub>E</sub> X
		X <sub>Ǝ</sub> T <sub>E</sub> X
		Bars
		Simple Backgrounds
		Boxes
		Combinations
		Cut boxes
		Fences for Ruled Content
		Layers
		Miscellaneous
		More Rules
		Objects
		Positioning
		Ruled Content
		Independent page building
		Backgrounds
		Page Boxing
		Breaks
		Column Helpers
		Page Comments
		Facing Pages
		Float Management
		Text Flows
		Grids
		Pagebody Building (Imposition)
		Tracing Info
		Initializations
		Injections
		Insertions
		Layout Specification
		Line Numbering
		Logos
		Simple MakeUp
		Marginal Things
		Margin Floats
		Misc Float Things
		Mixed Columns



page-mrk.mkiv	ConTeXt Page Macros	Cutmarks and Colorbars
page-mul.mkii (mkiv)	ConTeXt Page Macros	Multi Column Output
page-not.mkii (mkiv)	ConTeXt Page Macros	Footnotes
page-one.mkii (mkiv)	ConTeXt Page Macros	Default Routine
page-otr.mkvi	ConTeXt Page Macros	Output Routines
page-par.mkii (mkiv)	ConTeXt Page Macros	Line Numbering
page-plg.mkii (mkiv)	ConTeXt Page Macros	Page Setup
page-pst.lua (mkiv)	ConTeXt Page Macros	Postponing
page-run.mkii (mkiv)	ConTeXt Page Macros	Runtime Macros
page-sel.mkvi	ConTeXt Page Macros	Page Selection
page-set.mkii (mkiv)	ConTeXt Page Macros	Column Sets
page-sid.mkii (mkiv)	ConTeXt Page Macros	Side Floats
page-spr.mkii (mkiv)	ConTeXt Page Macros	Spreading
page-str.lua (mkii,mkiv)	ConTeXt Page Macros	Page Streams
page-txt.mkii (mkvi)	ConTeXt Page Macros	Texts
page-var.mkiv	ConTeXt Page Macros	Variables
pdfr-def.mkii		
pdfr-ec.mkii	ConTeXt PDF Font Resources	EC encoding
pdfr-il2.mkii	ConTeXt PDF Font Resources	ISO Latin 2
phys-dim.lua (mkiv)	ConTeXt Physics	Digits and Units
ppchtex.mkii (mkiv)	ConTeXt Extra Modules	ppchTeX (Plain Pictex Context cHemie TeX)
		Initialization
prop-ini.mkii (mkiv)	ConTeXt Property Macros	Layers
prop-lay.mkii	ConTeXt Property Macros	Miscellaneous
prop-mis.mkii	ConTeXt Property Macros	iso-8859-1 (West European)
regi-8859-1.lua (mkii)	ConTeXt Encoding Macros	iso-8859-10 (Nordic)
regi-8859-10.lua (mkii)	ConTeXt Encoding Macros	
regi-8859-11.lua	companion to regi-ini.mkiv	iso-8859-13 (Baltic)
regi-8859-13.lua (mkii)	ConTeXt Encoding Macros	
regi-8859-14.lua	companion to regi-ini.mkiv	iso-8859-15 (West European)
regi-8859-15.lua (mkii)	ConTeXt Encoding Macros	iso-8859-16 (Romanian)
regi-8859-16.lua (mkii)	ConTeXt Encoding Macros	iso-8859-2 (East European)
regi-8859-2.lua (mkii)	ConTeXt Encoding Macros	iso-8859-3 (South European)
regi-8859-3.lua (mkii)	ConTeXt Encoding Macros	iso-8859-4 (North European)
regi-8859-4.lua (mkii)	ConTeXt Encoding Macros	iso-8859-5 (Cyrillic)
regi-8859-5.lua (mkii)	ConTeXt Encoding Macros	
regi-8859-6.lua	companion to regi-ini.mkiv	iso-8859-7 (Greek)
regi-8859-7.lua (mkii)	ConTeXt Encoding Macros	
regi-8859-8.lua	companion to regi-ini.mkiv	iso-8859-9 (Turkish)
regi-8859-9.lua (mkii)	ConTeXt Encoding Macros	cp1250 (East European)
regi-cp1250.lua (mkii)	ConTeXt Encoding Macros	cp1251 (Cyrillic)
regi-cp1251.lua (mkii)	ConTeXt Encoding Macros	cp1252 (West European)
regi-cp1252.lua (mkii)	ConTeXt Encoding Macros	cp1253 (Greek)
regi-cp1253.lua (mkii)	ConTeXt Encoding Macros	cp1254 (Turkish)
regi-cp1254.lua (mkii)	ConTeXt Encoding Macros	
regi-cp1255.lua	companion to regi-ini.mkiv	
regi-cp1256.lua	companion to regi-ini.mkiv	cp1257 (Windows Baltic)
regi-cp1257.lua (mkii)	ConTeXt Encoding Macros	
regi-cp1258.lua	companion to regi-ini.mkiv	Cyrillic Plus
regi-cyp.mkii	ConTeXt Encoding Macros	Cyrillic
regi-cyr.mkii	ConTeXt Encoding Macros	Default Character Definitions
regi-def.mkii	ConTeXt Regime Macros	
regi-demo.lua	companion to regi-ini.mkiv	The Good Old MSDOS IBM codepage
regi-ibm.mkii	ConTeXt Encoding Macros	Initialization
regi-ini.lua (mkii,mkiv)	ConTeXt Regime Macros	Mac Encoding
regi-mac.mkii	ConTeXt Encoding Macros	Synonyms
regi-syn.mkii	ConTeXt Regime Macros	

regi-uni.mkii	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Encoding Macros	Unicode
regi-utf.mkii	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Encoding Macros	UTF-8
regi-vis.mkii	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Encoding Macros	viscii
rlxcache.rlx		
rlxtools.rlx		
s-abr-01.tex	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Style File	General Abbreviations 1
s-abr-02.tex	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Style File	General Abbreviations 2
s-abr-03.tex	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Style File	General Abbreviations 3
s-abr-04.tex	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Style File	General Abbreviations 2
s-art-01.mkiv		
s-cdr-01.tex	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Style File	CDROM Cover
s-chi-00.mkii	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Style File	Basic Chinese Style
s-def-01.mkiv		
s-faq-00.tex	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Style File	FAQ Common Macros
s-faq-01.tex	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Style File	FAQ Interactive Version
s-faq-02.tex	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Style File	FAQ Paper Version
s-faq-03.tex	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Style File	FAQ General Framework
s-fnt-01.mkii	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Style File	Font Environment 1
s-fnt-02.mkii		
s-fnt-10.mkiv	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Style File	Listing Glyphs in Large Fonts
s-fnt-20.mkiv	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Style File	Tracing Feature Application (1)
s-fnt-21.mkiv	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Style File	Tracing Feature Application (2)
s-fnt-24.mkiv	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Style File	CJK Glyph Combination Testing
s-fonts-coverage.lua (mkiv)	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Style File	Show Fonts Coverage
s-fonts-features.lua (mkiv)	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Style File	Features
s-fonts-goodies.lua (mkiv)	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Style File	Goodies Tables
s-fonts-missing.lua (mkiv)	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Style File	Some Missing Character Info
s-fonts-shapes.lua (mkiv)	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Style File	Tracing Shapes
s-fonts-system.lua (mkiv)	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Style File	Listing Installed Fonts
s-fonts-tables.lua (mkiv)	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Style File	Basic Font Data Tables
s-fonts-vectors.lua (mkiv)	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Style File	Protrusion and Expansion
s-grk-00.mkii	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Style File	CB Greek Support
s-inf-01.mkvi	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Style File	Information 1 (MkII/MkIV usage)
s-inf-02.mkiv	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Style File	Information 2 (filenames)
s-inf-03.mkiv (pdf)		
s-inf-04.mkiv		
s-jap-00.mkii	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Style File	Basic Japanese Style
s-languages-counters.lua (mkiv)	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Style File	Language Counters
s-languages-frequencies.lua (mkiv)	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Style File	Language Frequencies
s-languages-hyphenation.lua (mkiv)	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Style File	Language Hyphenation
s-languages-sorting.lua (mkiv)	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Style File	Language Sorting
s-languages-system.lua (mkiv)	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Style File	Installed Languages
s-mag-01.tex	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Style File	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Magazine Base Style
s-map-10.mkii (mkiv)	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Style File	Maps journal style
s-math-characters.lua (mkiv)	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Style File	Math Glyph Checking
s-math-coverage.lua (mkiv)	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Style File	Show Math Coverage
s-math-extensibles.mkiv	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Style File	Math Stackers Checking
s-math-parameters.lua (mkiv)	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Style File	Show Math Parameters
s-math-repertoire.mkiv	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Style File	Show Math Character Repertoire
s-mod.ctx		
s-mod-00.mkii (mkiv)	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Style File	Documentation Base Environment
s-mod-01.mkii (mkiv)	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Style File	Module Documentation
s-mod-02.mkii (mkiv)	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Style File	Documentation Screen Environment
s-pages-statistics.mkiv	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Style File	Page Statistics

s-physics-units.mkiv	ConTeXt Modules	Physics Units
s-pre-00.tex	ConTeXt Style File	Presentation Environment 0
s-pre-01.tex	ConTeXt Style File	Presentation Environment 1
s-pre-02.tex	ConTeXt Style File	Presentation Environment 2
s-pre-03.tex	ConTeXt Style File	Presentation Environment 3
s-pre-04.tex	ConTeXt Style File	Presentation Environment 4
s-pre-05.tex	ConTeXt Style File	Presentation Environment 5
s-pre-06.tex	ConTeXt Style File	Presentation Environment 6
s-pre-07.tex	ConTeXt Style File	Presentation Environment 7
s-pre-08.tex	ConTeXt Style File	Presentation Environment 8
s-pre-09.tex	ConTeXt Style File	Presentation Environment 9
s-pre-10.tex	ConTeXt Style File	Presentation Environment 10
s-pre-11.tex	ConTeXt Style File	Presentation Environment 11
s-pre-12.tex	ConTeXt Style File	Presentation Environment 12
s-pre-13.tex	ConTeXt Style File	Presentation Environment 13
s-pre-14.tex	ConTeXt Style File	Presentation Environment 14
s-pre-15.tex	ConTeXt Style File	Presentation Environment 15
s-pre-16.tex	ConTeXt Style File	Presentation Environment 16
s-pre-17.mkii (mkiv)	ConTeXt Style File	Presentation Environment 17
s-pre-18.tex	ConTeXt Style File	Presentation Environment 18
s-pre-19.tex	ConTeXt Style File	Presentation Environment 19
s-pre-22.tex	ConTeXt Style File	Presentation Environment 22
s-pre-23.tex	ConTeXt Style File	Presentation Environment 20
s-pre-26.tex	ConTeXt Style File	Presentation Environment 26
s-pre-27.tex	ConTeXt Style File	Presentation Environment 27
s-pre-30.mkii (mkiv)	ConTeXt Style File	Presentation Environment 30
s-pre-50.tex	ConTeXt Style File	Presentation Environment 50
s-pre-60.mkii (mkiv)	ConTeXt Style File	Presentation Environment 60
s-pre-61.tex	ConTeXt Style File	Presentation Environment 61
s-pre-62.tex	ConTeXt Style File	Presentation Environment 62
s-pre-63.tex	ConTeXt Style File	Presentation Environment 63
s-pre-64.tex	ConTeXt Style File	Presentation Environment 64
s-pre-66.tex	ConTeXt Style File	Presentation Environment 66
s-pre-67.tex		
s-pre-68.tex	ConTeXt Style File	Presentation Environment 68
s-pre-69.mkiv	ConTeXt Style File	Presentation Environment 69
s-pre-70.mkiv	ConTeXt Style File	Presentation Environment 70
s-pre-71.lua (mkii,mkiv)	ConTeXt Style File	Presentation Environment 71
s-pre-93.tex	ConTeXt Style File	Presentation Environment 20
s-pre-96.tex	ConTeXt Style File	Presentation Environment 26
s-present-tiles.mkiv	ConTeXt Style File	Presentation Environment Tiles
s-ptj-01.tex	ConTeXt Style File	PracTeX Journal Style
s-reg-01.mkiv	ConTeXt Style File	Extra Regime Support
s-set-31.mkiv		
s-sql-tables.lua (mkiv)	ConTeXt Extra Modules	SQL
s-syn-01.tex	ConTeXt Style File	Preliminary Syntax Stuff
scrn-bar.mkvi	ConTeXt Core Macros	Progress Bars
scrn-but.lua (mkvi)	ConTeXt Core Macros	Interaction
scrn-fld.lua (mkii,mkvi)	ConTeXt Screen Macros	Fields
scrn-hlp.lua (mkii,mkvi)	ConTeXt Screen Macros	Help (Experimental)
scrn-ini.lua (mkvi)	ConTeXt Interaction Macros	Initialization
scrn-int.mkii	ConTeXt Core Macros	Interaction
scrn-nav.mkii	ConTeXt Core Macros	Navigation
scrn-pag.lua (mkvi)	ConTeXt Screen Macros	Pages
scrn-ref.lua (mkvi)	ConTeXt Screen Macros	References
scrn-wid.lua (mkvi)	ConTeXt Core Macros	Widgets
scrp-cjk.lua	companion to scrp-ini.mkiv	

scrp-eth.lua	companion to scrp-ini.mkiv	
scrp-ini.lua (mkiv)	ConTeXt Script Macros	Initialization
scrp-tha.lua	companion to scrp-ini.mkiv	
sort-def.mkii	ConTeXt Sort Macros	Defaults
sort-ini.lua (mkii,mkiv)	ConTeXt Sorting Macros	Initialization
sort-lan.lua (mkii)	ConTeXt Sort Macros	Language Definitions
spac-adj.lua (mkiv)	ConTeXt Spacing Macros	Paragraphs
spac-ali.lua (mkiv)	ConTeXt Spacing Macros	Alignments
spac-cha.mkiv	ConTeXt Spacing Macros	Character Alignment
spac-chr.lua (mkiv)	ConTeXt Spacing Macros	Characters
spac-def.mkiv	ConTeXt Spacing Macros	Definitions
spac-flr.mkiv	ConTeXt Spacing Macros	Fillers
spac-gen.mkii	ConTeXt Core Macros	Spacing
spac-grd.mkii (mkiv)	ConTeXt Spacing Macros	Grid Snapping
spac-hor.lua (mkiv)	ConTeXt Spacing Macros	Horizontal
spac-lin.mkiv	ConTeXt Spacing Macros	Vertical
spac-pag.mkiv	ConTeXt Spacing Macros	Pages
spac-par.mkiv	ConTeXt Spacing Macros	Paragraphs
spac-ver.lua (mkiv)	ConTeXt Spacing Macros	Vertical
spec-def.mkii	ConTeXt Special Macros	Definitions
spec-dpm.mkii	ConTeXt Special Macros	DVIPDFM support
spec-dpx.mkii	ConTeXt Special Macros	DVIPDFMx support
spec-dvi.mkii	ConTeXt Special Macros	Generic TeX Solutions
spec-fdf.mkii	ConTeXt pdf Macros	Support Macros
spec-ini.mkii	ConTeXt Special Macros	Initialization
spec-mis.mkii	ConTeXt Special Macros	Miscellaneous Macros
spec-pdf.mkii	ConTeXt Special Macros	Adobe Acrobat version 2.1
spec-ps.mkii	ConTeXt Special Macros	Adobe PostScript
spec-tpd.mkii	ConTeXt Special Macros	pdfTeX
spec-tr.mkii	ConTeXt Special Macros	Thomas Rokicki's dvips
spec-tst.mkii	ConTeXt pdf Macros	Special Test Macro
spec-var.mkii	ConTeXt Special Macros	Variables
spec-win.mkii	ConTeXt Special Macros	y&y's dviwindo
spec-xet.mkii	ConTeXt Special Macros	X <sub>Y</sub> TeX support
spec-xtx.mkii	ConTeXt Special Macros	X <sub>Y</sub> TeX support
spec-yy.mkii	ConTeXt Special Macros	y&y's dvipsone and dviwindo
status-files.pdf		
status-lua.log		
status-mkiv.tex (lua)	stub file for context	
strc-bkm.lua (mkiv)	ConTeXt Structure Macros	Bookmarks
strc-blk.lua (mkii,mkiv)	ConTeXt Structure Macros	Blockmoves
strc-con.lua (mkvi)	ConTeXt Structure Macros	Constructions
strc-def.mkiv	ConTeXt Structure Macros	Definitions
strc-des.mkii (mkvi)	ConTeXt Structure Macros	Descriptions
strc-doc.lua (mkiv)	ConTeXt Structure Macros	Document Structure
strc-enu.mkvi	ConTeXt Structure Macros	Enumerations
strc-flt.lua (mkii,mkvi)	ConTeXt Structure Macros	Float Numbering
strc-ind.mkiv	ConTeXt Structure Macros	Indented Text
strc-ini.lua (mkvi)	ConTeXt Structure Macros	Initialization & Helpers
strc-itm.lua (mkii,mkvi)	ConTeXt Structure Macros	itemgroups
strc-lab.mkiv	ConTeXt Structure Macros	Labels
strc-lev.lua (mkvi)	ConTeXt Structure Macros	Automatic Levels
strc-lnt.mkii (mkvi)	ConTeXt Structure Macros	Line Notes
strc-lst.lua (mkii,mkvi)	ConTeXt Structure Macros	Lists
strc-mar.lua (mkii,mkiv)	ConTeXt Structure Macros	Markings
strc-mat.lua (mkii,mkiv)	ConTeXt Structure Macros	Math Numbering
strc-not.lua (mkii,mkvi)	ConTeXt Structure Macros	Note Handling

<code>strc-num.lua</code> (mkii,mkiv)	ConTeXt Structure Macros	Basic Numbering
<code>strc-pag.lua</code> (mkii,mkiv)	ConTeXt Structure Macros	Numbering
<code>strc-ref.lua</code> (mkii,mkiv)	ConTeXt Structure Macros	Cross Referencing
<code>strc-reg.lua</code> (mkii,mkiv)	ConTeXt Structure Macros	Register Management
<code>strc-ren.mkiv</code>	ConTeXt Structure Macros	Section Rendering
<code>strc-rsc.lua</code>	companion to strc-ref.mkiv	
<code>strc-sbe.mkiv</code>	ConTeXt Structure Macros	Section Block Environments
<code>strc-sec.mkii</code> (mkiv)	ConTeXt Structure Macros	Sectioning
<code>strc-swd.mkii</code>	ConTeXt Structure Macros	Section Worlds
<code>strc-syn.lua</code> (mkii,mkiv)	ConTeXt Structure Macros	Synonyms and Sorting
<code>strc-tag.lua</code> (mkiv)	ConTeXt Structure Macros	Tags
<code>strc-xml.mkiv</code>	ConTeXt Structure Macros	XML Processing
<code>supp-ali.mkii</code>	ConTeXt Support Macros	Alignment
<code>supp-box.lua</code> (mkii,mkiv)	ConTeXt Support Macros	Boxes
<code>supp-dir.mkii</code> (mkiv)	ConTeXt Support Macros	Directional Things
<code>supp-emp.mkii</code>	ConTeXt Support Macros	emTeX specials to pdf conversion
<code>supp-eps.mkii</code>	ConTeXt Support Macros	eps tools
<code>supp-fil.mkii</code>	ConTeXt Support Macros	Files
<code>supp-fun.mkii</code>	ConTeXt Support Macros	Fun Stuff
<code>supp-lat.mkii</code>	ConTeXt System Macros	General
<code>supp-mat.mkii</code> (mkiv)	ConTeXt Support Macros	Math
<code>supp-mis.tex</code> (mkii)	ConTeXt Support Macros	Missing (For Generic Use)
<code>supp-mpe.tex</code> (mkii)	ConTeXt Support Macros	METAPOST Special Extensions
<code>supp-mps.mkii</code>	ConTeXt Support Macros	MetaPost Inclusion
<code>supp-mrk.mkii</code>	ConTeXt Support Macros	Marks
<code>supp-num.mkii</code>	ConTeXt Support Macros	Numbers
<code>supp-pat.mkii</code>	ConTeXt Support Macros	Patterns
<code>supp-pdf.tex</code> (mkii)	ConTeXt Support Macros	MetaPost to pdf conversion
<code>supp-ran.lua</code> (mkii,mkiv)	ConTeXt Support Macros	Random Number Generation
<code>supp-spe.mkii</code>	ConTeXt Support Macros	Specials
<code>supp-tpi.mkii</code>	ConTeXt Support Macros	tpic Conversion
<code>supp-vis.mkii</code> (mkiv)	ConTeXt Support Macros	Visualization
<code>symb-cow.mkii</code>	ConTeXt Symbol Libraries	Cow Symbols
<code>symb-eur.mkii</code>	ConTeXt Symbol Libraries	Adobe Euro Symbols
<code>symb-glm.mkii</code>	ConTeXt Symbol Libraries	Guillemots
<code>symb-imp-cc.mkiv</code>	ConTeXt Symbol Libraries	Creative Commons
<code>symb-imp-cow.mkiv</code>	ConTeXt Symbol Libraries	Cow Symbols
<code>symb-imp-eur.mkiv</code>	ConTeXt Symbol Libraries	Adobe Euro Symbols
<code>symb-imp-jmn.mkiv</code>	ConTeXt Symbol Libraries	Special Navigational Symbols
<code>symb-imp-mis.mkiv</code>	ConTeXt Symbol Libraries	Miscellaneous
<code>symb-imp-mvs.mkiv</code>	ConTeXt Symbol Libraries	Martin Vogels Symbole
<code>symb-imp-nav.mkiv</code>	ConTeXt Symbol Libraries	Navigational Symbols
<code>symb-ini.lua</code> (mkii,mkiv)	ConTeXt Symbol Libraries	Basic Symbols Commands
<code>symb-jmn.mkii</code>	ConTeXt Symbol Libraries	Special Navigational Symbols
<code>symb-mis.mkii</code>	ConTeXt Symbol Libraries	Miscellaneous
<code>symb-mvs.mkii</code>	ConTeXt Symbol Libraries	Martin Vogels Symbole
<code>symb-nav.mkii</code>	ConTeXt Symbol Libraries	Navigational Symbols
<code>symb-run.mkii</code> (mkiv)	ConTeXt Symbol Libraries	Runtime Macros
<code>symb-uni.mkii</code>	ConTeXt Symbol Libraries	Unicode Symbols
<code>symb-was.mkii</code>	ConTeXt Symbol Libraries	Roland Waldi's Symbols (wasy-2)
<code>syst-aux.lua</code> (mkiv)	ConTeXt System Macros	General
<code>syst-con.lua</code> (mkii,mkiv)	ConTeXt System Macros	Conversions
<code>syst-ext.mkii</code>	ConTeXt System Macros	Extras
<code>syst-fnt.mkii</code> (mkiv)	ConTeXt System Macros	Font Things
<code>syst-gen.mkii</code>	ConTeXt System Macros	General
<code>syst-ini.mkii</code> (mkiv)	ConTeXt System Macros	Bootstrapping TeX
<code>syst-lua.lua</code> (mkiv)	ConTeXt System Macros	Helper macros based on Lua

syst-mes.mkiv	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt System Macros	Messages
syst-new.mkii	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Support Macros	New Ones
syst-pln.mkii (mkiv)	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt System Macros	Efficient Plain T <sub>E</sub> X loading
syst-rtp.mkii (mkiv)	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Core Macros	Run Time Processes
syst-str.mkii	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt System Macros	String Processing
syst-tex.mkii	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt System Macros	Efficient Plain T <sub>E</sub> X loading
tabl-com.mkii (mkiv)	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Table Macros	Common Code
tabl-ltb.mkii (mkiv)	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Table Macros	Line Tables
tabl-mis.mkiv	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Table Macros	Miscellaneous
tabl-ntb.mkii (mkiv)	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Table Macros	Natural Tables
tabl-nte.mkii (mkiv)	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Table Macros	Natural Tables Extensions
tabl-pln.mkii (mkiv)		
tabl-tab.mkii (mkiv)	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Table Macros	T <sub>A</sub> B <sub>L</sub> E Embedding
tabl-tbl.lua (mkii,mkiv)	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Table Macros	Text Flow Tabulation
tabl-tsp.mkii (mkiv)	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Table Macros	Splitting
tabl-xnt.mkvi	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Table Macros	Natural to Xtreme Tables
tabl-xtb.lua (mkvi)	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Table Macros	Xtreme
task-ini.lua (mkiv)	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Task Handler	Initialization
thrd-pic.mkii		
thrd-ran.mkii		
thrd-tab.mkii		
thrd-trg.mkii		
toks-ini.lua (mkiv)	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Token Support	Initialization
trac-ctx.lua (mkiv)	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Tracing Macros	TeX Trackers
trac-deb.lua (mkiv)	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Tracing Macros	Debugger
trac-exp.lua	companion to trac-log.mkiv	
trac-fil.lua	for the moment for myself	
trac-inf.lua	companion to trac-inf.mkiv	
trac-jus.lua (mkiv)	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Tracing Macros	Justification
trac-lmx.lua	companion to trac-lmx.mkiv	
trac-log.lua	companion to trac-log.mkiv	
trac-pro.lua	companion to luat-lib.mkiv	
trac-set.lua	companion to luat-lib.mkiv	
trac-tex.lua (mkiv)	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Tracking Macros	T <sub>E</sub> X
trac-tim.lua	companion to m-timing.tex	
trac-vis.lua (mkii,mkiv)	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Tracing Macros	Visualization
trac-xml.lua	companion to trac-log.mkiv	
type-buy.mkii	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Typescript Macros	A Few Commercial Fonts
type-cbg.mkii	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Typescript Macros	CB Greek
type-cow.mkii	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Typescript Macros	Cow Fonts
type-def.mkii (mkiv)	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Typescript Macros	Default Definitions
type-exp.mkii	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Typescript Macros	Experimental Definitions
type-fbk.mkiv	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Typescript Macros	Fallbacks
type-fsf.mkii	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Page Macros	Fontsite 500
type-ghz.mkii	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Typescript Macros	Hermann Zapf's Fonts
type-hgz.mkii		
type-imp-antykwa.mkiv	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Typescript Macros	Antykwa Torunska
type-imp-antypolnawskiego. mkiv	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Typescript Macros	Antykwa Polnawskiego
type-imp-asana.mkiv	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Typescript Macros	Asana
type-imp-averia.mkiv	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Typescript Macros	Averia fonts (iotic.com)
type-imp-buy.mkiv	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Typescript Macros	A Few Commercial Fonts
type-imp-cambria.mkiv	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Typescript Macros	Microsoft Cambria
type-imp-charter.mkiv	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Typescript Macros	Charter
type-imp-cleartype.mkiv	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Typescript Macros	Microsoft Cleartype
type-imp-computer-modern- unicode.mkiv	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Typescript Macros	Computer Modern Unicode

type-imp-cow.mkiv	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Typescript Macros	Cow Fonts
type-imp-dejavu.mkiv	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Typescript Macros	Dejavu fonts (dejavu-fonts.org)
type-imp-euler.mkiv	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Typescript Macros	Euler
type-imp-ghz.mkiv	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Typescript Macros	Hermann Zapf's Fonts
type-imp-hgz.mkiv		
type-imp-husayni.mkiv	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Typescript Macros	Husayni
type-imp-hvmath.mkiv	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Typescript Macros	HV Math Fonts
type-imp-inconsolata.mkiv	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Typescript Macros	Inconsolata
type-imp-informal.mkiv	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Typescript Macros	Informal by M. Vulis
type-imp-iwona.mkiv	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Typescript Macros	Iwona
type-imp-kurier.mkiv	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Typescript Macros	Kurier by JMN
type-imp-latinmodern.mkiv	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Typescript Macros	Latin Modern
type-imp-liberation.mkiv	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Typescript Macros	Liberation fonts
type-imp-libertine.mkiv	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Typescript Macros	Libertine fonts
type-imp-lmnames.mkiv	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Typescript Macros	Opentype Definitions
type-imp-lucida-opentype. mkiv	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Typescript Macros	Lucida Nova Opentype
type-imp-lucida-typeone.mkiv	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Typescript Macros	Lucida
type-imp-mathdesign.mkiv	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Typescript Macros	Mathdesign
type-imp-mathdigits.mkiv	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Typescript Macros	Xits
type-imp-mathtimes.mkiv	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Typescript Macros	Math Times
type-imp-mscore.mkiv	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Typescript Macros	Microsoft Core Fonts
type-imp-opendyslexic.mkiv	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Typescript Macros	Opendyslexic Fonts
type-imp-osx.mkiv	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Typescript Macros	Mac OS X Definitions
type-imp-postscript.mkiv	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Typescript Macros	Basic Font Set
type-imp-punknova.mkiv	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Typescript Macros	Punk Nova
type-imp-texgyre.mkiv	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Typescript Macros	T <sub>E</sub> XGyre Fonts
type-imp-unfonts.mkiv	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Typescript Macros	UnFonts
type-imp-xits.mkiv	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Typescript Macros	Xits
type-imp-xitsbidi.mkiv	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Typescript Macros	Xits
type-ini.lua (mkii,mkvi)	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Typescript Macros	Initialization
type-lua.mkiv	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Typescript Macros	MkIV goodies
type-mac.mkii	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Typescript Macros	Mac OS X Definitions
type-msw.mkii		
type-one.mkii (mkiv)	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Typescript Macros	Type One Definitions
type-otf.mkii (mkiv)	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Typescript Macros	Opentype Definitions
type-pre.mkii	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Typescript Macros	Compatibility scripts
type-run.mkii (mkiv)	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Typescript Macros	Runtime Macros
type-set.mkii (mkiv)	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Typescript Macros	Default Settings
type-siz.mkii (mkiv)	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Typescript Macros	Sizing scripts
type-tmf.mkii (mkiv)	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Typescript Macros	Core T <sub>E</sub> X Fonts
type-win.mkii	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Typescript Macros	Microsoft Windows Fonts
type-ctx.mkii	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Typescript Macros	X <sub>Y</sub> T <sub>E</sub> X's font treasures
typo-bld.lua (mkiv)	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Typesetting Macros	Paragraph Building
typo-brk.lua (mkiv)	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Typesetting Macros	Breakpoints
typo-cap.lua (mkiv)	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Typesetting Macros	Capping
typo-cln.lua (mkiv)	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Typesetting Macros	Cleaning
typo-del.mkiv	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Typesetting Macros	Delimited Content
typo-dha.lua	companion to typo-dir.mkiv	
typo-dig.lua (mkiv)	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Typesetting Macros	Digits
typo-dir.lua (mkiv)	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Typesetting Macros	Directions
typo-drp.lua (mkiv)	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Typesetting Macros	Initials
typo-dua.lua	Unicode bidi (sort of) variant a	
typo-dub.lua	Unicode bidi (sort of) variant b	
typo-fln.lua (mkiv)	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Typesetting Macros	First Lines
typo-ini.lua (mkii,mkiv)	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Typographic Macros	Initialization
typo-itc.lua (mkvi)	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Typesetting Macros	Italic Correction

typo-itm.mkiv	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Typesetting Macros	Item Lists
typo-krn.lua (mkiv)	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Typesetting Macros	Spacing
typo-lan.lua (mkiv)	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Typesetting Macros	Language Goodies
typo-mar.lua (mkiv)	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Typesetting Macros	Margindata
typo-pag.lua (mkiv)	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Typesetting Macros	Pages
typo-prc.lua (mkvi)	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Structure Macros	Processors
typo-rep.lua (mkiv)	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Typesetting Macros	Stripping
typo-scr.mkiv	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Typesetting Macros	Scripts
typo-spa.lua (mkiv)	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Typesetting Macros	Spacing
typo-txt.mkvi	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Typesetting Macros	Text Hacks
unic-000.mkii	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Unicode Macros	Vector 0
unic-001.mkii	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Unicode Macros	Vector 1
unic-002.mkii	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Unicode Macros	Vector 2
unic-003.mkii	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Unicode Macros	Vector 3
unic-004.mkii	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Unicode Macros	Vector 4
unic-005.mkii	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Unicode Macros	Vector 5
unic-030.mkii	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Unicode Macros	Vector 30
unic-031.mkii	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Unicode Macros	Vector 31
unic-032.mkii	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Unicode Macros	Vector 32
unic-033.mkii	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Unicode Macros	Vector 33
unic-034.mkii	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Unicode Macros	Vector 34
unic-035.mkii	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Unicode Macros	Vector 35
unic-037.mkii	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Unicode Macros	Vector 37
unic-039.mkii	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Unicode Macros	Vector 39
unic-251.mkii	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Unicode Macros	Vector 251
unic-cjk.mkii	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Unicode Macros	CJK Vectors
unic-exp.mkii	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Unicode Support	Expansion
unic-ini.lua (mkii,mkiv)	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Unicode Support	Unicode & UTF-8 support
unic-run.mkii	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Unicode Support	Goodies
util-deb.lua	companion to luat-lib.mkiv	
util-dim.lua	support for dimensions	
util-env.lua	companion to luat-lib.mkiv	
util-fmt.lua	companion to luat-lib.mkiv	
util-jsn.lua	companion to m-json.mkiv	
util-lib.lua	companion to luat-lib.mkiv	
util-lua.lua	the strip code is written by Peter Cawley	
util-mrg.lua	companion to luat-lib.mkiv	
util-pck.lua	companion to luat-lib.mkiv	
util-prs.lua	companion to luat-lib.mkiv	
util-ran.lua	companion to luat-lib.mkiv	
util-seq.lua	companion to luat-lib.mkiv	
util-soc.lua	support for sockets / protocols	
util-sql.lua	companion to m-sql.mkiv	
util-sql-imp-client.lua	companion to util-sql.lua	
util-sql-imp-library.lua	companion to util-sql.lua	
util-sql-imp-swiglib.lua	companion to util-sql.lua	
util-sql-loggers.lua	companion to lmx-*	
util-sql-sessions.lua	companion to lmx-*	
util-sql-tickets.lua	companion to lmx-*	
util-sql-tracers.lua	companion to m-sql.mkiv	
util-sql-users.lua	companion to lmx-*	
util-sta.lua	companion to util-ini.mkiv	
util-sto.lua	companion to luat-lib.mkiv	
util-str.lua	companion to luat-lib.mkiv	
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verb-c.mkii	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Verbatim Macros	Pretty C Verbatim
verb-eif.mkii	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Verbatim Macros	Pretty Eiffel Verbatim
verb-ini.mkii	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Verbatim Macros	Initialization
verb-js.mkii	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Verbatim Macros	Pretty JavaScript Verbatim
verb-jv.mkii	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Verbatim Macros	Pretty Java Verbatim
verb-mp.mkii	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Verbatim Macros	Pretty MetaPost Verbatim
verb-pas.mkii	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Verbatim Macros	Pretty Pascal and Modula Verbatim
verb-pl.mkii	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Verbatim Macros	Pretty Perl Verbatim
verb-raw.mkii		
verb-sql.mkii	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Verbatim Macros	Pretty sql Verbatim
verb-tex.mkii	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Verbatim Macros	Pretty T <sub>E</sub> X verbatim
verb-xml.mkii	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Verbatim Macros	Pretty XML verbatim
x-asciimath.lua (mkiv)	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Modules	AsciiMath
x-calcmath.lua (mkii,mkiv)	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Modules	Calculator Math
x-cals.lua (mkiv)	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt XML Modules	Cals table renderer
x-chemml.lua (mkii,mkiv,xsd)	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt XML Modules	MkIV ChemML renderer
x-contml.mkii (xsd)	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt XML Support	Basic ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt commands
x-corres.mkii (rng)	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt XML Modules	Handling Correspondence Base
x-ct.lua (mkiv)	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt XML Modules	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Structures
x-dir-01.tex	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Directory Handling	Overview (1)
x-dir-05.mkii (mkiv)	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Directory Handling	Access
x-entities.mkiv	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt XML Modules	html entities
x-fdf-00.mkii		
x-fe.mkii	foXet	Simple Extensions
x-fig-00.dtd (mkii,xsd)	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Style File	Figure Base Loading
x-fig-01.mkii	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Style File	Figure Base Generation
x-fig-02.mkii	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Style File	Figure Base Inclusion (I)
x-fig-03.mkii	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Style File	Figure Base Inclusion (II)
x-fo.mkii	foXet	Formatting Objects
x-foXet.mkii (mkiv)	foXet	Formatting Objects
x-ldx.ctx (lua,mkiv)	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Modules	Lua Source Pretty Printing
x-mathml.lua (mkii,mkiv,xsd)	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt XML Modules	MathML
x-newcml.mkii	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt XML Macros	ChemML
x-newmme.mkii	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt XML Macros	MathML Entities
x-newmml.mkii (mkiv)	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt XML Macros	MathML
x-newmmo.mkii	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt XML Macros	MathML Renderer/Open Math Extensions
x-newpml.mkii	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt XML Support	Units
x-om2cml.xsl		
x-openmath.mkii (xsl)		
x-pfs-01.mkiv		
x-pfsense.ctx		
x-physml.mkii (mkiv,xsd)	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt XML Modules	Loading PHYSML Filters
x-res-00.mkii	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Style File	Resource Libraries
x-res-01.mkii (mkiv)	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Style File	Figure Base Generation
x-res-02.mkii	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Style File	Figure Base Inclusion (I)
x-res-03.mkii	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Style File	Figure Base Inclusion (II)
x-res-04.mkii	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Style File	Figure Base Loading
x-res-08.mkii	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Style File	Resource Reporting
x-res-09.mkii	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Style File	Resource Reporting (2)
x-res-10.mkii	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Style File	Resource Dummy Generation
x-res-11.mkii	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Style File	Resource Reporting (3)
x-res-12.mkii	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Style File	Resource Checking
x-res-20.mkii	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Style File	Figure Lists
x-res-50.mkii (mkiv)	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Style File	Multimedia Presentation
x-sch-00.mkii	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Style File	XML Schema Basics
x-sch-01.mkii	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Style File	XML Schema Presentation

x-set-01.mkii	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Setup Mappings	Macro Definitions
x-set-02.mkii	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Setup Mappings	Macro Definitions
x-set-11.mkii (mkiv)	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Setup Definitions	Macro Definitions
x-set-12.mkii (mkiv)	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Setup Definitions	Macro Definitions
x-sm2om.xsl		
x-steps.mkii (mkiv)	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Modules	Step Charts & Tables
x-udhr.mkiv	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Modules	Unicode Language Test Files
x-xfdf.mkiv	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt XML Modules	xfdf
x-xml-01.mkii	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt XML Style File	Formatting X?? files
x-xml-02.mkii	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt XML Style File	Pretty Printing
x-xml-11.mkii	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt XML Style File	Formatting X?? files
x-xtag.mkiv	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt Modules	xml stream handler
xetx-chr.mkii		
xetx-cls.mkii		
xetx-ini.mkii	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt System Macros	X <sub>E</sub> L <sub>A</sub> T <sub>E</sub> X Initializations
xetx-utf.mkii		
xtag-cml.mkii		
xtag-ent.mkii	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt XML Macros	A bunch of Entities
xtag-exp.mkii	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt XML Macros	Expansion
xtag-ext.mkii	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt XML Macros	Extra Macros
xtag-hyp.mkii	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt XML MACros	Hyphenation
xtag-ini.mkii	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt XML Macros	Initialization
xtag-map.mkii	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt XML Macros	Remapping
xtag-mea.mkii		
xtag-meb.mkii		
xtag-mec.mkii		
xtag-meh.mkii		
xtag-men.mkii		
xtag-meo.mkii		
xtag-mer.mkii		
xtag-mmc.mkii	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt XML Macros	Content MathML
xtag-mml.mkii	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt XML Macros	MathML
xtag-mmp.mkii	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt XML Macros	Presentation MathML
xtag-mxa.mkii		
xtag-mxb.mkii		
xtag-mxc.mkii		
xtag-mxh.mkii		
xtag-mxn.mkii		
xtag-mxo.mkii		
xtag-mxr.mkii		
xtag-pml.mkii	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt XML Support	Physics ML
xtag-pmu.mkii	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt XML Macros	Units
xtag-pre.mkii	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt XML Macros	Predefined Things
xtag-prs.mkii	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt XML Macros	Parsing
xtag-raw.mkii	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt XML Macros	Raw Specials
xtag-rng.mkii	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt XML Macros	Relax NG
xtag-run.mkii	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt XML Macros	Visualization
xtag-stk.mkii	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt XML Macros	Stacking Data
xtag-utf.mkii	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt XML Macros	UTF
xtag-xsd.mkii	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt XML Support	Schemas
xtag-xsl.mkii	ConT <sub>E</sub> Xt XML Support	XSLT processing

# E texmfstart manual

## Introduction

This manual is about a small (Ruby) script that can be used to run a script or open a document which is located somewhere in the `texmf` tree. This script evolved out of earlier experiments and is related to scripts and programs like `runperl`, `runruby` and `irun`.

One of the main reasons for `texmfstart` to exist is that it enables us to be downward compatible when using a  $\text{\TeX}$  based environment.  $\text{\TeX}$  itself is pretty stable, but this is not true for the whole collection of files that comes with a distribution and the way they are organized. We will see some other reasons for using this script as well.

We can also use this script for launching applications that need access to resources in the  $\text{\TeX}$  tree but that lack the features to locate them.

The script has a few dependencies on libraries. This means that relocating the script to a bin path may give problems. One can make a self-contained version by saying:

```
texmfstart --selfmerge
```

One can undo this with the `--selfclean` option. Normally users don't have to worry about this because in the  $\text{\ConTeXt}$  distribution the merged version is shipped. A MS Windows (pseudo) binary can be made with `exerb` or one can simply associate the `.rb` suffix with the Ruby program.

```
FTYPE RubyScript=c:\data\system\ruby\bin\ruby.exe %1 %*
ASSOC .rb=RubyScript
ASSOC .rbw=RubyScript
```

On Unix one can make a copy without suffix:

```
cp texmfstart.rb /path/to/bin/texmfstart
chmod +x texmfstart
```

Alternative approaches have been discussed on the  $\text{\ConTeXt}$  and  $\text{\TeX}$ Live mailing lists and can be found in their archives.

## Launching programs

The primary usage of `texmfstart` is to launch programs and scripts. We can start the `texexec` Perl script with:

```
texmfstart texexec.pl --pdf somefile
```

We can also start the `pstopdf` Ruby script:

```
texmfstart pstopdf.rb --method=3 cow.eps
```

However, we can omit the suffix:

```
texmfstart texexec --pdf somefile
texmfstart pstopdf --method=3 cow.eps
```

The suffixless method is slower unless the scripts are known. For familiar ConTEXt scripts it's best not to use the suffix since this permits us to change the scripting language. ConTEXt related scripts are known. Because in the meantime texexec has become a Ruby script, users who use the suffixless method automatically will get the right version.

You can also say:

```
texmfstart --file=pstopdf --method=3 cow.eps
```

When locating a file to run, several methods are applied, one being kps<sub>e</sub>which. You can control the path searching by providing a program space, which by default happens to be context.

```
texmfstart --program=context --file=pstopdf --method=3 cow.eps
```

The general pattern is:

```
texmfstart switches filename arguments
```

Here `switches` control `texmfstart`'s behaviour, and `arguments` are passed to the program identified by `filename`.

Sometimes the operating system will spoil our little game of passing arguments. In the following case we want the output of `texexec` to be written to a log file. By using quotes, we can pass the redirection without problems.

```
texmfstart texexec "somefile.tex > whatever.log"
```

## Generating stubs

One of the reasons for writing `texmfstart` is that it permits us to write upward compatible scripts (batch files), so instead of

```
texexec --pdf somefile
texexec --pdf anotherfile
```

We prefer to use:

```
texmfstart texexec --pdf somefile
texmfstart texexec --pdf anotherfile
```

Instead of using `texmfstart` directly you can also use it in a stub file. For MS Windows such a file looks like:

```
@echo off
texmfstart texexec %*
```

In this case, the file itself is named `texexec.cmd`. Now, given that no new functionality of `texmfstart` itself is needed, one will automatically use the version of `texexec` that is present in the (latest) installed ConTEXt tree.

It is possible to generate stubs automatically. You can provide a path where the stub will be written. This permits tricks like the following. Say that on a cdrom we have the following structure:

```
tex/texmf-mswin/bin/texexec.bat
tex/texmf-linux/bin/texexec
tex/texmf-local/scripts/context/ruby/texexec.rb
```

If we are on the main tex path, we can run texmfstart as follows:

```
texmfstart --make --windows --stubpath=tex/texmf-mswin/bin \
  ../../texmf-local/scripts/context/ruby/texexec.rb
texmfstart --make --unix --stubpath=tex/texmf-linux/bin \
  ../../texmf-local/scripts/context/ruby/texexec.rb
```

This will generate start up scripts that point directly to the Perl script. Such a link may fail when files get relocated. In that case you can use the `--indirect` directive, which will force the texmfstart into the stub file.

```
texmfstart --make --windows --indirect --stubpath=tex/texmf-mswin/bin \
  ../../texmf-local/scripts/context/ruby/texexec.rb
texmfstart --make --unix --indirect --stubpath=tex/texmf-linux/bin \
  ../../texmf-local/scripts/context/ruby/texexec.rb
```

However, the preferred way and most simple way to generate the stubs for the scripts that come with ConT<sub>E</sub>Xt is:

```
texmfstart --make all
```

This will generate stubs suitable for the current operating system in the current path.

## Documents

You can use texmfstart to open a document.

```
texmfstart showcase.pdf
```

This will open the document `showcase.pdf`, when found. The chance is minimal that such a document can be located by `kpsewhich`. In that case, `texmfstart` will search the tree itself.

Given that it is supported on your platform, you can also open a pdf file on a given page.

```
texmfstart --page=2 showcase.pdf
```

On MS Windows the following command will open the pdf file in a web browser. This is needed when you want support for form submission.

```
texmfstart --browser examplap.pdf
```

## Search strategy

In a first attempt, `kpsewhich` will be used to locate a file. When `kpsewhich` cannot locate the file, the following environment variables will be used:

```
RUBYINPUTS    ruby scripts with suffix rb
PERLINPUTS    perl scripts with suffix pl
PYTHONINPUTS  python scripts with suffix py
JAVAINPUTS    java archives with suffix jar
PDFINPUTS     pdf documents with suffix pdf
```

If using them fails as well, the whole tree is searched, which will take some time.

When a file found, its location is remembered and passed on to nested runs. So, in general, a nested run will start faster.

## Directives

The script accepts a few directives. Some are rather general:

```
--verbose    report some status and progress information
--arguments  an alternative for providing the arguments to be passed
--clear      don't pass info about locations to child processes
```

Directives that concern starting an application are:

```
--program=str  the program space where kpsewhich will search
--locate       report the call as it should happen (no newline)
--report       report the call as it should happen (simulated)
--browser      start the document in a web browser
--file         an alternative for providing the file
--direct       run a program without searching for it's location
--execute      use Ruby's 'exec' instead of 'system'
--batch        not yet implemented
```

You can create startup scripts by providing one of the following switches in combination with a filename.

```
--make       create a start script or batch file for the given program
--windows    when making a startup file, create a windows batch file
--linux      when making a startup file, create a unix script
--stubpath   destination of the startup file
--indirect   always use texmfstart in a stub file
```

Some directives can be accompanied by specifications, like:

```
--page=n     open the document at this page
--path=str   change from the current path to the given path
--before=str not yet implemented
--after=str  not yet implemented
--tree=str   use the given TEX tree
--autotree   automatically determine the TEX tree to use
--environment=str use the given tmf environment file
```

Conditional directives are:

```
--iftouched=str, str  only run when the given files have different time stamps
--ifchanged=str      only run when the given file has changed (md5 check)
```

Special features:

```
--showenv  show the environment variables known at runtime
--edit     open the given file in an editor
```

In addition, there are prefixes for filenames:

```
bin:filename  expanded name, based on PATH environment variable
kpse:filename expanded name, based on kpsewhich result
rel:filename  expanded name, backtracking on current path (. .. ../..)
env:name      expanded name, based on environment variable name
path:filename pathpart of filename as located by kpsewhich
```

## Performance

The performance of the indirect call is of course less than a direct call. You can gain some time by setting the environment variables or by using a small T<sub>E</sub>X tree.

The script tries to be clever. First it tries to honor a given path, and if that fails it will strip the path part and look on the current path. When this fails, it will consult the environment variables. Then it will use `kpsewhich` and when that fails as well, it will start searching the T<sub>E</sub>X trees. This may take a while, especially when you have a complete tree, like the one on T<sub>E</sub>X Live.<sup>XXVIII</sup>

If you want, you can use the built in `kpsewhich` functionality (written in Ruby) by setting the environment variable `KPSEFAST` to `yes`. The built in handler is a bit faster and maintains its own file database. Such a database is generated with:

```
tmftools --reload
```

## Using prefixes

You can also use `texmfstart` to launch other programs that need files in one of the T<sub>E</sub>X trees:

```
texmfstart --direct xsltproc kpse:somescript.xsl somefile.xml
```

or shorter:

```
texmfstart bin:xsltproc kpse:somescript.xsl somefile.xml
```

In both cases `somescript.xsl` will be resolved and in the second case `bin:` will be stripped. The `--direct` switch and `bin:` prefix tell `texmfstart` not to search for the program, but to assume that it is a binary. The `kpse:` prefix also works for previously mentioned usage.

A convenient way to edit your local context system setup file is the following; we don't need to go to the path where the file resides.

```
texmfstart bin:scite kpse:cont-sys.tex
```

Because editing is happening a lot, you can also say:

```
texmfstart --edit kpse:cont-sys.tex
```

You can set the environment variable `TEXMFSTART_EDITOR` to your favourite editor.

## Conditional processing

A bit obscure feature is triggered with `--iftouched`, for instance:

```
texmfstart --iftouched=normal.pdf,lowres.pdf \
  downsample.rb --verylow normal.pdf lowres.pdf
```

Here, `downsample.rb` is only executed when `normal.pdf` and `lowres.pdf` have a different modification time. After execution, the times are synchronized. This feature is rather handy when you want to minimize runtime. We use it in the resource library tools.

```
texmfstart --iftouched=foo.bar,bar.foo convert_foo_to_bar.rb
```

<sup>XXVIII</sup> On my computer I use multiple trees parallel to the latest T<sub>E</sub>X Live tree. This results in a not that intuitively and predictable search process. The cover of this manual reflects state of those trees.

A similar option is `ifchanged`:

```
texmfstart --ifchanged=whatever.mp texexec --mpgraphic whatever.mp
```

This time we look at the MD5 checksum, when the sum is changed, `texexec` will be run, otherwise we continue.

## TEX trees

There are a few more handy features built in. The reason for putting those into this launching program is that the sooner they are executed, the less runtime is needed later in the process.

Imagine that you have installed your tree on a network attached storage device. In that case you can say:

```
texmfstart --tree=//nas-1/tex texexec --pdf yourfile
```

There should be a file `setuptex.tmf` in the root of the tree. An example of such a file is part of the ConTEXt distribution (minimal trees). This feature permits you to have several trees alongside and run specific ones. You can also specify additional environments, using `--environment`.

Such an environment file is platform independent and looks as follows. The `%VAR%` variables will be replaced by their meaning, while the `$VAR` variables are left untouched. The `=` sets a value, while `>` and `<` prepend and append the given value to the current value.

```
# author: Hans Hagen - PRAGMA ADE - Hasselt NL - www.pragma-ade.com
#
# usage: texmfstart --tree=f:/minimal/tex ...
#
# this assumes that calling script sets TEXPATH without a trailing
# slash; %VARNAME% expands to the environment variable, $VARNAME
# is left untouched; we also assume that TEXOS is set.

TEXMFMAIN      = %TEXPATH%/texmf
TEXMFLOCAL     = %TEXPATH%/texmf-local
TEXMFFONTS     = %TEXPATH%/texmf-fonts
TEXMFEXTRA     = %TEXPATH%/texmf-extra
TEXMFPROJECT   = %TEXPATH%/texmf-project
VARTEXMF       = %TMP%/texmf-var
HOMETEXMF     =

TEXMFOS        = %TEXPATH%//%TEXOS%
# OSFONTDIR    = %SYSTEMROOT%/fonts

TEXMFCNF       = %TEXPATH%/texmf{-local,}/web2c
TEXMF          = {$TEXMFOS,$TEXMFPROJECT,$TEXMFFONTS,
                  $TEXMFLOCAL,$TEXMFEXTRA,!$TEXMFMAIN}
TEXMFDDBS     = $TEXMF
TEXFORMATS     = %TEXMFOS%/web2c/{$engine,}
MPMEMS        = %TEXFORMATS%
TEXPOOL       = %TEXFORMATS%
MPPPOOL       = %TEXPOOL%
```



```
PATH      > %TEXMFOS%/bin
PATH      > %TEXMFLOCAL%/scripts/perl/context
PATH      > %TEXMFLOCAL%/scripts/ruby/context
RUBYLIB   > %TEXMFLOCAL%/scripts/ruby/context
TEXINPUTS =
MPINPUTS  =
MFINPUTS  =
```

When you only want to set a variable that has no value yet, you can use an ?. These symbols have alternatives as well:

```
= <<  assign a value to the variable
? ??  only assign a value when the variable is unset
< +=  append a value to the current value of the variable
> =+  prepend a value to the current value of the variable
```

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