



PDF

Succinctly

by Ryan Hodson

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By
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Foreword by Daniel Jebaraj



Created with a trial version of Syncfusion PDF library

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E dited by

This publication was edited by Stephen Jebaraj, senior product manager, Syncfusion, Inc.

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The Story behind the *Succinctly* Series of Books

Daniel Jebaraj, Vice President
Syncfusion, Inc.

Staying on the cutting edge

As many of you may know, Syncfusion is a provider of software components for the Microsoft platform. This puts us in the exciting but challenging position of always being on the cutting edge.

Whenever platforms or tools are shipping out of Microsoft, which seems to be about every other week these days, we have to educate ourselves, quickly.

Information is plentiful but harder to digest

In reality, this translates into a lot of book orders, blog searches, and Twitter scans.

While more information is becoming available on the Internet and more and more books are being published, even on topics that are relatively new, one aspect that continues to inhibit us is the inability to find concise technology overview books.

We are usually faced with two options: read several 500+ page books or scour the Web for relevant blog posts and other articles. Just as everyone else who has a job to do and customers to serve, we find this quite frustrating.

The *Succinctly* series

This frustration translated into a deep desire to produce a series of concise technical books that would be targeted at developers working on the Microsoft platform.

We firmly believe, given the background knowledge such developers have, that most topics can be translated into books that are between 50 and 100 pages.

This is exactly what we resolved to accomplish with the *Succinctly* series. Isn't everything wonderful born out of a deep desire to change things for the better?

The best authors, the best content

Each author was carefully chosen from a pool of talented experts who shared our vision. The book you now hold in your hands, and the others available in this series, are a result of the authors' tireless work. You will find original content that is guaranteed to get you up and running in about the time it takes to drink a few cups of coffee.

Free forever

Syncfusion will be working to produce books on several topics. The books will always be free. Any updates we publish will also be free.

Free? What is the catch?

There is no catch here. Syncfusion has a vested interest in this effort.

As a component vendor, our unique claim has always been that we offer deeper and broader frameworks than anyone else on the market. Developer education greatly helps us market and sell against competing vendors who promise to “enable AJAX support with one click,” or “turn the moon to cheese!”

Let us know what you think

If you have any topics of interest, thoughts, or feedback, please feel free to send them to us at succinctly-series@syncfusion.com.

We sincerely hope you enjoy reading this book and that it helps you better understand the topic of study. Thank you for reading.

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Introduction

Adobe Systems Incorporated's Portable Document Format (PDF) is the de facto standard for the accurate, reliable, and platform-independent representation of a paged document. It's the only universally accepted file format that allows pixel-perfect layouts. In addition, PDF supports user interaction and collaborative workflows that are not possible with printed documents.

PDF documents have been in widespread use for years, and dozens of free and commercial PDF readers, editors, and libraries are readily available. However, despite this popularity, it's still difficult to find a succinct guide to the native PDF format. Understanding the internal workings of a PDF makes it possible to dynamically generate PDF documents. For example, a web server can extract information from a database, use it to customize an invoice, and serve it to the customer on the fly.

This book introduces the fundamental components of the native PDF language. With the help of a utility program called [pdftk](#) from PDF Labs, we'll build a PDF document from scratch, learning how to position elements, select fonts, draw vector graphics, and create interactive tables of contents along the way. The goal is to provide enough information to let you start building your own documents without bogging you down with the many complexities of the PDF file format.

In addition, the last chapter of this book provides an overview of the iTextSharp library (<http://itextpdf.com/>). iTextSharp is a C# library that provides an object-oriented wrapper for native PDF elements. Having a C# representation of a document makes it much easier to leverage existing .NET components and streamline the creation of dynamic PDF files.

The sample files created in this book can be downloaded here:
<https://bitbucket.org/syncfusion/pdf-succinctly/>.

The PDF Standard

The PDF format is an open standard maintained by the International Organization for Standardization. The official specification is defined in [ISO 32000-1:2008](#), but Adobe also provides a free, comprehensive guide called [PDF Reference, Sixth Edition, version 1.7](#).

Chapter 1 Conceptual Overview

We'll begin with a conceptual overview of a simple PDF document. This chapter is designed to be a brief orientation before diving in and creating a real document from scratch.

A PDF file can be divided into four parts: a header, body, cross-reference table, and trailer. The header marks the file as a PDF, the body defines the visible document, the cross-reference table lists the location of everything in the file, and the trailer provides instructions for how to start reading the file.

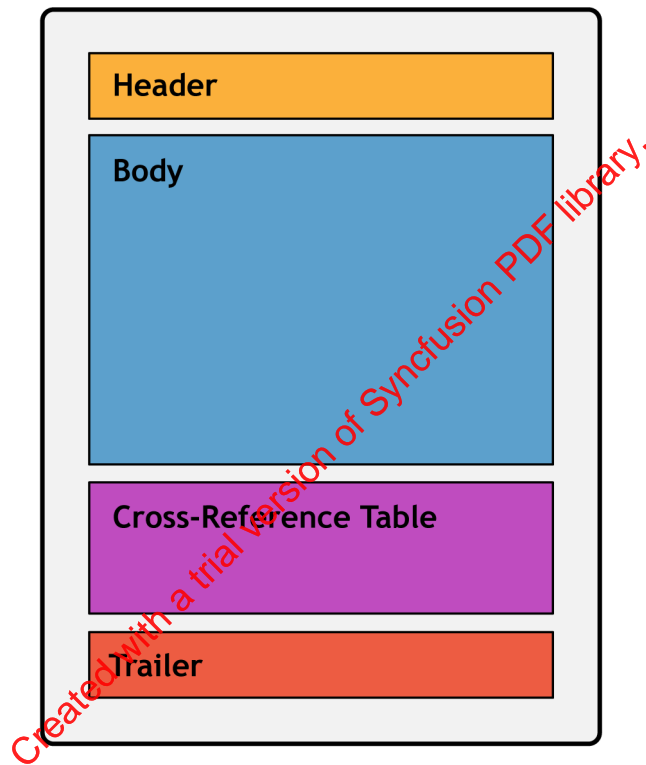


Figure 1: Components of a PDF document

Every PDF file *must* have these four components.

Header

The header is simply a PDF version number and an arbitrary sequence of binary data. The binary data prevents naïve applications from processing the PDF as a text file. This would result in a corrupted file, since a PDF typically consists of both plain text and binary data (e.g., a binary font file can be directly embedded in a PDF).

Body

The body of a PDF contains the entire visible document. The minimum elements required in a valid PDF body are:

- A page tree
- Pages
- Resources
- Content
- The catalog

The **page tree** serves as the root of the document. In the simplest case, it is just a list of the pages in the document. Each **page** is defined as an independent entity with metadata (e.g., page dimensions) and a reference to its resources and content, which are defined separately. Together, the page tree and page objects create the “paper” that composes the document.

Resources are objects that are required to render a page. For example, a single font is typically used across several pages, so storing the font information in an external resource is much more efficient. A **content** object defines the text and graphics that actually show up on the page. Together, content objects and resources define the appearance of an individual page.

Finally, the document's **catalog** tells applications where to start reading the document. Often, this is just a pointer to the root page tree.

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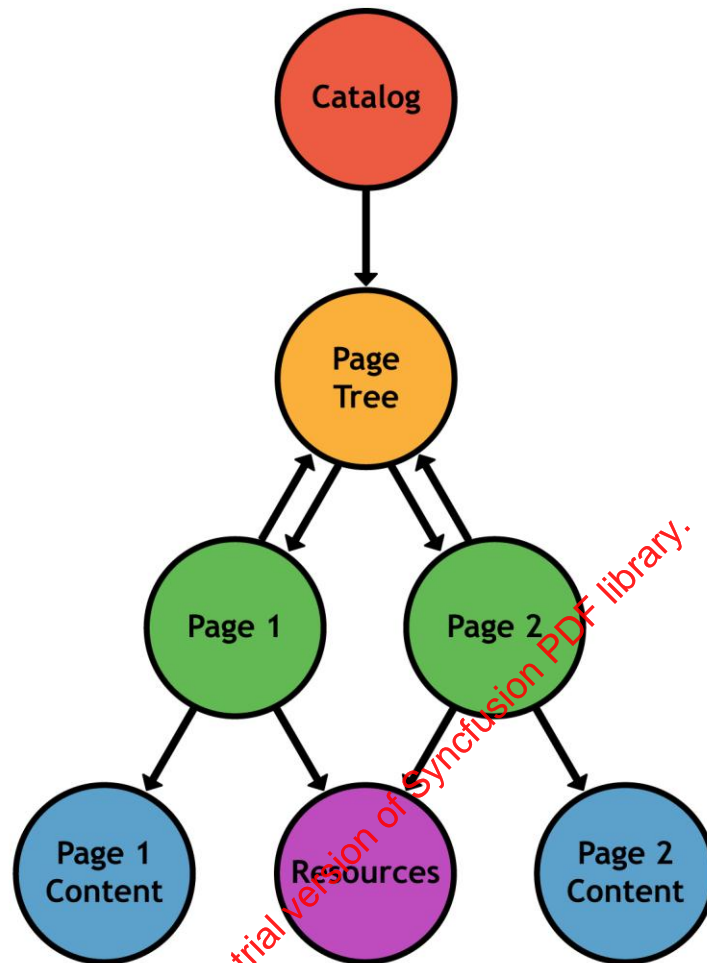


Figure 2: Structure of a document's body

Cross-Reference Table

After the header and the body comes the cross-reference table. It records the byte location of each object in the body of the file. This enables random-access of the document, so when rendering a page, only the objects required for that page are read from the file. This makes PDFs much faster than their PostScript predecessors, which had to read in the entire file before processing it.

Trailer

Finally, we come to the last component of a PDF document. The trailer tells applications how to start reading the file. At minimum, it contains three things:

1. A reference to the catalog which links to the root of the document.
2. The location of the cross-reference table.
3. The size of the cross-reference table.

Since a trailer is all you need to begin processing a document, PDFs are typically read back-to-front: first, the end of the file is found, and then you read backwards until you arrive at the beginning of the trailer. After that, you should have all the information you need to load any page in the PDF.

Summary

To conclude our overview, a PDF document has a header, a body, a cross-reference table, and a trailer. The trailer serves as the entryway to the entire document, giving you access to any object via the cross-reference table, and pointing you toward the root of the document. The relationship between these elements is shown in the following figure.

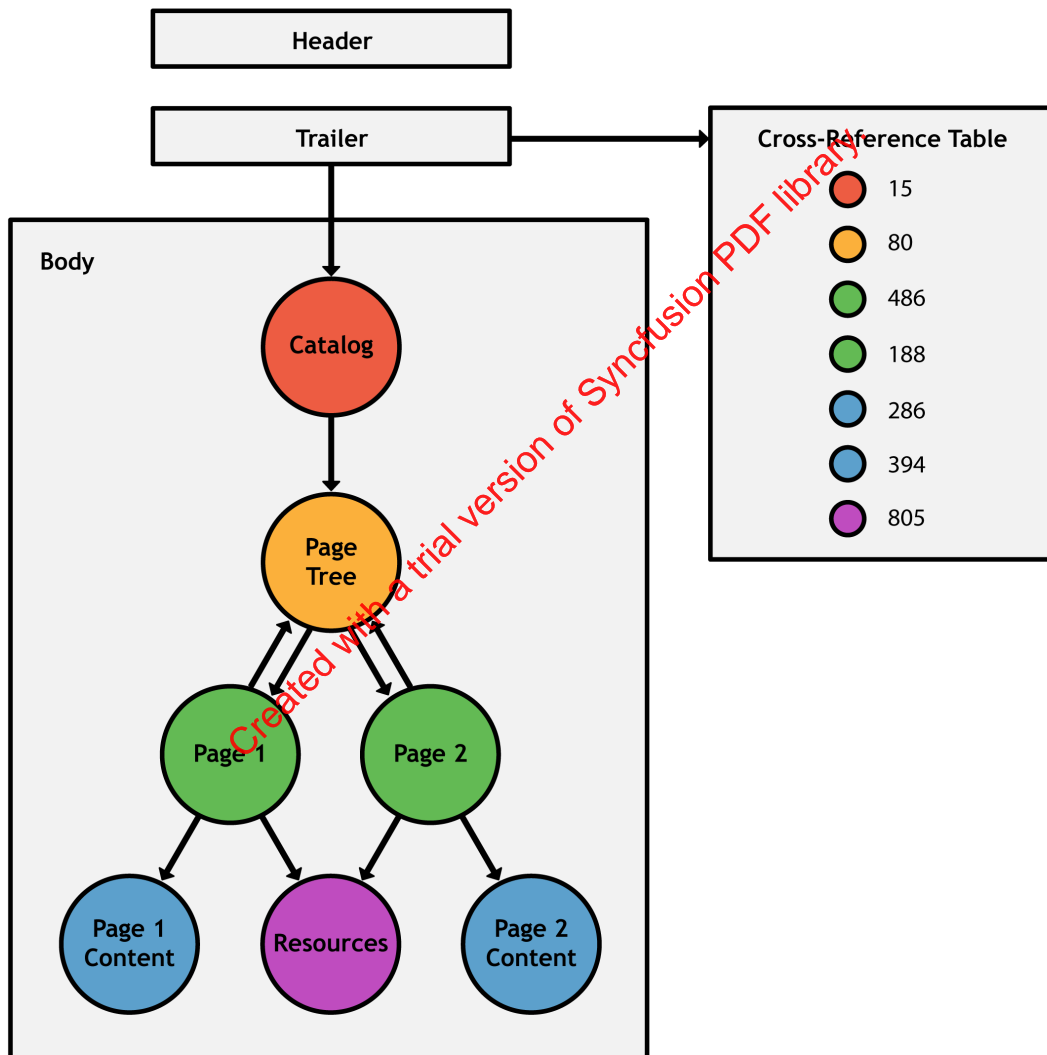


Figure 3: Structure of a PDF document

Chapter 2 Building a PDF

PDFs contain a mix of text and binary, but it's still possible to create them from scratch using nothing but a text editor

Header

We'll start by adding a header to **hello-src.pdf**. Remember that the header contains both the PDF version number and a bit of binary data. We'll just add the PDF version. Add the following to **hello-src.pdf**.

```
%PDF-1.0
```

The % character begins a PDF comment, so the header is really just a special kind of comment.

Body

The body (and hence the entire visible document) is built up using **objects**. Objects are the basic unit of PDF files, and they roughly correspond to the data structures of popular programming languages. For example, PDF has Boolean, numeric, string, array, and dictionary objects, along with streams and names, which are specific to PDF. We'll take a look at each type as the need arises.

The Page Tree

The page tree is a dictionary object containing a list of the pages that make up the document. A minimal page tree contains just one page.

```
1 0 obj
<< /Type /Pages
    /Count 1
    /Kids [2 0 R]
>>
endobj
```

Objects are enclosed in the **obj** and **endobj** tags, and they begin with a unique identification number (1 0). The first number is the *object number*, and the second is the *generation number*. The latter is only used for incremental updates, so all the generation numbers in our examples will be 0. As we'll see in a moment, PDFs use these identifiers to refer to individual objects from elsewhere in the document.

Dictionaries are set off with angle brackets (<< and >>), and they contain key/value pairs. White space is used to separate both the keys from the values *and* the items from each other, which can be confusing. It helps to keep pairs on separate lines, as in the previous example.

The **/Type**, **/Pages**, **/Count**, and **/Kids** keys are called **names**. They are a special kind of data type similar to the constants of high-level programming languages. PDFs often use names as dictionary keys. Names are case-sensitive.

2 0 R is a reference to the object with an identification number of 2 0 (it hasn't been created yet). The **/Kids** key wraps this reference in square brackets, turning it into an array: [2 0 R]. PDF arrays can mix and match types, so they are actually more like C#'s **List<object>** than native arrays.

Like dictionaries, PDF arrays are also separated by white space. Again, this can be confusing, since the object reference is also separated by white space. For example, adding a second reference to **/Kids** would look like: [2 0 R 3 0 R] (don't actually add this to **hello-src.pdf**, though).

Page(s)

Next, we'll create the second object, which is the only page referenced by **/Kids** in the previous section.

```

2 0 obj
<< /Type /Page
    /MediaBox [0 0 612 792]
    /Resources 3 0 R
    /Parent 1 0 R
    /Contents [4 0 R]
>>
endobj

```

The **/Type** entry always specifies the type of the object. Many times, this can be omitted if the object type can be inferred by context. Note that PDF uses a name to identify the object type—not a literal string.

The **/MediaBox** entry defines the dimensions of the page in points. There are 72 points in an inch, so we’ve just created a standard 8.5 × 11 inch page. **/Resources** points to the object containing necessary resources for the page. **/Parent** points back to the page tree object. Two-way references are quite common in PDF files, since they make it very easy to resolve dependencies in either direction. Finally, **/Contents** points to the object that defines the appearance of the page.

Resources

The third object is a resource defining a font configuration.

```

3 0 obj
<< /Font
    << /F0
        << /Type /Font
            /BaseFont /Times-Roman
            /Subtype /Type1
        >>
    >>
>>
endobj

```

The **/Font** key contains a whole dictionary, opposed to the name/value pairs we’ve seen previously (e.g., **/Type /Page**). The font we configured is called **/F0**, and the font face we selected is **/Times-Roman**. The **/Subtype** is the format of the font file, and **/Type1** refers to the PostScript type 1 file format.

The specification defines 14 “standard” fonts that all PDF applications should support.

Times-Roman	Helvetica	Courier
Times-Bold	Helvetica-Bold	Courier-Bold
<i>Times-Italic</i>	<i>Helvetica-Oblique</i>	<i>Courier-Oblique</i>
<i>Times-BoldItalic</i>	<i>Helvetica-BoldOblique</i>	<i>Courier-BoldOblique</i>
Symbol (∀ ∃ Φ π ⊆)		ZapfDingbats (✂ ☞ ✓ ⊕ ☺)

Figure 4: Standard fonts for PDF-compliant applications

Any of these values can be used for the `/BaseFont` in a `/Font` dictionary. Non-standard fonts *can* be embedded in a PDF document, but it's not easy to do manually. We'll put off custom fonts until we can use iTextSharp's high-level framework.

Content

Finally, we are able to specify the actual content of the page. Page content is represented as a **stream** object. Stream objects consist of a dictionary of metadata and a stream of bytes.

```
4 0 obj
<< >>
stream
BT
  /F0 36 Tf
  50 706 Td
  (Hello, World!) Tj
ET
endstream
endobj
```

The stream itself is contained between the **stream** and **endstream** keywords. It contains a series of instructions that tell a PDF viewer how to render the page. In this case, it will display “Hello, World!” in 36-point Times Roman font near the top of the page.

The contents of a stream are entirely dependent on context—a stream is just a container for arbitrary data. In this case, we’re defining the content of a page using PDF’s built-in **operators**. First, we created a text block with **BT** and **ET**, then we set the font with **Tf**, then we positioned the text cursor with **Td** and finally drew the text “Hello, World!” with **Tj**. This new operator syntax will be discussed in full detail over the next two chapters.

But, it is worth pointing out that PDF streams are in *postfix notation*. Their operands are *before* their operators. For example, `/F0` and `36` are the parameters for the `Tf` command. In C#, you would expect this to look more like `Tf (/F0, 36)`. In fact, *everything* in a PDF is in postfix notation. In the statement `1 0 obj`, `obj` is actually an operator and the object/generation numbers are parameters.

You'll also notice that PDF streams use short, ambiguous names for commands. It's a pain to work with manually, but this keeps PDF files as small as possible.

Catalog

The last section of the body is the catalog, which points to the root page tree (`1 0 R`).

```
5 0 obj
<< /Type /Catalog
    /Pages 1 0 R
>>
endobj
```

This may seem like an unnecessary reference, but dividing a document into multiple page trees is a common way to optimize PDFs. In such a case, programs need to know where the document starts.

Cross-Reference Table

The cross-reference table provides the location of each object in the body of the file. Locations are recorded as byte-offsets from the beginning of the file. This is another job for `pdftk`—all we have to do is add the `xref` keyword.

```
xref
```

We'll take a closer look at the cross-reference table after we generate the final PDF.

Trailer

The last part of the file is the trailer. It's comprised of the `trailer` keyword, followed by a dictionary that contains a reference to the catalog, then a pointer to the cross-reference table, and finally an end-of-file marker. Let's add all of this to **hello-src.pdf**.

```
trailer
<< /Root 5 0 R
>>
startxref
%%EOF
```

The `/Root` points to the *catalog*, not the root page tree. This is important because the catalog can also contain important information about the document structure. The `startxref` keyword points to the location (in bytes) of the beginning of the cross-reference table. Again, we'll leave this for pdftk. Between these two bits of information, a program can figure out the location of anything it needs.

The `%%EOF` comment marks the end of the PDF file. Incremental updates make use of multiple trailers, so it's possible to have multiple `%%EOF` lines in a single document. This helps programs determine what new content was added in each update.

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Summary

And that's all there is to a PDF document. It's simply a collection of objects that define the pages in a document, along with their contents, and some pointers and byte offsets to make it easier to find objects.

Of course, real PDF documents contain much more text and graphics than our **hello.pdf**, but the process is the same. We got a small taste of how PDFs represent content, but skimmed over many important details. The next chapter covers the text-related operators of content streams.

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Chapter 3 Text Operators

As we saw in the previous chapter, PDFs use streams to define the appearance of a page. Content streams typically consist of a sequence of commands that tell the PDF viewer or editor what to draw on the page. For example, the command `(Hello, World!) Tj` writes the string “Hello, World!” to the page. In this chapter, we’ll discover exactly how this command works, and explore several other useful operators for formatting text.

The Basics

The general procedure for adding text to a page is as follows:

1. Define the font state (`Tf`).
2. Position the text cursor (`Td`).
3. “Paint” the text onto the page (`Tj`).

Let’s start by examining a simplified version of our existing stream.

```
BT
  /F0 36 Tf
  (Hello, World!) Tj
ET
```

First, we create a text block with the `BT` operator. This is required before we can use any other text-related operators. The corresponding `ET` operator ends the current text block. Text blocks are isolated environments, so the selected font and position won’t be applied to subsequent text blocks.

The next line sets the font face to `/F0`, which is the Times Roman font we defined in the `3 0 obj`, and sets the size to 36 points. Again, PDF operators use postfix notation—the command (`Tf`) comes last, and the arguments come first (`/F0` and `36`).

Now that the font is selected, we can draw some text onto the page with `Tj`. This operator takes one parameter: the string to display (`(Hello, World!)`). String literals in a PDF must be enclosed in parentheses. Nested parentheses do not need to be escaped, but single ones need to be preceded by a backslash. So, the following two lines are both valid string literals.

```
(Nested (parentheses) don't need a backslash.)
(But a single \ (parenthesis needs one.)
```

Of course, a backslash can also be used to escape itself (`\\`).

Positioning Text

If you use `pdftk` to generate a PDF with the content stream at the beginning of this chapter (without the `Td` operator), you'll find that "Hello, World!" shows up at the bottom-left corner of the page.

Since we didn't set a position for the text, it was drawn at the origin, which is the bottom-left corner of the page. PDFs use a classic Cartesian coordinate system with x increasing from left to right and y increasing from bottom to top.

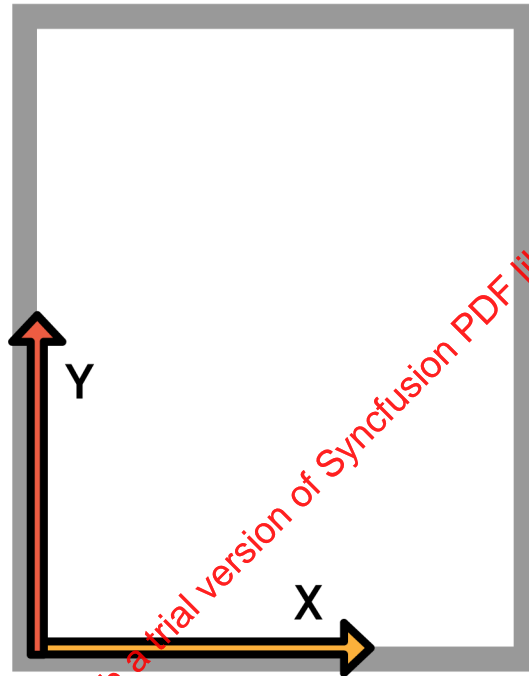


Figure 6: The PDF coordinate system

We have to manually determine where our text should go, then pass those coordinates to the `Td` operator before drawing it with `Tj`. For example, consider the following stream.

```
BT
  /F0 36 Tf
  50 706 Td
  (Hello, World!) Tj
ET
```

This positions our text at the top-left of the page with a 50-point margin. Note that the text block's origin is *its* bottom-left corner, so the height of the font had to be subtracted from the y -position ($792 - 50 - 36 = 706$). The PDF file format only defines a method for *representing* a document. It does *not* include complex layout capabilities like line wrapping or line breaks—these things must be determined manually (or with the help of a third-party layout engine).

To summarize, pages of text are created by selecting the text state, positioning the text cursor, and then painting the text to the page. In the digital era, this process is about as close as you'll come to hand-composing a page on a traditional printing press.

Next, we'll take a closer look at the plethora of options for formatting text.

Text State Operators

The appearance of all text drawn with `Tj` is determined by the text state operators. Each of these operators defines a particular attribute that all subsequent calls to `Tj` will reflect. The following list shows the most common text state operators. Each operator's arguments are shown in angled brackets.

- ` <size> Tf`: Set font face and size.
- `<spacing> Tc`: Set character spacing.
- `<spacing> Tw`: Set word spacing.
- `<mode> Tr`: Set rendering mode.
- `<rise> Ts`: Set text rise.
- `<leading> TL`: Set leading (line spacing).

The Tf Operator

We've already seen the `Tf` operator in action, but let's see what happens when we call it more than once:

```
BT
  /F0 36 Tf
  50 706 Td
  (Hello, World!) Tj
  /F0 12 Tf
  (Hello, Again!) Tj
ET
```

This changes the font size to 12 points, but it's still on the same line as the 36-point text:



Hello, World!Hello, Again!

Figure 7: Changing the font size with `Tf`

The **Tj** operator leaves the cursor at the end of whatever text it added—new lines must be explicitly defined with one of the positioning or painting operators. But before we start with positioning operators, let’s take a look at the rest of the text state operators.

The Tc Operator

The **Tc** operator controls the amount of space between characters. The following stream will put 20 points of space between each character of “Hello, World!”

```
BT
  /F0 36 Tf
  50 706 Td
  20 Tc
  (Hello, World!) Tj
ET
```

This is similar to the tracking functionality found in document-preparation software. It is also possible to specify a negative value to push characters closer together.

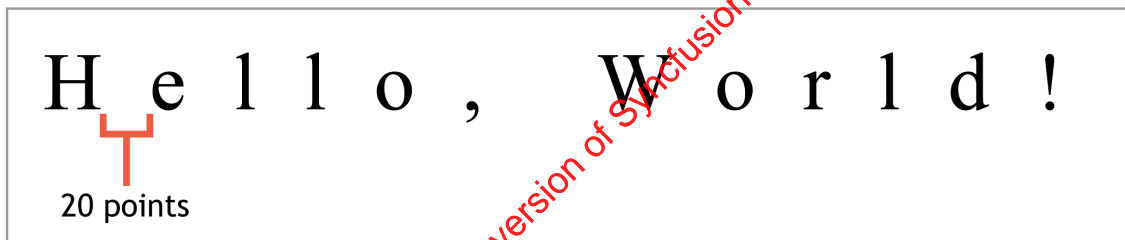


Figure 8: Setting the character spacing to 20 points with **Tc**

The Tw Operator

Related to the **Tc** operator is **Tw**. This operator controls the amount of space between words. It behaves exactly like **Tc**, but it only affects the space character. For example, the following command will place words an extra 10 points apart (on top of the character spacing set by **Tc**).

```
10 Tw
```

Together, the **Tw** and **Tc** commands can create justified lines by subtly altering the space in and around words. Again, PDFs only provide a way to represent this—you must use a dedicated layout engine to figure out how words and characters should be spaced (and hyphenated) to fit the allotted dimensions.

That is to say, there is no “justify” command in the PDF file format, nor are there “align left” or “align right” commands. Fortunately, the iTextSharp library discussed in the final chapter of this book *does* include this high-level functionality.

The Tr Operator

The **Tr** operator defines the “rendering mode” of future calls to painting operators. The rendering mode determines if glyphs are filled, stroked, or both. These modes are specified as an integer between 0 and 2.




Mode	Result
0	
1	
2	

Figure 9: Text rendering modes

For example, the command **2 Tr** tells a PDF reader to outline any new text in the current stroke color and fill it with the current fill color. Colors are determined by the graphics operators, which are described in the next chapter.

The Ts Operator

The **Ts** command offsets the vertical position of the text to create superscripts or subscripts. For example, the following stream draws “x²”.

```
BT
  /F0 12 Tf
  50 706 Td
  (x) Tj
  7 Ts
  /F0 8 Tf
  (2) Tj
ET
```

Text rise is always measured relative to the baseline, so it isn’t considered a text positioning operator in its own right.

The TL Operator

The **TL** operator sets the leading to use between lines. Leading is defined as the distance from baseline to baseline of two lines of text. This takes into account the

ascenders and descenders of the font face. So, instead of defining the amount of space you want between lines, you need to add it to the height of the current font to determine the total value for **TL**.



Figure 10: Measuring leading from baseline to baseline

For example, setting the leading to 16 points after selecting a 12-point font will put 4 points of white space between each line. However, font designers can define the height of a font independently of its glyphs, so the actual space between each line might be slightly more or less than what you pass to **TL**.

```
BT
  /F0 36 Tf
  50 706 Td
  (Hello, World!) Tj
  /F0 12 Tf
  16 TL
  T*
  (Hello, Again!) Tj
ET
```

T* moves to the next line so we can see the effect of our leading. This positioning operator is described in the next section.

Text Positioning Operators

Positioning operators determine where new text will be inserted. Remember, PDFs are a rather low-level method for representing documents. It's not possible to define the width of a paragraph and have the PDF document fill it in until it runs out of text. As we saw earlier, PDFs can't even line-wrap on their own. These kinds of advanced layout features must be determined with a third-party layout engine, and then represented by manually moving the text position and painting text as necessary.

The most important positioning operators are:

- **<x> <y> Td**: Move to the start of the next line, offset by (**<x>**, **<y>**).
- **T***: Move to the start of the next line, offset by the current leading.
- **<a> <c> <d> <e> <f> Tm**: Manually define the text matrix.

The Td Operator

Td is the basic positioning operator. It moves the text position by a horizontal and vertical offset measured from the beginning of the current line. We've been using **Td** to put the cursor at the top of the page (50 706 **Td**), but it can also be used to jump down to the next line.

```
BT
  /F0 36 Tf
  50 706 Td
  (Hello, World!) Tj
  /F0 12 Tf
  0 -16 Td
  (Hello, Again!) Tj
ET
```

The previous stream draws the text “Hello, World!” then moves down 16 points with **Td** and draws “Hello, Again!” Since the height of the second line is 12 points, the result is a 4-point gap between the lines. This is the manual way to define the leading of each line.

Note that positive y values move *up*, so a negative value must be used to move to the next line.

The T* Operator

T* is a shortcut operator that moves to the next line using the current leading. It is the equivalent of 0 -<leading> **Td**.

The Tm Operator

Internally, PDFs use a *transformation matrix* to represent the location and scale of all text drawn onto the page. The following diagram shows the structure of the matrix:

$$\begin{bmatrix} a & b & 0 \\ c & d & 0 \\ e & f & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

Figure 11: The text transformation matrix

The **e** and **f** values determine the horizontal and vertical position of the text, and the **a** and **d** values determine its horizontal and vertical scale, respectively. Altering more than just those entries creates more complex transformations like skews and rotations.

This matrix can be defined by passing each value as an argument to the **Tm** operator.

<a> <c> <d> <e> <f> Tm

Most of the other text positioning and text state commands are simply predefined operations on the transformation matrix. For example, setting **Td** adds to the existing **e** and **f** values. The following stream shows how you can manually set the transformation matrix instead of using **Td** or **T*** to create a new line.

```
BT
  /F0 36 Tf
  1 0 0 1 50 706 Tm
  (Hello, World!) Tj
  1 0 0 1 50 670 Tm
  (Hello, World!) Tj
ET
```

Likewise, we can change the matrix's **a** and **d** values to change the font size without using **Tf**. The next stream scales down the initial font size by 33%, resulting in a 12-point font for the second line.

```
BT
  /F0 36 Tf
  1 0 0 1 50 706 Tm
  (Hello, World!) Tj
  .33 0 0 .33 50 604 Tm
  (Hello, World!) Tj
ET
```

Of course, the real utility of **Tm** is to define more than just simple translation and scale operations. It can be used to combine several complex transformations into a single, concise representation. For example, the following matrix rotates the text by 45 degrees and moves it to the middle of the page.

```
BT
  /F0 36 Tf
  .7071 -.7071 .7071 .7071 230 450 Tm
  (Hello, World!) Tj
ET
```

More information about transformation matrices is available from any computer graphics textbook.

Text Painting Operators

Painting operators display text on the page, potentially modifying the current text state or position in the process. The `Tj` operator that we've been using is the core operator for displaying text. The other painting operators are merely convenient shortcuts for common typesetting tasks.

The PDF specification defines four text painting operators:

- `<text> Tj`: Display the text at the current text position.
- `<text> '`: Move to the next line and display the text.
- `<word-spacing> <character-spacing> <text> "`: Move to the next line, set the word and character spacing, and display the text.
- `<array> TJ`: Display an array of strings while manually adjusting intra-letter spacing.

The `Tj` Operator

The `Tj` operator inserts text at the current position and leaves the cursor wherever it ended. Consider the following stream.

```
BT
  /F0 36 Tf
  50 706 Td
  (Hello, World!) Tj
  (Hello, Again!) Tj
ET
```

Both `Tj` commands will paint the text on the same line, without a space in between them.

The ' (Single Quote) Operator

The ' (single quote) operator moves to the next line *then* displays the text. This is the exact same functionality as `T*` followed by `Tj`:

```
BT
  50 706 Td
  /F0 36 Tf
  36 TL
  (Hello, World!) Tj T*
  (I'm On Another Line!) Tj
  (So Am I!) '
ET
```

Like **T***, the **'** operator uses the current leading to determine the position of the next line.

The " (Double Quote) Operator

The **"** (double quote) operator is similar to the single quote operator, except it lets you set the character spacing and word spacing at the same time. Thus, it takes three arguments instead of one.

```
2 1 (Hello!) "
```

This is the exact same as the following.

```
2 Tw
1 Tc
(Hello!) '
```

Remember that **Tw** and **Tc** are often used for justifying paragraphs. Since each line usually needs distinct word and character spacing, the **"** operator is a very convenient command for rendering justified paragraphs.

```
BT
  /F0 36 Tf
  50 706 Td
  36 TL
  (The double quote oper-) Tj
  1 1 (ator is very useful for) "
  1 1.7 (creating justified text) "
ET
```

This stream uses character and word spacing to justify three lines of text:

The double quote operator is very useful for creating justified text

Figure 12: Adjusting character and word spacing to create justified lines

The TJ Operator

The `TJ` operator provides even more flexibility by letting you independently specify the space between letters. Instead of a string, `TJ` accepts an array of strings and numbers. When it encounters a string, `TJ` displays it just as `Tj` does. But when it encounters a number, it subtracts that value from the current horizontal text position.

This can be used to adjust the space between individual letters in an entire line using a single command. In traditional typography, this is called kerning.

```
BT
  /F0 36 Tf
  50 706 Td
  36 TL
  (Away With You!) Tj T*
  [(A) 100 (way ) 60 (ith Y) 150 (ou!)] TJ
ET
```

This stream uses `TJ` to kern the “Aw”, “Wi”, and “Yo” pairs. The idea behind kerning is to eliminate conspicuous white space in order to create an even gray on the page. The result is shown in the following figure.



Away With You!
Away With You!

Figure 13: Kerning letter pairs with `Tj`

Summary

This chapter presented the most common text operators used by PDF documents. These operators make it possible to represent multi-page, text-based documents with a minimum amount of markup. If you're coming from a typographic background, you'll appreciate many of the convenience operators like `Tj` for kerning and `"` for justifying lines.

You'll also notice that PDFs do not separate content from presentation. This is a fundamental difference between creating a PDF versus an HTML document. PDFs represent content and formatting at the same time using *procedural* operators, while other popular languages like HTML and CSS apply style rules to semantic elements. This allows PDFs to represent pixel-perfect layouts, but it also makes it much harder to extract text from a document.

Created with a trial version of Syncfusion PDF library.

Chapter 4 Graphics Operators

In addition to text, PDFs are also a reliable format for the accurate reproduction of vector graphics. In fact, the Adobe Illustrator file format (.ai) is really just an extended form of the PDF file format. This chapter introduces the core components of the PDF graphics model.

The Basics

Like text operators, graphics operators only provide the low-level functionality for *representing* graphics in a page's content stream. PDFs do not have “circles” and “rectangles”—they have only paths.

Drawing paths is similar to drawing text, except instead of positioning the text cursor, you must construct the entire path before painting it. The general process for creating vector graphics is:

1. Define the graphics state (fill/stroke colors, opacity, etc.).
2. Construct a path.
3. Paint the path onto the page.

For example, the following stream draws a vertical line down the middle of the page:

```
10 w
306 396 m
306 594 l
S
```

First, this sets the stroke width to 10 points with the **w** operator. Then, we begin constructing a path by moving the graphics cursor to the point (306, 396) with **m**. This is similar to the **Td** command for setting the text position. Next, we draw a line from the current position to the point (306, 594) using the **l** (lowercase L) operator. At this point, the path isn't visible—it's still in the construction phase. The path needs to be painted using the **S** operator. All paths must be explicitly stroked or filled in this manner.

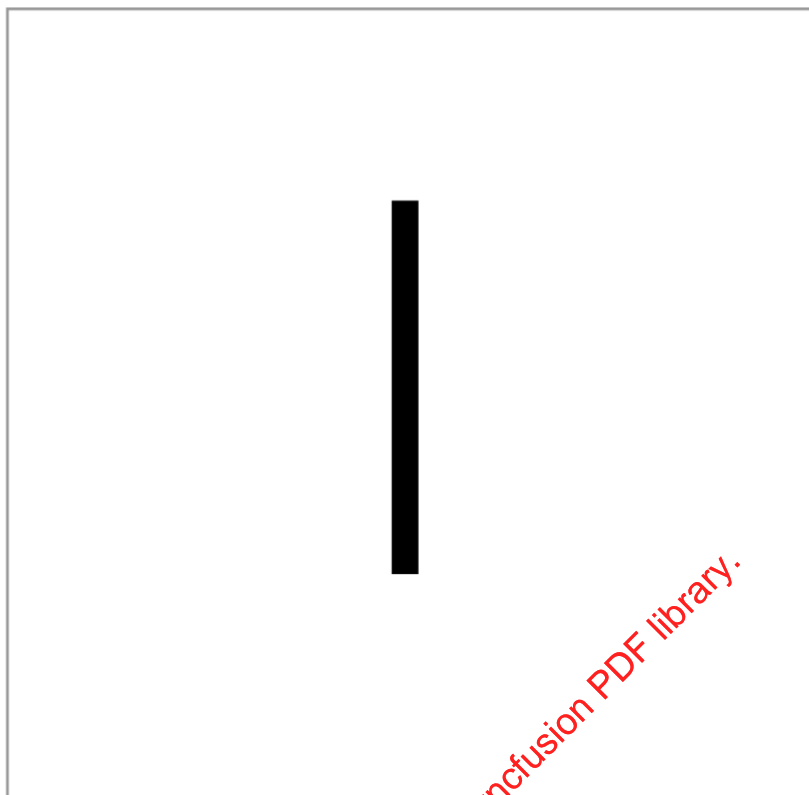


Figure 14: Screenshot of the previous stream (not drawn to scale)

Also notice that graphics don't need to be wrapped in **BT** and **ET** commands like text operators.

Next, we'll take a closer look at common operators for each phase of producing graphics.

Graphics State Operators

Graphics state operators are similar to text state operators in that they both affect the appearance of all painting operations. For example, setting the stroke width will determine the stroke width of all subsequent paths, just like **Tf** sets the font face and size of all subsequent text. This section covers the following graphics state operators:

- **<width> w**: Set the stroke width.
- **<pattern> <phase> d**: Set the stroke dash pattern.
- **<cap> J**: Set the line cap style (endpoints).
- **<cap> j**: Set the line join style (corners).
- **<limit> M**: Set the miter limit of corners.
- **<a> <c> <d> <e> <f> cm**: Set the graphics transformation matrix.
- **q** and **Q**: Create an isolated graphics state block.

The w Operator

The **w** operator defines the stroke width of future paths, measured in points. Remember though, PDFs don't draw the stroke of a path as it is being constructed—that requires a painting operator.

The d Operator

The **d** operator defines the dash pattern of strokes. It takes two parameters: an array and an offset. The array contains the dash pattern as a series of lengths. For example, the following stream creates a line with 20-point dashes with 10 points of space in between.

```
10 w  
[20 10] 0 d  
306 396 m  
306 594 l  
S
```

A few dash examples are included in the following figure. The last one shows you how to reset the dash state to a solid line.



Figure 15: Dashed lines demonstrating the behavior of **d**

The J, j, and M Operators

All three of these operators relate to the styling of the ends of path segments. The **J** operator defines the cap style, and **j** determines the join style. Both of them take an integer representing the style to use. The available options are presented in the following figure.

Cap Styles (J)			Join Styles (j)		
Mode	Result	Name	Mode	Result	Name
0		Butt Cap	0		Miter Join
1		Round Cap	1		Round Join
2		Projecting Cap	2		Bevel Join

Figure 16: Available modes for line caps and joins

The **m** operator sets the miter limit, which determines when mitered corners turn into bevels. This prevents lines with thick strokes from having long, sharp corners. Consider the following stream.

```
10 w
5 M
306 396 m
306 594 l
336 500 l
S
```

The **5 M** command turns what would be a mitered corner into a beveled one.

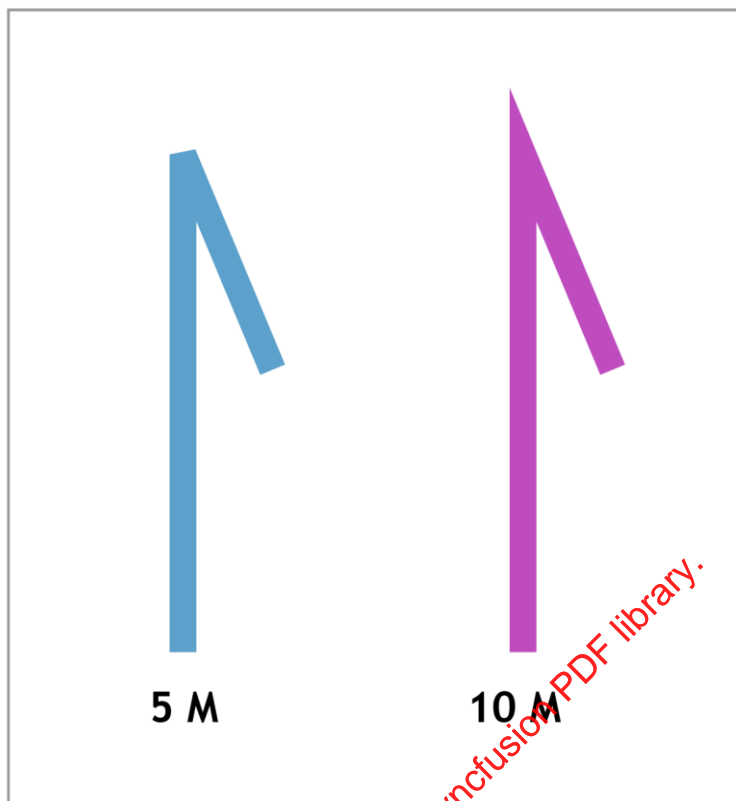


Figure 17: Forcing a beveled corner with 5 *M*

Increasing the miter limit from 5 *M* to 10 *M* will allow the PDF to display a sharp corner.

The cm Operator

Much like the *Tm* operator, *cm* sets the transformation matrix for everything drawn onto a page. Like the *Tm* matrix, it can rotate, scale, and skew graphics. But its most common usage is to change the origin of the page:

```
1 0 0 1 306 396 cm
10 w
5 M
0 0 m
0 198 1
30 104 1
S
```

This stream starts by moving the origin to the center of the page (instead of the lower-left corner). Then it draws the exact same graphic as the previous section, but using coordinates that are relative to the new origin.

The q and Q Operators

Complex graphics are often built up from smaller graphics that all have their own state. It's possible to separate elements from each other by placing operators in a **q/Q** block:

```
q
  1 0 0 1 306 396 cm
  10 w
  0 0 m
  0 198 1
  30 104 1
  S
Q
BT
  /F0 36 Tf
  (I'm in the corner!) Tj
ET
```

Everything between the **q** and **Q** operators happens in an isolated environment. As soon as **Q** is called, the **cm** operator is forgotten, and the origin returns to the bottom-left corner.

The RG, rg, K, and k Operators

While colors aren't technically considered graphics state operators, they do determine the color of all future drawing operators, so this is a logical place to introduce them.

PDFs can represent several color spaces, the most common of which are RGB and CMYK. In addition, stroke color and fill color can be selected independently. This gives us four operators for selecting colors:

- **RG**: Change the stroke color space to RGB and set the stroke color.
- **rg**: Change the fill color space to RGB and set the fill color.
- **K**: Change the stroke color space to CMYK and set the stroke color.
- **k**: Change the fill color space to CMYK and set the fill color.

RGB colors are defined as a percentage between 0 and 1 for the red, green, and blue components, respectively. For example, the following defines a red stroke with a blue fill.

```
0.75 0 0 RG
0 0 0.75 rg
10 w
306 396 m
306 594 1
336 500 1
B
```

Likewise, the CMYK operators take four percentages, one each for cyan, magenta, yellow, and black. The previous stream makes use of the **B** operator, which strokes *and* fills the path.

Path Construction Operators

Setting the graphics state is like choosing a paintbrush and loading it with paint. The next step is to draw the graphics onto the page. However, instead of putting a physical paintbrush to the page, we must represent graphics as numerical paths.

PDF path capabilities are surprisingly few:

- **<x> <y> m**: Move the cursor to the specified point.
- **<x> <y> l**: Draw a line from the current position to the specified point.
- **<x1> <y1> <x2> <y2> <x3> <y3> c**: Append a cubic Bézier curve to the current path.
- **h**: Close the current path with a line segment from the current position to the start of the path.

The m Operator

The **m** operator moves the graphics cursor (the “paintbrush”) to the specified location on the page. This is a very important operation—without it, all path segments would be connected and would begin at the origin.

The l (lowercase L) Operator

The **l** operator draws a line from the current point to another point. We’ve seen this many times in previous sections.

Remember that PDF is a low-level representation of text and graphics, so there is no “underlined text” in a PDF document. There is only text, and lines (as entirely independent entities). Underlining text must be performed manually.

```
.5 w
174 727 m
224 727 l
S
BT
    50 730 Td
    /F0 12 Tf
    (There is no such thing as underlined text!) Tj
ET
```

The c Operator

This operator creates a cubic Bézier curve, which is one of the most common ways to represent complex vector graphics. A cubic Bézier curve is defined by four points:

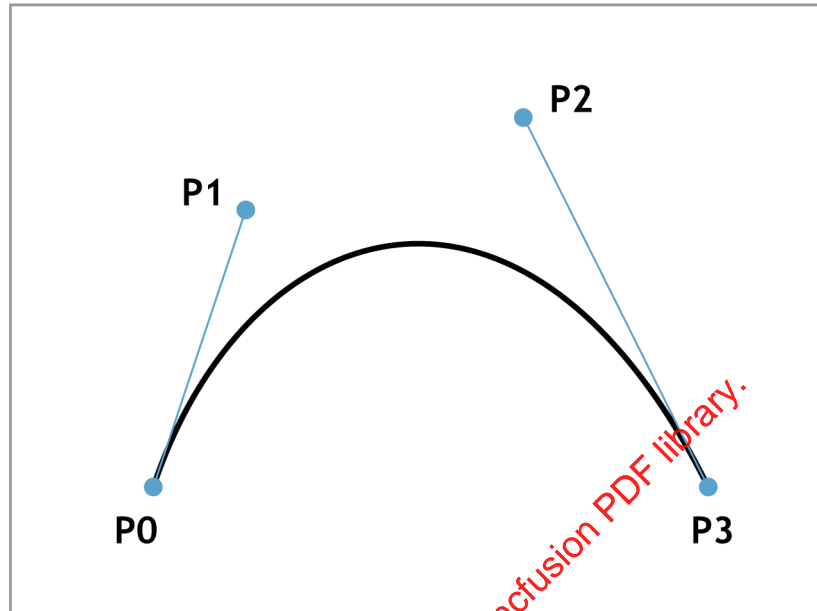


Figure 18: An exemplary Bézier curve

If you've ever used the pen tool in Adobe Illustrator, you should be familiar with Bézier curves. The curve shown in the previous figure can be created in a PDF with the following stream.

```
3 w  
250 250 m  
300 400 450 450 550 250 c  
S
```

The first anchor point is the current position (250, 250), the first control point is (300, 400), the second control point is (450, 450), and the final anchor is (550, 250).

The h Operator

The **h** operator closes the current path using a line segment from the current point to the beginning of the path. It takes no arguments. This operator can often be omitted, since many painting operators will automatically close the current path before painting it.

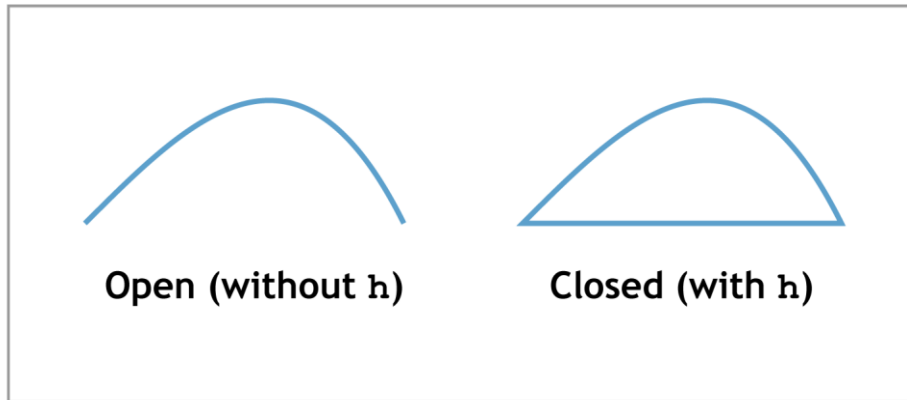


Figure 19: Closing the constructed path with the *h* operator

m, *l*, *c*, and *h* are the four main construction operators in a PDF. Again, there are no “shape” operators in the PDF specification—you cannot create a “circle” or a “triangle.” However, all shapes can be approximated as a series of lines, Bézier curves, or both. It is up to the PDF editor application to make higher-level shapes available to document authors and to transform them into a sequence of these simple construction operations.

Graphics Painting Operators

Once you’re done constructing a path, you must explicitly draw it with one of the painting operators. This is similar to the *Tj* operator for drawing text. After a painting operator is applied, the constructed path is *finished*—no more painting operators can be applied to it, and another call to a construction operator will begin a new path.

The S and s Operators

The *s* and *s* operators paint the stroke of the constructed path using the stroke width set by *w* and the stroke color set by *rg* or *k*. Before applying a stroke to the path, the lowercase version closes the current path with a line segment. This is the exact same behavior as *h s*.

The f Operator

The *f* operator fills the constructed path with the current fill color set by *rg* or *k*. The current path *must* be closed before painting the fill, so there is no equivalent to the capital *S* for painting strokes. The following stream creates a blue triangle.

```
0 0 0.75 rg
10 w
306 396 m
306 594 l
400 500 l
f
```

Remember that painting a path completes the current path. This means the sequence `£ s` will only fill the path—the `s` applies to a *new* path that has not been constructed yet. To fill *and* stroke a path, we need a dedicated operator.

The **B** and **b** Operators

The **B** and **b** operators paint *and* stroke the current path. Like `s`, the lowercase **b** closes the path before painting it. However, since filling a path implicitly closes it, the distinction between **B** and **b** can only be seen in the stroke as shown in the following figure.

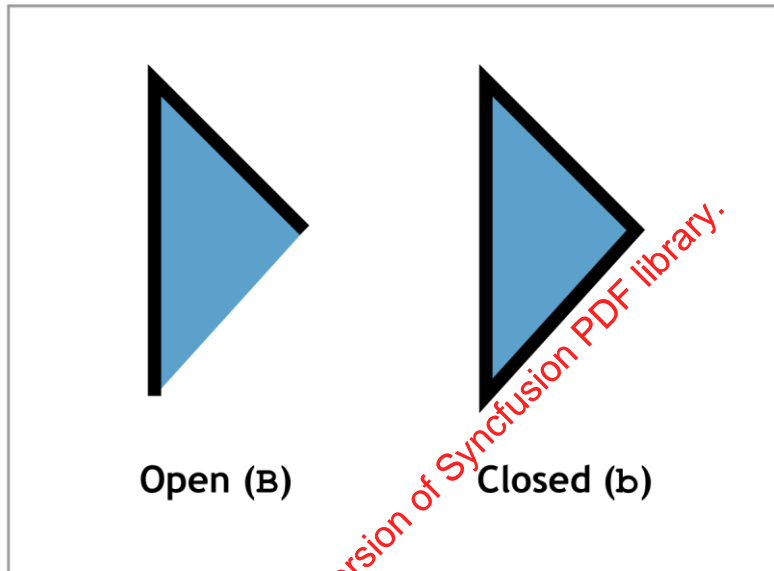


Figure 20: Deciding to open or close a path via a painting operator

The * (asterisk) Operators

The fill behavior of `£`, **B**, and **b** are relatively straightforward for simple shapes. Painting fills becomes more complicated when you start working with paths that intersect themselves. For example, consider the following:



Figure 21: PDF's fill algorithms

As you can see, such a path can be filled using two different methods: the *nonzero winding number rule* or the *even-odd rule*. The technical details of these algorithms are outside the scope of this book, but their effect is readily apparent in the previous diagram.

The fill operators we've seen thus far use the nonzero winding number rule. PDFs have dedicated operators for even-odd rule fills: **f***, **B***, and **b***. Aside from the fill algorithm, these operators work the exact same as their un-asterisked counterparts.

Summary

PDFs were initially designed to be a digital representation of physical paper and ink. The graphics operators presented in this chapter make it possible to represent arbitrary paths as a sequence of lines and curves.

Like their textual counterparts, graphics operators are *procedural*. They mimic the actions an artist would take to draw the same image. This can be intuitive if you're *creating* graphics from scratch, but can become quite complicated if you're trying to manually *edit* an image. For example, it's easy to say something like, "Draw a line from here to there," but it's much harder to say, "Move this box two inches to the left." Once again, this task is left up to PDF editor applications.

Chapter 5 Navigation and Annotations

We've seen how PDFs can accurately represent a physical document in a digital file, but they also provide powerful features that take advantage of their medium. Whereas interactive navigation and editable comments are not possible with a physical book, PDFs make it easy to take notes, share them with others, and bookmark important locations.

This chapter explores the three most important types of user interaction: the document outline, hyperlinks, and text annotations.

Preparations

Before exploring the internal navigation scheme of a PDF, we need a document long enough to demonstrate these interactive features. For our example, all we need to do is add another page. This will also serve as a relevant review of the core PDF objects.

Let's start by adding the page to the document root. The only change here is to add `6 0 R` to the `/Kids` entry.

```
1 0 obj
<< /Type /Pages
    /Kids [2 0 R 6 0 R]
    /Count 2
>>
endobj
```

Next, we need to create the page object and give it an ID of `6 0`. Objects can occur in any order, so you can put this anywhere in the document body.

```
6 0 obj
<< /Type /Page
    /MediaBox [0 0 612 792]
    /Resources 3 0 R
    /Parent 1 0 R
    /Contents [7 0 R]
>>
endobj
```

This looks exactly like our other page (`2 0 obj`), but it points to a different content stream (`7 0 R`). This page will contain a little bit of textual data.

```

7 0 obj
<< >>
stream
1 0 0 1 50 706 cm
BT
    24 TL
    /F0 36 Tf
    (Page Two) Tj T*
    /F0 12 Tf
    (This is the second page of our document.) Tj
ET
endstream
endobj

```

And that's all we have to do to create another page.

The Document Outline

Complex PDFs usually come with an interactive table of contents for user-friendly navigation. Internally, this is called a **document outline**. PDF readers typically present this outline as a nested tree that the user can open and close.

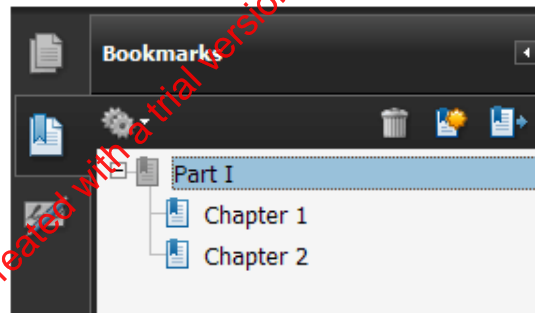


Figure 22: Screenshot of a document outline in Adobe Acrobat Pro

The structure of such a tree is maintained separately from the page objects and content streams of the document. But, like these components, a document outline begins in the catalog object. Add an **/Outlines** entry to our existing catalog.

```

5 0 obj
<< /Type /Catalog
    /Pages 1 0 R
    /Outlines 8 0 R
>>
endobj

```

This points to the root of the document outline. We're going to create a very simple outline that looks exactly like the one shown in the previous figure. It contains a single root node.

```
8 0 obj
<< /First 9 0 R
    /Last 9 0 R
>>
endobj
```

The **/First** and **/Last** entries are a reference to the only top-level node in the outline. In the real world, a PDF would probably have more than one top-level node, but you get the idea. Next, we need to create the following node.

```
9 0 obj
<< /Parent 8 0 R
    /Title (Part I)
    /First 10 0 R
    /Last 11 0 R
    /Dest [2 0 R /Fit]
>>
endobj
```

/Parent points back to the document root. **/Title** is a string literal containing the section title displayed by the PDF reader. **/First** and **/Last** are the same as in the **8 0 obj**—they point to this node's first and last children. Since this node will have two children, **/First** and **/Last** are different.

Finally, the **/Dest** entry defines the destination of the navigation item. A destination is a specific location in the document, specified as a page number, position on the page, and magnification. In this case, we want to display the first page (**2 0 R**) and zoom to fit the entire page in the reader's window (no position can be specified when a page is zoomed to fit). There are several keywords besides **/Fit** that can be used for fine-grained control over a user's interaction with the document. A few of these will be covered shortly.

Next, we need to add the two child nodes to "Part I". The first one will navigate to the top of the second page.

```

10 0 obj
<< /Parent 9 0 R
    /Title (Chapter 1)
    /Next 11 0 R
    /Dest [6 0 R /FitH 792]
>>
endobj

```

This looks very similar to its parent node, but it has no sub-nodes, so **/First** and **/Last** can be omitted. Instead, it needs a **/Next** entry to point to its sibling. The **/FitH** keyword instructs the PDF reader to zoom just enough to make the width of the page fill the width of the window. After **/FitH** is the vertical coordinate to display at the top of the window. Since we wanted to navigate to the top of the page, we specified the height of the page; however, passing a lower value would let you scroll partway down the page. There is a corresponding **/FitV** keyword that fills vertically and offsets from the left of the page.

Finally, we arrive at the last navigation item. This one will point to a destination halfway down the second page.

```

11 0 obj
<< /Parent 9 0 R
    /Title (Chapter 2)
    /Prev 10 0 R
    /Dest [6 0 R /XYZ 0 396 2]
>>
endobj

```

Again, this is just like the previous node, except it has a **/Prev** pointing back to its previous sibling. And, instead of zooming to fit, we manually specified a location (0, 396) and a magnification (2) using the **/XYZ** keyword.

To summarize, the document outline consists of a series of navigation items. The **/First**, **/Last**, **/Next**, **/Prev**, and **/Parent** dictionary entries relate items to each other and define the structure of the outline as a whole. Each item also contains a destination to navigate to, which is defined as a page, location, and magnification.

The Initial Destination

In addition to defining a user-controlled navigation tree, the catalog object can control the initial page to display. This can be accomplished by passing a destination to the `/OpenAction` entry in the catalog object.

```
5 0 obj
<< /Type /Catalog
    /Pages 1 0 R
    /Outlines 8 0 R
    /OpenAction [6 0 R /Fit]
>>
endobj
```

Now, when you open the document, the second page (6 0 obj) will be displayed and the viewer will zoom to fit the entire page.

Hyperlinks

It's also possible to create hyperlinks *within* the document to jump to another destination. PDF hyperlinks aren't like HTML links where the link is directly connected with the text—they are merely rectangular areas placed on top of the page, much like a graphic. They work more like buttons than true hyperlinks.

Hyperlinks are one of many types of *annotations*. Annotations are extra information associated with a particular page. Pages cannot share annotations. The second most common type of annotation is a comment, which we'll look at in a moment.

Annotations are stored in an array under the `/Annots` entry in a page object. Our link will be on the second page (6 0 obj):

```
6 0 obj
<< /Type /Page
    /MediaBox [0 0 612 792]
    /Resources 3 0 R
    /Parent 1 0 R
    /Contents [7 0 R]
    /Annots [12 0 R]
>>
endobj
```

Next we need to create the annotation.


```

12 0 obj
<< /Type /Annot
    /Subtype /Link
    /Dest [2 0 R /Fit]
    /Rect [195 695 248 677]
>>
endobj

```

The **/Subtype** entry tells the PDF reader that this is a hyperlink and not a comment, or one of the other kinds of annotations. Like navigation items, **/Dest** is the destination to jump to when the user clicks the link. And finally, **/Rect** is a rectangle defining the area of the hyperlink. Again, links are not directly associated with the text—they are just an area on the page.

If you don't like the visible border around the hyperlink rectangle, you can get rid of it with: **/Border** [0 0 0].

Text Annotations

Text annotations are user-defined comments associated with a location on a page. They are commonly displayed as “sticky notes” that the user can open and close.

Like hyperlinks, text annotations reside in the **/Annots** array of the page object to which they belong. First, add another object to the **/Annots** array of the second page:

```

6 0 obj
<< /Type /Page
    /MediaBox [0 0 12 792]
    /Resources 3 6 R
    /Parent 1 0 R
    /Contents [7 0 R]
    /Annots [12 0 R 13 0 R]
>>
endobj

```

Then, create the annotation.

```
13 0 obj
<< /Type /Annot
    /Subtype /Text
    /Contents (Hey look! A comment!)
    /Rect [570 0 0 700]
>>
endobj
```

Again, **/Subtype** defines the type of annotation. **/Contents** is the textual content of the annotation, and **/Rect** is the location. This rectangle should place the comment in the upper-right margin of the second page.

Text annotations have a few additional properties that give you more control over their appearance. For example, you can add an **/Open** entry with the value of **true** to the annotation object to make it open by default. You can also change the icon displayed with **/Name** **/Help**. Other supported icons are: **/Insert**, **/Key**, **/NewParagraph**, **/Note**, and **/Paragraph**.

Aside from **/Link** and **/Text**, there are many other forms of annotations. Some, like **/Line** annotations, are simply more advanced versions of text annotations. But others, like **/Movie** annotations, can associate arbitrary media with a page.

Summary

This chapter presented document outlines, hyperlinks, and text annotations, but this is only a small fraction of the interactive features available in a PDF document. The specification includes more than 20 types of annotations, including everything from printer's marks to file attachments. The complete list of annotations can be found in chapter 8 of Adobe's *PDF Reference*.