

# Macros

## Implementing key–value input: An introduction

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### Abstract

The key–value system is justly popular as it greatly simplifies controlling packages for the user. Unfortunately, that ease of use is not transferred into setting up key–value systems for authors of pre-packaged  $\TeX$  code. This article describes how to implement key–value controls for both  $\TeX$  and  $\LaTeX$  authors, including a brief overview of how the underlying system works. As well as the original `keyval` package, the various extended `keyval`-based packages are covered, looking at the relative advantages of each system. Looking beyond `keyval`-based systems, an overview of the `pgfkeys` package is also given.

### 1 Introduction

The key–value method uses a comma-separated list of  $\langle key \rangle = \langle value \rangle$  to set one or more  $\langle key \rangle$ s. The code applied when a  $\langle key \rangle$  is given can undertake a range of processing on the  $\langle value \rangle$ . Almost every  $(\LaTeX)$  user will have come across the power of the this method for providing control values. The interface is increasingly widespread in controlling package and class behaviour. It offers a much cleaner method for managing large numbers of options or control values than defining multiple single-use macros and complex optional arguments.

The original `keyval` package (Carlisle, 1999) provides a core of functionality. This has been extended by `xkeyval` (Adriaens, 2008), `kvoptions` (Oberdiek, 2009a) and `kvsetkeys` (Oberdiek, 2009b), providing additional tools for the developer, and making key–value input available for  $\LaTeX$  package and class options.

Unfortunately, the ease of key–value input for the user has not translated into easy development of new uses of key–value syntax in package control. Many (even experienced)  $(\LaTeX)$  code authors struggle to make a start with implementing key–value methods. This article aims to make key–value input more accessible. The major use of key–value syntax is controlling  $\LaTeX$  packages and classes, and this is reflected in the focus here. However, all of the key–value implementations are compatible to some extent with plain  $\TeX$ . A short section on use with plain  $\TeX$  is included here, and as far as possible all of the examples use only plain  $\TeX$  macros.

Throughout the article, “package” is used to refer to a  $\LaTeX$  package,  $\LaTeX$  class or other file using key–value input.

The `pgfkeys` system implements a key–value interface in a somewhat different manner from the various `keyval`-derived packages. As a result, it has unique strengths. Due to the differing approaches of the `keyval`-based systems and `pgfkeys`, the latter is covered in its own section. Many of the concepts from the `keyval` package and its derivatives apply to `pgfkeys`, and so the general introduction is useful even for users who have already decided on `pgfkeys`.

The various packages discussed have a range of features not covered in this article: in order to remain accessible, only the most widely-applicable concepts are discussed. Some simplifications have also been made where these will not impede the more advanced user. More detail can of course be found in the various package documentation. There is also a *TUGboat* article covering the design and some of the more advanced features of `xkeyval` (Adriaens and Kern, 2005).

### 2 How key–value works

There are two parts to using the key–value system: defining keys, and assigning values to keys. When using the `keyval` package itself, these tasks are handled by the macros `\define@key` and `\setkeys`, respectively.

The *key* in key–value input is the “name” of a data item. The model used by `keyval` divides keys into *families*: groups of keys that can be processed together. The `\define@key` macro is used to define keys. This requires three pieces of information: the key name, the family to which the key belongs, and a handler for the key. Consider a package `fam` defining a key `key`, which simply prints the value given:

```
\define@key{fam}{key}{#1}
```

As can be seen, `\define@key` takes three arguments,  $\langle family \rangle$ ,  $\langle key \rangle$  and  $\langle handler \rangle$ . The  $\langle handler \rangle$  receives the value given for the key as macro argument `#1`, and can consist of any  $\TeX$  code appropriate to process the *value* assigned to the key (the part after the equals sign).

How does `\define@key` work? A new macro `\langle prefix \rangle @ \langle family \rangle @ \langle key \rangle` is defined, with expansion  $\langle handler \rangle$ . So in the example above, the following would achieve the same effect:

```
\def\KV@fam@key#1{#1}
```

Here, the *prefix* is a code added to the beginning of the key name, and acts as a family of families. The prefix is fixed with the value `KV`: only `xkeyval` allows this to be varied.

The `\setkeys` macro is then used to set key values, the second part of the key–value concept. The input to `\setkeys` is a comma-separated list: each comma-separated  $\langle key \rangle = \langle value \rangle$  pair is therefore processed in turn. Unlike the majority of  $\TeX$  macros, this process ignores spaces between key–value pairs:

```
\setkeys{fam}{
  key one=value 1 ,
  key two=value2
}
```

consists of two key–value pairs “`key_one=value_1`” and “`key_two=value2`”. Notice that both the key name and the value can contain spaces. Braces must be used to protect literal “,” and “=” characters inside `\setkeys`:

```
\setkeys{fam}{
  key three={value1,value2},
  key four={some=stuff}
}
```

For each pair found, `\setkeys` then attempts to separate the data into a key and a value, delimited by an equals sign. If there is no equals sign, an error will normally be raised. Assuming a value is found (even an empty one, if there is nothing after “=”), `\setkeys` looks for a macro of the form  $\langle prefix \rangle @ \langle family \rangle @ \langle key \rangle$  to handle the input. If such a macro exists, it is executed with the value as argument #1. If no macro is found, the key is regarded as undefined, and an error is raised. In the example earlier, the result of the `\setkeys` operation is to supply the key macro for `key one` with “`value 1`”, and that for `key two` with “`value2`”.

`\setkeys` passes the value to the processing macro as is. Thus macro names, *etc.*, can be used without worrying about expansion in the process.

### 3 Defining keys

As outlined in the previous section, a key is defined by creating a suitably-named macro. However, defining every key using `\def` or `\newcommand` would add considerably to the effort of using key–value input. All of the packages discussed here provide more convenient methods.

#### 3.1 Using the `keyval` package

The `\define@key` macro for key definition is the only method that the original `keyval` package provides. However, this is the most powerful method for defining a key: the developer is completely free to code any handler required. One particularly common process is to store the value in a macro to be used later:

```
\define@key{fam}{key}{\def\fam@data{#1}}
```

This stores the value given for `key` in `\fam@data`. The definition of the storage macro does not occur until the key is used for the first time. Thus if the macro must be defined even if the key has not been used, an additional line is necessary:

```
\def\fam@data{initial}
\define@key{fam}{key}{%
  \def\fam@data{#1}%
}
```

Setting the key `key` will then redefine `\fam@data` to contain whatever value is passed to the key. Notice that here the key family has been used as the start of the storage macro name.

As was explained in Section 2, keys must have a value (even if this is empty). It is possible to specify a default value for a key, which is then used if the user does not supply one (this does *not* mean that the key is defined before it is first used!). A default value is supplied as an optional argument to the `\define@key` macro, which following the  $\LaTeX$  convention appears in square brackets:

```
\define@key{fam}{key}[default]{%
  \def\fam@data{#1}%
}
```

This means that

```
\setkeys{fam}{key}
```

is interpreted as though the user had written

```
\setkeys{fam}{key=default}
```

The handler macro receives the default value in exactly the same way as user-supplied data.

Using the “raw” `\define@key` macro rapidly becomes awkward when a large number of similar keys are required. Package authors can of course write short-cut macros to make the process easier. However, the other key–value packages seek to address this issue by making one or more common key definitions available directly.

#### 3.2 Using `kvsetkeys`

Using `kvsetkeys` adds several “low-level” functions to `keyval`; those related to setting keys will be addressed later. `kvsetkeys` does not add any methods for processing *known* key names, and indeed relies on the explicit loading of `keyval` to define keys. It does, however, add a customised handler for key names which have not been defined.

When using the `kvsetkeys` package, a handler for unknown keys in a family is created using the macro `\kv@set@family@handler`. This allows data input for arbitrary key names, or perhaps simply a customised warning or error message. The name of the key used is available as #1. A simple warning could be given by:

```
\kv@set@family@handler{fam}{%
  \wlog{Warning: key ‘#1’
    unknown by package fam}
}
```

A more complex example might be to use the input to define a new macro. The value given for the key (if any) is available as #2. For example,

```
\kv@set@family@handler{fam}{%
  \expandafter\def\csname
    fam@user@#1\endcsname{#2}%
}
```

creates a new internal macro including the name of the unknown key to store the given value. Notice that the definition includes a marker that this is a user-provided key name (`\fam@user@`), as no check has been made for an existing definition.

### 3.3 Using kvoptions

As the package name indicates, `kvoptions` helps L<sup>A</sup>T<sub>E</sub>X developers use key–value input for package and class options. However, as we will see later, there is no fundamental difference between defining keys and defining key–value package options.

The `kvoptions` package makes life easier for the author by allowing the family value to be defined once, and then used in all subsequent key definitions. It also automatically generates various macros for the package author:

```
\SetupKeyvalOptions{
  family = fam,
  prefix = fam@
}
```

This defines the family as `fam`, and prefixes all new storage macros with `\fam@`. This does *not* affect the key prefix, used for the key macros themselves, which still start with `\KV@...`. Usually, the *prefix* given here will be simply `<fam>@`, as this means all storage macros are defined as `\fam@...`. The rest of this section assumes this convention is used, and that the setup above applies. If no data has been supplied using `\SetupKeyvalOptions`, the family and macro prefix are taken from the name of the current package.

The `kvoptions` package provides macros for defining new keys (or options):

- `\DeclareBoolOption`;
- `\DeclareComplementaryOption`;
- `\DeclareStringOption`.

The names of the macros are a good guide to the general method key type they produce. `kvoptions` also provides methods applicable only to package options: these are discussed later.

`\DeclareBoolOption` creates a true/false key. Giving the key name alone is the same as giving it

with the true value. A new switch is created which is named `\if<fam>@<key>`, which works in the same way as though created using `\newif`.

```
\DeclareBoolOption{active}
% Other code
\iffam@active
  % Do stuff
\else
  % Do nothing
\fi
```

`\DeclareComplementaryOption` creates a complementary key to an existing Boolean key. The most common example might be setting draft *versus* final:

```
\DeclareBoolOption{final}
\DeclareComplementaryOption
  {draft}{final}
% Other code
\iffam@final
  % Do final stuff
\else
  % Do draft stuff
\fi
```

In this way, the same switch may be set by keys with differing names.

`\DeclareStringOption` creates a new storage macro, to hold the data provided as the key value. This is similar to the `\define@key` method for saving to a macro given earlier.

```
\DeclareStringOption{key}
```

stores the value given in the macro `\fam@key`. An initial value can be provided for the option, so that `\fam@key` will be defined under all circumstances. This uses a L<sup>A</sup>T<sub>E</sub>X optional argument;

```
\DeclareStringOption[initial]{key}
```

has a similar result to

```
\def\fam@data{initial}
\define@key{fam}{key}{%
  \def\fam@key{#1}%
}
```

so that `\fam@key` will expand to “initial”, until the key is set to an explicit value.

### 3.4 Extended keyval: xkeyval

The `xkeyval` package extends the key–value system further than any of the other packages. As a result, it has a much richer (and more complex) command syntax. The first point to note is that, unlike the other packages discussed, `xkeyval` allows the developer to alter the key prefix. This is achieved by adding an optional argument to `\define@key`:

```
\define@key{fam}{key}{#1}
\define@key[pre]{fam}{key}{#1}
```

The first command defines `\KV@fam@key` as the key-handling macro; the second defines `\pre@fam@key`.

If no explicit key prefix is given, the value `KV` is used. Of course, altering the key prefix means that `\setkeys` also needs to be modified to accommodate it. To set the two keys above, the appropriate `\setkeys` commands would be

```
\setkeys{fam}{key=input}
\setkeys[pre]{fam}{key=input}
```

Notice that, in contrast to `kvoptions`, there is no method to pre-set the family, *etc.* As a result, when defining a large number of keys it is often convenient to first create customised definition macros:

```
\def\fam@define@key{\define@key{fam}}
\def\fam@define@mykey
  {\define@key[pre]{fam}}
```

As is the case with `kvoptions`, `xkeyval` provides an extended set of key definition types:

- `\define@key`;
- `\define@boolkey`;
- `\define@boolkeys`;
- `\define@cmdkey`;
- `\define@cmdkeys`;
- `\define@choicekey`.

The extended version of `\define@key` has already been discussed. The concept of key prefix applies to all of the other key types, although the remaining examples all use the default `KV` prefix. If the prefix is given, it is always the first, optional, argument to the definition macro.

The `\define@boolkey` macro creates a single Boolean key. The key definition requires a function, even though this may be blank. To allow the key name alone to be used as equivalent to `key=true`, a default value is needed. This follows the  $\LaTeX$  convention of appearing in square brackets, but is not the first argument given: instead, it follows the key name, for example,

```
\define@boolkey{opt}{key}[true]{}

```

creates a new switch `\ifKV@fam@key`, and a key-processing macro `\KV@fam@key` with no customised function attached: the `\if` is simply set appropriately. The name of the new switch can be altered using a second option argument to specify the macro prefix. This again appears in square brackets, between the family and key names:

```
\define@boolkey{opt}[fam@]
  {key}[true]{}

```

creates the switch `\iffam@key`, and is functionally equivalent to the `\DeclareBoolOption` macro from `kvoptions`.

Several Boolean keys can be created in one go using `\define@boolkeys`. Here, no custom function

is needed (or indeed permitted). A default value is still needed to allow use of the key name alone:

```
\define@boolkeys{opt}[fam@]
  {key,key two,key three}[true]

```

Using `\define@cmdkey` creates a storage macro for the value given, along with a processing macro. This can become somewhat complicated, and so some examples are needed.

```
\define@cmdkey{fam}{key}{}

```

creates a new key macro `\KV@fam@key`, which will store the input in `\cmdKV@fam@key`. The name of the storage macro can be altered by adding a macro prefix argument, as with Boolean keys:

```
\define@cmdkey{fam}[fam@]{key}{}

```

The name of the *key* macro is unchanged, but the storage macro is now called `\fam@key`. Notice that both examples include a final processing argument: in these examples this is blank as storage of the input alone is required. A default can be given for a command key, as an optional argument after the key name:

```
\define@cmdkey{fam}[fam@]{key}
  [default]{}

```

The `\define@cmdkeys` macro allows the creation of several keys at one go, using a comma-separated list. Only one default is available for all of the commands, and a custom function cannot be given. In many cases, this will not be an issue as the stored value is the aim of the key. For example, to create three command keys `key`, `key two` and `key three`:

```
\define@cmdkeys{fam}[fam@]
  {key,key two,key three}

```

For large numbers of storage keys, this method is preferable to multiple calls to `\define@cmdkey`.

Finally, `\define@choicekey` allows creation of a key with a limited number of valid input values from an arbitrary list. This key type has several optional arguments which make it somewhat difficult to set up without experimentation. At the most basic, the value is checked by `xkeyval` and is then passed to key handler function:

```
\define@choicekey{fam}{key}
  {val1,val2,val3}
  {You chose: #1}

```

Here, the key `key` can take only the values `val1`, `val2` and `val3`. The `*` modifier makes the comparison by `\define@choicekey` case-insensitive.

```
\define@choicekey*{fam}{key}
  {val1,Val2,VAL3}
  {You chose: #1}

```

will match `key=val1`, `key=Val1`, *etc.* In these examples, the processing macro simply displays the

user's choice. Further processing of keywords is possible in this argument, for example to set several switches based on a keyword. Adding the + modifier to `\define@choicekey` makes a second handler available for items not on the list:

```
\define@choicekey+*{fam}{key}
  {val1,val2,val3}
  {You chose: #1}
  {\wlog{Invalid choice ‘#1’: you
    must put ‘key=val1’, ‘key=val2’
    or ‘key=val3’}%
  }
```

Here, valid choices act as in the previous example. Any other value will use the second handler, which in this case simply writes a warning to the log.

The macros outlined above all have more extended syntax, with additional optional arguments. This more complex area has been covered by the authors of `xkeyval` (Adriaens and Kern, 2005).

#### 4 Setting keys: user interface

As described in Section 2, the `keyval` package sets key values using the `\setkeys` macro. The same is true for `kvoptions` and `xkeyval` (the latter overloads its own modified version of the macro). In contrast, `kvsetkeys` uses the `\kvsetkeys` macro; this is designed to be more robust than `\setkeys` as defined by `keyval`, and to cope better with altered catcodes for “,” and “=”.

The `\kvsetkeys` macro can also set keys from the other packages, provided they use the key prefix `KV`. Thus the only keys that cannot be set by `\kvsetkeys` are those produced using `xkeyval` with a non-standard key prefix. In the following discussion, `\setkeys` could therefore be replaced by `\kvsetkeys`.

The `\setkeys` macro needs to know the family (and potentially prefix) to which keys belong. Often, and especially when developing a package, a user macro which already contains this information is desirable. The usual method is to define a custom setup macro:

```
\def\famsetup#1{\setkeys{fam}{#1}}
```

An optional key–value argument to user macros is often defined, so that settings apply only to that instance of the macro. Provided the processing of the macro occurs inside a group, this is easy to achieve (using `LATEX` for convenience):

```
\newcommand*{\mycmd}[2] [] {%
  % #1 is the optional keyval argument
  % #2 is a mandatory argument
  \begingroup
    \setkeys{fam}{#1}%
    % Do stuff with #2
  \endgroup}
```

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#### 4.1 `\kvsetkeys` versus `\setkeys`

Using `\kvsetkeys` adds three major refinements to the `keyval` `\setkeys` macro. Firstly, `\kvsetkeys` reliably sets keys when the catcodes for “,” and “=” are non-standard. This is important when using packages that make the equals sign active, for example the `turkish` option of `babel`. The `xkeyval` version of `\setkeys` also handles these cases correctly.

Secondly, both `\kvsetkeys` and `\setkeys` remove some braces from value input. `\kvsetkeys` aims to be more predictable. It removes only one set of curly braces, whereas `\setkeys` may remove one or two sets of braces, depending on circumstances.

Finally, `\kvsetkeys` supports the unknown key handler. This will be many authors' motivation to use `kvsetkeys`: handling unknown keys otherwise requires adding custom low-level code.

#### 5 `LATEX` package and class options

The preceding sections apply to using key–value methods in a wide variety of situations. One of the most common aims of authors considering key–value input is to use it for processing `LATEX` package or class options. This has particular points to consider, and therefore specialised macros have been made available for this area.

Any key defined when processing occurs is available as an option. This means that options can be created using `\define@key` or any of the higher-level macros listed here. It also means that any key–value option is also a valid key. This may not always be desirable, and is considered further in Section 6.1.

Before using key–value options, the careful developer should know the limitations of the system. Before package options are passed to the key–value system, they are processed by `LATEX`. The kernel removes all unprotected spaces from the input, which means that key names' spaces will be rendered useless. Secondly, unlike direct use of `\setkeys`, the kernel will expand the input. This means that some keys should *not* be given as options to a package.

Although patches exist to deal with these problems, these are not generally useful: the patches must be loaded before input of the package or class requiring them! This leaves the package author with two options. The first approach is to abandon key–value load-time options, with a setup macro used only after loading the package. More commonly, the options can be designed to minimise the impact of the problem. Design steps to achieve this include:

- Avoiding any key names containing spaces;
- For keys which will receive values containing spaces, initially defining the key to gobble the

value with a warning, then redefining it after processing options to the real meaning (see Section 6.1);

- For keys that will require a single macro, requiring the `csname` rather than the macro itself, then using `\csname... \endcsname` in the implementation.

To allow key–value syntax to be used in package options, the standard  $\LaTeX$  method for handling option input has to be modified. This can be done directly, but copy–pasting code is not normally considered good programming. `xkeyval` and `kvoptions` both provide suitable macro definitions.

### 5.1 Using `kvoptions`

When using `kvoptions`, option processing takes place using the `\ProcessKeyvalOptions` macro. This has to be supplied with the family of keys to be processed:

```
\ProcessKeyvalOptions{fam}
```

To make handling certain styles of option easier, `kvoptions` provides two key-defining macros which are very focussed on package options. Options acting in the normal  $\LaTeX$  manner are created by the `\DeclareVoidOption` macro. The key is to be used alone, but if a value is given it is ignored with a warning. As this is essentially a standard  $\LaTeX$  option, the normal need to provide an action exists:

```
\DeclareVoidOption{old}{%
  \PackageInfo{fam}{You gave the ‘old’ option}%
}
```

`\DeclareDefaultOption` is used to process unknown options, in the manner of the  $\LaTeX$  kernel `\DeclareOption*` macro. The result is that `\CurrentOptionKey` stores the current key name, with `\CurrentOptionValue` holding any value which was given, or `\relax` if there is no value.

```
\DeclareDefaultOption{%
  \PackageInfo{fam}{%
    You gave the ‘\CurrentOptionKey’ option,
    with value ‘\CurrentOptionValue’
  }%
}
```

### 5.2 Using `xkeyval`

The `\ProcessOptionsX` macro is used to process `xkeyval` options. As might be expected, this takes an optional prefix and mandatory family argument. The family has to be given in angle brackets, for example

```
\ProcessOptionsX<fam>
```

Loading `xkeyval` provides `\DeclareOptionX` for handling package options which may have no value.

Values *can* be accepted, and are available as `#1`. This macro does not require a key family, although one can be given as an optional argument, again in angle brackets.

```
\DeclareOptionX<fam>{letter}{%
  \PassOptionsToPackage{geometry}
  {letter}%
}
\DeclareOptionX<fam>{date}
  {\renewcommand*{\date}{#1}}
```

The `\DeclareOptionX*` macro works like the kernel’s `\DeclareOption*` macro, but no error is raised if the option is in `<key>=<value>` format. In contrast to `kvoptions`, the entire unknown input (key, plus potentially an equals sign and a value) is stored as `\CurrentOption`.

```
\DeclareOptionX*{%
  \PackageWarning{fam}
  {'\CurrentOption’ invalid}}
```

## 6 Additional considerations

### 6.1 Redefining and disabling keys

Keys can be (re)defined at any point using any of the key-defining macros discussed here. Thus keys can be defined to only give a warning, then redefined later to carry out a function. This is particularly useful for  $\LaTeX$  package options, where the key may not be appropriate at load time but may be later.

Conversely, some keys are appropriate only before some action (such as loading a file) takes place. Disabling a key simply requires that the key is defined to do nothing:

```
\define@key{fam}{key}{\wlog{Key ‘key’ ignored}}
```

If a key (re)definition occurs inside a group (such as `\begingroup... \endgroup` or `{...}`), the definition applies only inside that group. There is no `\global` prefix to `\define@key`, and so to ensure that a key is globally disabled, the low-level  $\TeX$  `\gdef` must be used:

```
\gdef\KV@fam@key#1{\wlog{Key ‘key’ ignored}}
```

Both `kvoptions` and `xkeyval` provide high level methods for disabling keys. `kvoptions` defines the `\DisableKeyvalOption` macro, which requires only the family and key name:

```
\DisableKeyvalOption{fam}{key}
```

This macro takes an optional argument which can be used to control the result of attempting to use a disabled key (warning, error, ignore, *etc.*). The use of the optional argument is illustrated in Section 7. `xkeyval` provides the similar `\disable@keys`:

```
\disable@keys{fam}{key}
```

In this case, the macro can accept the usual `xkeyval` optional argument for the key prefix.

## 6.2 Setting one key from another

There are occasions when the setting of one key affects another. Usually, this can be accommodated using `\setkeys` within `\define@key` (or a derivative, if using `xkeyval`):

```
\define@key{fam}{key}{#1}
\define@key{fam}{key two}{%
  You said: \setkeys{fam}{key=#1}%
}
```

If two keys should function in an identical manner, it is sometimes easier to `\let` one to the definition of the other. Be careful about default values: only the key defined using `\define@key` will have one using this method! This issue can be avoided by first declaring the keys as normal, then carrying out the `\let`.

```
\define@key{fam}{key}[default]{#1}
\define@key{fam}{key two}[default]{}
\expandafter\let\csname
  KV@fam@key two\endcsname\KV@fam@key
```

gives two identical keys, `key` and `key two`, with the same default.

The use of these methods to allow alternative spellings for setting a key, to set a storage macro and a `\TeX \if...`, are illustrated in Section 7.

## 6.3 Interaction between the different key–value packages

The `xkeyval`, `kvoptions` and `kvsetkeys` packages all use unique macro names (both user and internal). All three can therefore be loaded without issue. Provided the standard key prefix `KV` is used, the keys generated are also cross-compatible.

Neither `kvoptions` nor `kvsetkeys` define any of the macros from the `keyval` package itself. This means that they require `keyval`, and that they do not affect its functions. `xkeyval` works differently, using its own definition of the core `keyval` macros, and under `LATEX` prevents subsequent loading of the `keyval` package. `xkeyval` aims to make these changes backward-compatible; however, under certain circumstances some macros may behave differently. The latest version of `xkeyval` fixes a number of differences in behaviour between `keyval` and `xkeyval`.

The following short `LATEX` document can be used as a test to show the differences in behaviour between older versions of `xkeyval` and the `keyval` package. With `keyval` or the latest version of `xkeyval` this document compiles correctly. However, older versions of `xkeyval` give errors.

```
\documentclass{article}
\usepackage{keyval}
%\usepackage{xkeyval}
\makeatletter
```

```
\define@key{w}{cmd}
  {\def\test##1{#1}}
\makeatother
\setkeys{w}{cmd={--#1--}}
\begin{document}
[\test{ee}]
\end{document}
```

It is therefore strongly recommended that any package using key–value should be tested with `xkeyval` loaded, even if it is not being used. In this way, if other packages load `xkeyval` problems should be avoided.

## 6.4 Using key–value with plain `TeX`

All of the key–value packages are compatible to some extent with plain `TeX`. Both `kvoptions` and `kvsetkeys` are designed to auto-detect whether `TeX` or `LATEX` is in use. A minimal set of `LATEX` macros are defined only if they are not otherwise available. Thus both can be used directly in plain `TeX`.

```
\input kvoptions.sty
\input kvsetkeys.sty
```

The `xkeyval` bundle is designed in a modular fashion. The file `xkeyval.sty` contains the `LATEX` code (including processing code for package options), whereas the code for defining and setting keys is contained in `xkeyval.tex`. As plain `TeX` users need only the latter, using `xkeyval` is simply:

```
\input xkeyval
```

The `keyval` package itself is not designed for use with plain `TeX`. It therefore requires a small but non-zero number of `LATEX` macros. These are conveniently provided by `miniltx`.

```
\input miniltx
\input keyval.sty
```

The file `keyval.sty` is also loaded by `kvoptions`, which ensures that the necessary macros are defined.

## 7 Putting it all together: a short example

The various methods outlined above will be sufficient for many people implementing a key–value interface. However, putting everything together can still be challenging. A short, and not entirely trivial, example will illustrate the steps needed.

Consider the following situation. You have been asked by an inexperienced `LATEX` user to produce a small package providing one user macro, `\xmph`, which will act as an enhanced version of `\emph`. As well as italic, it should be able to make its argument bold, coloured or a combination of all of these. This should be controllable on loading the package, or during the document. Finally, a de-activation setting is requested, so that `\xmph` acts exactly like

`\emph`. This latter setting should be available only in the preamble, so that it will apply to the entire document body.

Looking at the problem, you first decide to call the package `xmph`, and to use the `xmph@` prefix for internal macros. The settings requested all look relatively easy to handle using the `kvoptions` package, so you choose that for key–value support. You decide on the following options/settings:

- `inactive`, a key with no value, which can be given only in the preamble;
- `useitalic`, a Boolean option for making the text italic;
- `usebold` and `usecolour`, two more Boolean options with obvious meanings
- `colour`, a string option to set the colour to use when the `usecolour` option is true.

You also anticipate that US users would prefer the option names `usecolor` and `color`, and so you decide to implement them as well.

As well as the `\xmph` macro, you decide to create a document body setup macro `\xmphsetup`. Both `\xmph` and `\xmphsetup` will take a single, mandatory argument. This keeps everything easy to explain, and means there is not too much work to do with arguments and so on.

With the design decisions made, you can write the package. The options and so on come first. Most of the keys are defined using high-level `kvoptions` macros, although two low-level methods are used. Initial settings for the package are set up by a `\setkeys` instruction *before* processing any package options.

```
\NeedsTeXFormat{LaTeX2e}
\ProvidesPackage{xmph}
  [2008/03/17 v1.0 Extended emph]
\RequirePackage{color,kvoptions}
\SetupKeyvalOptions{
  family=xmph,
  prefix=xmph@}
\DeclareBoolOption{useitalic}
\DeclareBoolOption{usebold}
\DeclareBoolOption{usecolour}
\DeclareBoolOption{usecolor}
\let\KV@xmph@usecolor
  \KV@xmph@usecolour
\DeclareStringOption{colour}
\define@key{xmph}{color}{
  {\setkeys{xmph}{colour=#1}}}
\DeclareVoidOption{inactive}{%
  \PackageInfo{xmph}
    {Package inactive}%
\AtEndOfPackage{\let\xmph\emph}%
```

```
}
\setkeys{xmph}{useitalic,colour=red}
\ProcessKeyvalOptions{xmph}
\define@key{xmph}{inactive}{
  \PackageInfo{xmph}
    {Package inactive}
\let\xmph\emph
}
\AtBeginDocument{
  \DisableKeyvalOption[
    action=warning,
    package=xmph]
    {xmph}{inactive}
}
\newcommand*{\xmphsetup}{
  {\setkeys{xmph}%
}
```

The user macros are then defined; by keeping the two parts separate, it will be easier to alter the method for managing the keys, if needed. Later, we will see how this enables switching from `keyval`-based keys to `pgfkeys` without altering the core of the package at all.

```
\newcommand*{\xmph}[1]{%
  \xmph@emph{\xmph@bold{%
    {\xmph@colourtext{#1}}}}%
}
\newcommand*{\xmph@emph}{%
  \ifxmph@useitalic \expandafter\emph
  \else \expandafter\@firstofone
  \fi}
\newcommand*{\xmph@bold}{%
  \ifxmph@usebold \expandafter\textbf
  \else \expandafter\@firstofone
  \fi}
\newcommand*{\xmph@colourtext}{%
  \ifxmph@usecolour \expandafter\textcolor
  \else \expandafter\@secondoftwo
  \fi
  {\xmph@colour}}
```

The actions of the new package are shown by the following short example  $\LaTeX$  file. The use of the disabled key `inactive` will result in a warning entry in the log.

```
\documentclass{article}
\usepackage[
  usecolour,
  usebold]{xmph}
\begin{document}
  Some text \xmph{text}
  \xmphsetup{
    usecolor=false,
    usebold=false,
```

```

    useitalic=false}%
  \xmph{more text}
  \xmphsetup{inactive}
\end{document}

```

## 8 A different approach: pgfkeys

All of the packages discussed so far are built on the `keyval` approach. Keys are part of families, and further subdivision (at least beyond altering the key prefix) is not readily achieved. An alternative approach is taken by the `pgfkeys` package (Tantau, 2008). This package uses the  $\langle key \rangle = \langle value \rangle$  input format, but the underlying implementation is not derived from `keyval`; the `pgfkeys` package therefore uses a unique key management model. Thus, while for the user `pgfkeys` and `keyval` are very similar, for the developer they require different approaches. However, many of the ideas of keys with differing behaviours carry through from the earlier discussion.

### 8.1 How key–value works with pgfkeys

In principle, `pgfkeys` works in the same ways as described in Section 2: there are two parts of the key–value system, defining keys and assigning values to keys. However, `pgfkeys` requires just one command for both parts: the `\pgfkeys` macro.

The definition requires the use of special suffixes, the so-called key handlers. Here, the term *handler* is used slightly differently than in the other packages. For example, the statement

```
\pgfkeys{/path/key/.code=#1}
```

defines a key named `/path/key`. The `.code` statement defines a macro which expands to the `TEX` code in the arguments (in our case, the `TEX` code is simply the argument itself, “`#1`”). Hence, using the key will just print its value:

```
\pgfkeys{/path/key=value}
```

yields “`value`”. The `/path` plays a similar role to  $\langle prefix \rangle$  and  $\langle family \rangle$  for `keyval` and friends: it associates `key` with a sub-tree.

As with the key–value syntax in Section 2, spaces in key and path names are allowed, and spaces between keys and their values and different keys are ignored. Also, literal “`,`” and “`=`” characters need to be protected by braces:

```

\pgfkeys{
  /path/key three={value1,value2},
  /path/keyfour={some=stuff}
}

```

In contrast to `keyval` and friends, `pgfkeys` uses a different concept to manage key prefixes and key suffixes: the key *tree*.

## 8.2 The key tree

In the `pgfkeys` model, keys are organised hierarchically, similar to the Unix file system; subdivisions are generated using slashes. For example, `/path/sub/key` is a key named `key`, which belongs to the subtree `/path/sub` which is in turn located inside `/path`. The slash “`/`” defines the tree’s root. A statement like

```

\pgfkeys{
  /path/sub/key = value,
  /path/key two = value2
}

```

sets both of these keys, showing that keys belonging to different subtrees can be set in one statement.

It is not necessary to fully qualify keys: a default path is considered for every key without a full path. For example,

```

\pgfkeys{
  key = value of key,
  key two = value of key two,
  sub/key three = value3
}

```

will search for `key`, `key two` and `sub/key three` in the current default path. Default paths can be set using a *change directory* command, using the `.cd` handler which will be discussed below. The initial setting is “`/`”, which means any unqualified key name like `key` will be changed to `/key` implicitly.

### 8.3 Using pgfkeys

In contrast to the `keyval` approach, `pgfkeys` uses a single macro to define and set keys, namely `\pgfkeys`. At its heart, `pgfkeys` works with three different types of keys: keys which store their values directly, command keys and keys which are handled. Key definitions, assignments and other key types are composed of these three building blocks.

#### Key type 1: direct keys

*Direct* keys simply store their values as character sequences. A `pgfkeys` direct key is thus similar to a `xkeyval` command key (one defined using `\define@cmdkey`). For example,

```
\pgfkeys{/path/key/.initial = value}
```

defines the key `/path/key` and assigns `value`. After this, the value can be changed with assignments:

```
\pgfkeys{/path/key = new value}
```

Direct keys are stored in a way which is not directly accessible to end users. Instead, the command `\pgfkeysgetvalue` is used to get a direct key’s current value into a (temporary) macro. For example, the statement

```
\pgfkeysgetvalue{/path/key}{\macro}
```

will get the current value of `/path/key` and copy it into `\macro`. The macro will be (re-)defined if necessary without affecting the stored key’s value.

Putting these things together, direct keys can be used as in the following example. The code

```
\pgfkeys{/path/key/.initial = value}
\pgfkeysgetvalue{/path/key}{\macro}
After definition: ‘‘\macro’’.
```

```
\pgfkeys{/path/key = new value}
\pgfkeysgetvalue{/path/key}{\macro}
After setting: ‘‘\macro’’
```

will define `/path/key` with an initial value, copy the value to `\macro` and typeset the result. Afterwards, it changes the current value, copies the new value to `\macro` and typesets it again. Here’s the output:

```
After definition: ‘‘value’’.
After setting: ‘‘new value’’.
```

## Key type 2: command keys

The second type of `pgfkeys`-keys are command keys. Here, `pgfkeys` uses a slightly different terminology than `keyval`. Command keys with `pgfkeys` are very similar to the keys defined by `\define@key`: they are `TEX` commands with (usually) one argument replacing “#1” with the assigned value. So, what `pgfkeys` calls a “command key” is a “key handler” in the terminology of `keyval` and friends.

The usual way to define command keys is to append `/.code={\TeX code}` to the key’s name. Thus,

```
\pgfkeys{/path/cmd key/.code = {(value=#1)}}
defines a command key /path/cmd key which typesets “(value={its value})” whenever it is assigned. For example, the listing
\pgfkeys{/path/cmd key/.code = {(value=#1)}}
\pgfkeys{/path/cmd key=cmd value}
yields “(value=cmd value)”.
```

As with direct keys, command keys are stored in a manner which is not directly accessible by end users. In fact, `pgfkeys` creates a temporary macro with `\def` and stores this macro into a direct key `/path/cmd key/.@cmd` whenever it creates a new command key.

So, command keys are `TEX` macros which operate on some input argument (the value) using “#1”. Useful examples of command keys are

```
\pgfkeys{/path/store key/.code =
  {\def\myPkgOption{#1}}
}
```

to store the input into a macro `\myPkgOption` or

```
\pgfkeys{/path/call key/.code = {\call{#1}}}
```

to invoke another macro `\call{#1}` with the value. These keys can be used with

```
\pgfkeys{
  /path/store key = value,
  /path/call key = value2
}
```

Since some processing methods are generally useful, `pgfkeys` provides easier ways to assign them. For example, our example of a command key which simply stores its value into a macro can equivalently be defined using

```
\pgfkeys{
  /path/store key/.store in=
  \myPkgOption
}
```

The suffix `.store in`, and also the suffix `.code`, are *key handlers*, the third type of `pgfkeys` options.

## Key type 3: handled keys

The third type of `pgfkeys`-keys are handled keys.<sup>1</sup> If `\pgfkeys` encounters a key which is neither a direct option nor a command key, it splits the key into key path (everything up to the last “/”) and key name (everything after the last “/”). Then, `pgfkeys` looks in the special `/handlers/` subtree for a key called **key name**. This is then passed both the current path and the value given. For example,

```
\pgfkeys{/path/cmd key/.code = {(value=#1)}}
is a handled key with key name .code and key path /path/cmd key because
```

1. there is no direct key `/path/cmd key/.code`;
2. there is no command option by this name;
3. there *is* a command key `/handlers/.code`.

The predefined handler `.code` creates a new command key named according to the current key’s path (in our case, `/path/cmd key`).

So, key handlers take a key path and a value as input and perform some kind of action with it. They can define new key types (for example storage keys, Boolean keys or choice keys as we will see in the next section), they can check whether a key is defined, they can change default paths and more. Much of the strength of the `pgfkeys` package comes from its key handlers.

## 8.4 Predefined key handlers

`pgfkeys` provides many predefined key handlers, most of which are used to define more or less special command keys. Here are some common key handlers:

<sup>1</sup> Again, `pgfkeys` uses a slightly different terminology. Its handled keys are not to be mistaken with the “handlers” defined by `\define@key`; those are called “command keys” in `pgfkeys`.

`.cd` A “change directory” command:

```
\pgfkeys{/path/.cd,A=a,B=b}
```

sets the default path to `/path` and will thus set `/path/A=a` and `/path/B=b`. We will later see that the command `\pgfqkeys` also changes the default path, thus

```
\pgfqkeys{/path}{A=a,B=b}
```

will also set `/path/A=a` and `/path/B=b`.

`.default={⟨value⟩}` Determines a value to be used if no “=” sign is given:

```
\pgfkeys{/path/A/.default=true}
```

```
\pgfkeys{/path/A}
```

is the same as if we had written

```
\pgfkeys{/path/A=true}
```

`.code={⟨code⟩}` Defines a new command key which expands to the value of `.code`. The resulting command key takes one argument.

`.is if={⟨TeX-Boolean⟩}` Creates a new Boolean key which sets a TeX Boolean to either true or false:

```
\newif\ifcoloured
\pgfkeys{
  /path/coloured/.is if = coloured
}
```

```
% set \colouredtrue:
```

```
\pgfkeys{/path/coloured=true}
```

```
% set \colouredfalse:
```

```
\pgfkeys{/path/coloured=false}
```

An error message is raised if the supplied value is neither `true` nor `false`. `pgfkeys` does not call `\newif` automatically, and the leading “if” must not be included in the argument of `.is if`, *i.e.* `coloured/.is if=ifcoloured` would be wrong.

`.is choice` Creates a new choice key, with the available choices given as subkeys of the current one:

```
\pgfkeys{
  /path/op/.is choice,
  /path/op/plus/.code={+},
  /path/op/minus/.code={-},
  /path/op/nop/.code={nothing}
}
```

```
% invokes /path/op/plus
```

```
\pgfkeys{/path/op=plus}
```

An error results if the user gives an unknown choice.

`.store in={⟨macro⟩}` Defines a command key that simply stores its value into a macro:

```
\pgfkeys{/path/key/.store in=
  \keyvalue}
```

```
\pgfkeys{/path/key=my value}
```

```
Result is ‘\keyvalue’
```

Expands to “Result is ‘my value’”. Such a key is very similar to a *direct key*, see above.

`.style` Creates a new *style* key, which contains a list of other options. Whenever a style key is set, it sets all of its options:

```
\pgfkeys{
  /text/readable/.style=
    {font=large,color=pink},
  /text/unreadable/.style=
    {font=small,color=black}
}
```

```
\pgfkeys{/text/readable}
```

will set the additional options `/text/font=large` and `/text/color=pink` (using the default path since they have no full path).

`.append style` Appends more options to an already existing style key. Given the example above,

```
\pgfkeys{
  /text/readable/.append style=
    {underlined=true}}
```

has the same effect as writing

```
\pgfkeys{/text/readable/.style=
  {font=large,color=pink,
  underlined=true}}
```

Since style keys can be defined and changed easily, they provide much flexibility for package users.

## 8.5 pgfkeys in action — an example

We will now realise our example L<sup>A</sup>T<sub>E</sub>X package of Section 7 with `pgfkeys`. We use the same option names and the same user interface, with one exception: `pgfkeys` does not support L<sup>A</sup>T<sub>E</sub>X package options (although see Section 8.6). Any configuration has to be done with `\xmphsetup`.

We do not need to change our implementation for `\xmph` and we can keep its helper macros `\xmph@bold`, `\xmph@emph` and `\xmph@colourtext` as well. We only need to change the option declaration, which is shown in the following listing.

```
\NeedsTeXFormat{LaTeX2e}
\ProvidesPackage{xmph}
  [2009/03/17 v1.0 Extended emph]
\RequirePackage{color,pgfkeys}
\newif\ifxmph@useitalic
\newif\ifxmph@usebold
\newif\ifxmph@usecolour
\pgfkeys{
  /xmph/.cd,
  useitalic/.is if = xmph@useitalic,
  usebold/.is if = xmph@usebold,
  usecolour/.is if = xmph@usecolour,
  usecolor/.is if = xmph@usecolour,
  useitalic/.default = true,
```

```

usebold/.default = true,
usecolour/.default = true,
usecolor/.style = {usecolour=#1},
colour/.store in = \xmph@colour,
color/.style = {colour=#1},
inactive/.code = {%
  \let\xmph\emph
  \PackageInfo{xmph}
  {Package inactive}%
}
}
\pgfkeys{
  /xmph/.cd,
  useitalic,
  colour = red
}
\newcommand*\xmphsetup{%
  \pgfqkeys{/xmph}%
}
\AtBeginDocument{
  \pgfkeys{
    /xmph/inactive/.code = {%
      \PackageInfo{xmph}{%
        Option ‘inactive’ only
        available in preamble
      }%
    }
  }
}

```

The command `\pgfqkeys` occurring in the last listing is a variant of `\pgfkeys` which sets the default path directly, without a `.cd` statement. The command

```

\pgfqkeys{/xmph}{
  colored = false,
  bold    = true
}

```

thus uses `/xmph` as its default path.

## 8.6 pgfkeys for L<sup>A</sup>T<sub>E</sub>X package options

The `pgfkeys` package does not include any native functionality for processing L<sup>A</sup>T<sub>E</sub>X package and class options. However, the `pgfopts` package (Wright, 2008) adds this ability, using a modified copy of the functionality in `kvoptions`.

The `pgfopts` package provides only a single user macro, `\ProcessPgfOptions`. Keys are created using the `pgfkeys` interface discussed above, and can then be used as package (or class) options using the `\ProcessPgfOptions` macro. The requirement to have *no* spaces in the key names for this to work remains exactly the same as for `xkeyval` or `kvoptions` processing of options.

## 9 Conclusions

There are a number of methods for the author wanting to make a start using key–value input. The `pgfkeys` package has much to recommend it. The interface has been well designed, and it is very strong in handling a wide range of situations (well illustrated in the user documentation). For large-scale projects in particular, the tree concept makes option management much easier. By loading `pgfopts`, L<sup>A</sup>T<sub>E</sub>X option processing is also possible with `pgfkeys`.

For users who wish to handle L<sup>A</sup>T<sub>E</sub>X package options using key–value input, most authors will want to load either `kvoptions` or `xkeyval`, rather than coding the option handler directly. Both handle the core issue of providing key–value package options well. Each packages has some advantages, depending on the job at hand.

`xkeyval` provides a rich set of macros for defining almost every possible type of key. The additional graduation of keys made available by the variable prefix is welcome. The package has a very large number of features which have not been discussed here. However, the package has been criticised for modifying `keyval` internals. More importantly for many, it suffers from the very problem of complex optional arguments that the key–value method is supposed to avoid.

On the other hand, `kvoptions` provides a smaller, but more focussed, set of additional key types. The input syntax is much less complex than that of `xkeyval`, and the provision of `\SetupKeyvalOptions` is particularly welcome. Using the `kvoptions` method does make it more likely that ambitious package authors will have to become familiar creating customised functions with `\define@key`. However, the clearer syntax make `kvoptions` a better choice for rapidly making progress with using key–value input.

## 10 Acknowledgments

Thanks to Didier Verna and Morten Høgholm for helpful suggestions when drafting this manuscript, and Will Robertson for the example of the *keyval* *versus* *xkeyval* problem.

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