Datei Grotesk

Designer Sibylle Hagmann

Styles and Weights 16

Format Cross Platform OpenType/Web/App/Variable

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About Datei Grotesk emerged from an extensive exploration of sans serif typefaces that trace their origins back to the categorization of grotesques and neo-grotesques. The design process started in 2017, with the gradual development of the family contextualizing defining design features of legacy grotesque typefaces like Akzidenz, DIN 1451, Breite, Folio, Gerstner Programm, Haas Unica, Record Gothic, and Recta, among others. The design aims for a balanced approach to uniformity, featuring clear shapes, effortless readability, and a progressive system for both roman and italic styles. The final design strikes a balance between restraint with form qualities aiming to blend rationality with friendliness. The slight straight-sided letter forms give the type a subtle industrial flair, creating robust textures without appearing too rigid. Datei Grotesk's uniform, no-nonsense features foster visual impact while maintaining flexibility and coherence in form. The family is offered in variable gamuts for roman and italic and a static font style-range that recalls legacy grotesque family structures. Open Type feature sets include support for alternate character options, figures for text and tables, dynamic fractions, case sensitive forms, and expanded language capabilities, among more, making the type family suitable for contemporary and versatile design applications.

Datei [da'tai] in German translates to File in English

COLLECTION

Datei Grotesk Thin
Datei Grotesk Thin Italic
Datei Grotesk Extralight
Datei Grotesk Extralight Italic
Datei Grotesk Light
Datei Grotesk Light Italic
Datei Grotesk Regular
Datei Grotesk Italic
Datei Grotesk Medium
Datei Grotesk Medium Italic
Datei Grotesk Semibold
Datei Grotesk Semibold Italic
Datei Grotesk Bold
Datei Grotesk Bold Italic
Datei Grotesk Extrabold
Datei Grotesk Extrabold Italic

THIN

Reconfiguration

EXTRALIGHT

Electroreceptor

LIGHT

Supersensitivity

REGULAR

Microcomputer

MEDIUM

Audiometrician

SEMIBOLD

Cinematograph

BOLD

Naturalizations

EXTRABOLD

Perfectionistic

THIN ITALIC

Alphanumerical

EXTRALIGHT ITALIC

Dactylographer

LIGHT ITALIC

Geometrization

ITALIC

Recompilations

MEDIUM ITALIC

Stereoscopical

SEMIBOLD ITALIC

Bioclimatology

BOLD ITALIC

Forethoughtful

EXTRABOLD ITALIC

Harmonization

THIN

A microcomputer is a small, inexpensive computer that has a central processing unit (CPU) made out of a micro-

EXTRALIGHT

The computer also includes memory and input/output (I/O) circuitry together mounted on a printed circuit board

LIGHT

Microcomputers became popular in the 1970s and with the advent of increasingly powerful microprocessors.

DATEI GROTESK 36pt -15 track

REGULAR

The predecessors to these computers, mainframes and minicomputers, were much larger and more expensive.

MEDIUM

Many microcomputers when equipped with a mouse and screen for input and output, are also personal computers.

SEMIBOLD

A “microcomputer” used as an embedded control system may have human-readable input and output devices.

BOLD

The term microcomputer came into popular use after the introduction of the minicomputer, although

EXTRABOLD

The development of the microprocessor and solid-state memory made home computing affordable.

THIN

In 1973, the French Institut National de la Recherche Agronomique (INRA) was looking for a computer able to measure agricultural hygrometry. To answer this request, a team of French engineers of the computer technology company R2E, led by its Head of Development, François Gernelle, created the first available microprocessor-based microcomputer, the Micral N. The same year the company filed their patents with the term “Micro-ordinateur,” a

EXTRALIGHT

In the US the earliest models such as the Altair 8800 were often sold as kits to be assembled by the user, and came with as little as 256 bytes of RAM, and no input/output devices other than indicator lights and switches, useful as a proof of concept to demonstrate what such a simple device could do. As microprocessors and semiconductor memory became less expensive, microcomputers grew cheaper and easier to use. Increasingly inexpensive logic

LIGHT

Use of audio cassettes for inexpensive data storage replaced manual re-entry of a program every time the device was powered on. Large cheap arrays of silicon logic gates in the form of read-only memory and EPROMs allowed utility programs and self-booting kernels to be stored within microcomputers. These stored programs could automatically load further more complex software from external storage devices without user intervention,

DATEI GROTESK 18 pt -5 track

REGULAR

Random-access memory became cheap enough to afford dedicating approximately 1–2 kilobytes of memory to a video display controller frame buffer, for a 40 × 25 or 80 × 25 text display or blocky color graphics on a common household television. This replaced the slow, complex, and expensive teletypewriter that was previously common as an interface to minicomputers and main-frames. All these improvements in cost and usability

MEDIUM

By 1979, many companies such as Cromemco, Processor Technology, Southwest Technical Products Corporation, Altos Computer Systems, Morrow Designs and others produced systems designed for resourceful end users or consulting firms to deliver business systems such as accounting, database management and word processing to small businesses. This allowed businesses unable to afford leasing of a minicomputer or time-

SEMIBOLD

Modern desktop computers, video game consoles, laptops, tablet PCs, and many types of handheld devices, including mobile phones, pocket calculators, and industrial embedded systems, may all be considered examples of microcomputers according to the definition given above. By the early 2000s, everyday use of the expression “microcomputer,” and in particular “micro” declined significantly from its peak in the mid-1980s.

BOLD

Monitors, keyboards and other devices for input and output may be integrated or separate. Computer memory in the form of RAM, and at least one other less volatile, memory storage device are usually combined with the CPU on a system bus in one unit. Other devices that make up a complete microcomputer system include batteries, a power supply unit, a keyboard and various input/output devices used to convey

EXTRABOLD

Others produced systems designed for resourceful end users or consulting firms to deliver business systems such as accounting, database management and word processing to small businesses. This allowed businesses unable to afford leasing of a minicomputer or time-sharing service the opportunity to automate business functions, without (usually) hiring a full-time staff to operate the computers.

DATEI GROTESK 9pt

EXTRALIGHT

Microcomputers fit well on or under desks or tables, so that they are within easy access of users. Bigger computers like minicomputers, mainframes, and supercomputers take up large cabinets or even dedicated rooms. A microcomputer comes equipped with at least one type of data storage, usually RAM. Although some microcomputers (particularly early 8-bit home micros) perform tasks using RAM alone, some form of secondary storage is normally desirable. In the early days of home micros, this was often a data cassette deck in many cases as an external unit. Later, secondary storage particularly in the form of floppy disk and hard disk drives were built into the microcomputer case. Although they did not contain any microprocessors, but were built around transistor-transistor logic (TTL), Hewlett-Packard calculators as far back as 1968 had various levels of programmability comparable to microcomputers. The HP 9100B (1968) had rudimentary conditional (if) statements, statement line numbers, jump statements (go to), registers that could be used as variables, and primitive subroutines. The programming language resembled assembly language in many ways. Later models incrementally added more features, including the BASIC programming language (HP 9830A in 1971). Some models had tape storage and small printers. However, displays were limited to one line at a time. The HP 9100A was

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HP was reluctant to sell them as “computers” because the perception at that time was that a computer had to be big in size to be powerful, and thus decided to market them as calculators. Additionally, at that time, people were more likely to buy calculators than computers, and, purchasing agents also preferred the term “calculator” because purchasing a “computer” required additional layers of purchasing authority approvals. The Datapoint 2200, made by CTC in 1970, was also comparable to microcomputers. While it contains no microprocessor, the instruction set of its custom TTL processor was the basis of the instruction set for the Intel 8008, and for practical purposes the system behaves approximately as if it contains an 8008. This is because Intel was the contractor in charge of developing the Datapoint’s CPU, but ultimately CTC rejected the 8008 design because it needed 20 support chips. Another early system, the Kenbak-1, was released in 1971. Like the Datapoint 2200, it used small-scale integrated transistor–transistor logic instead of a microprocessor. It was marketed as an educational and hobbyist tool, but it was not a commercial success; production ceased shortly after introduction. In late 1972, a French team headed by François Gernelle within a small company, Réalisations & Etudes Electroniques (R2E), developed and patented a computer based

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About a hundred Micral-N were installed in the next two years, followed by a new version based on the Intel 8080. Meanwhile, another French team developed the Alvan, a small computer for office automation which found clients in banks and other sectors. The first version was based on LSI chips with an Intel 8008 as peripheral controller (keyboard, monitor and printer), before adopting the Zilog Z80 as main processor. In late 1972, a Sacramento State University team led by Bill Pentz built the Sac State 8008 computer, able to handle thousands of patients’ medical records. The Sac State 8008 was designed with the Intel 8008. It had a full set of hardware and software components: a disk operating system included in a series of programmable read-only memory chips (PROMs); 8 Kilobytes of RAM; IBM’s Basic Assembly Language or BAL; a hard drive; a color display; a printer output; a 150 bit/s serial interface for connecting to a mainframe; and even the world’s first microcomputer front panel. In early 1973, Sord Computer Corporation completed the SMP80/08, which used the Intel 8008 microprocessor. The SMP80/08, however, did not have a commercial release. After the first general-purpose microprocessor, the Intel 8080, was announced in April 1974, Sord announced the SMP80/x, the first microcomputer to use the 8080, in May 1974. Virtually all early microcomputers

DATEI GROTESK 9pt

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Of the early "box of switches"-type microcomputers, the MITS Altair 8800 (1975) was arguably the most famous. Most of these simple, early microcomputers were sold as electronic kits—bags full of loose components which the buyer had to solder together before the system could be used. Microcomputer module LSI-11/2. The period from about 1972 to 1976 is sometimes called the first generation of microcomputers. Many companies such as DEC, National Semiconductor, Texas Instruments offered their microcomputers for use in terminal control, peripheral device interface control and industrial machine control. There were also machines for engineering development and hobbyist personal use. In 1975, the Processor Technology SOL-20 was designed, which consisted of one board which included all the parts of the computer system. The SOL-20 had built-in EPROM software which eliminated the need for rows of switches and lights. The MITS Altair just mentioned played an instrumental role in sparking significant hobbyist interest, which itself eventually led to the founding and success of many well-known personal computer hardware and software companies, such as Microsoft and Apple Computer. Although the Altair itself was only a mild commercial success, it helped spark a huge industry. By 1977, the introduction of the second microcomputer generation as

BOLD

The ability to connect to a monitor (screen) or TV set allowed visual manipulation of text and numbers. The BASIC language, which was easier to learn and use than raw machine language, became a standard feature. These features were already common in minicomputers, with which many hobbyists and early produces were familiar. In 1979, the launch of the VisiCalc spreadsheet, initially for the Apple II, first turned the micro-computer from a hobby for computer enthusiasts into a business tool. After the 1981 release by IBM of its IBM PC, the term personal computer became generally used for micro-computers compatible with the IBM PC architecture and PC compatible. A personal computer (PC) is a multi-purpose microcomputer whose size, capabilities, and price make it feasible for individual use. Personal computers are intended to be operated directly by an end user, rather than by a computer expert or technician. Unlike large, costly minicomputers and mainframes, time-sharing by many people at the same time is not used with personal computers. Primarily in the late 1970s and 1980s, the term home computer was also used. The advent of personal computers and the concurrent Digital Revolution have significantly affected the lives of people in all countries. Institutional or corporate computer owners in the 1960s had

EXTRABOLD

Software for personal computers is typically developed and distributed independently from the hardware or operating system manufacturers. Many personal computer users no longer need to write their programs to make any use of a personal computer, although end-user programming is still feasible. This contrasts with mobile systems, where software is often available only through a manufacturer-supported channel, and end-user program development may be discour-aged by lack of support by the manufacturer. Since the early 1990s, Microsoft operating systems, first with MS-DOS and then with Windows, and Intel hardware — collectively called 'Wintel' — have dominated the personal computer market, and today the term "PC" normally refers to the ubiquitous Wintel platform. Alternatives to Windows occupy a minority share of the market; these include the Mac platform from Apple running the macOS operating system, and free and open-source, Unix-like operating systems, such as Linux. Other notable platforms until the 1990s were the Amiga from Commodore, and the PC-98 from NEC. The term "PC" is an initialism for "personal computer." While the IBM Personal Computer incorporated the designation into its model name, the term originally described personal computers of any brand. In some contexts, "PC" is

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The history of the personal computer as a mass-market consumer electronic device began with the microcomputer revolution of the 1970s. A personal computer is one intended for interactive individual use, as opposed to a mainframe computer where the end user's requests are filtered through operating staff, or a time-sharing system in which one large processor is shared by many individuals. After the development of the microprocessor, individual personal computers were low enough in cost that they eventually became affordable consumer goods. Early personal computers, generally called microcomputers, were sold often in electronic kit form and in limited numbers, and were of interest mostly to hobbyists and technicians. There are several competing claims as to the origins of the term "personal computer." Yale Law School librarian Fred Shapiro notes an early published use of the phrase in a 1968 Hewlett-Packard advertisement for a programmable calculator, which they called "The new Hewlett-Packard 9100A personal computer." Other claims include computer pioneer Alan Kay's purported use of the term in a 1972 paper, Whole Earth Catalog publisher Stewart Brand's usage

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REGULAR alt a, alt l

A number of assignments for the computer would be gathered up and processed in batch mode. After the job had completed, users could collect the results. In some cases, it could take hours or days between submitting a job to the computing center and receiving the output. A more interactive form of computer use developed commercially by the middle 1960s. In a time-sharing system, multiple computer terminals let many people share the use of one mainframe computer processor. This was common in business applications and in science and engineering. A different model of computer use was foreshadowed by the way in which early, pre-commercial, experimental computers were used, where one user had exclusive use of a processor. In places such as Carnegie Mellon University and MIT, students with access to some of the first computers experimented with applications that would today be typical of a personal computer; for example, computer aided drafting was foreshadowed by T-square, a program written in 1961, and an ancestor of today's computer games was found in Spacewar! in 1962. Some of the first computers that might be

MEDIUM

By today's standards, they were very large about the size of a refrigerator and cost prohibitive, typically tens of thousands of US dollars. However, they were much smaller, less expensive, and generally simpler to operate than many of the mainframe computers of the time. Therefore, they were accessible for individual laboratories and research projects. Minicomputers largely freed these organizations from the batch processing and bureaucracy of a commercial or university computing center. In addition, minicomputers were relatively interactive and soon had their own operating systems. The minicomputer Xerox Alto (1973) was a landmark step in the development of personal computers because of its graphical user interface, bit-mapped high resolution screen, large internal and external memory storage, mouse, and special software. In 1945, Vannevar Bush published an essay called "As We May Think" in which he outlined a possible solution to the growing problem of information storage and retrieval. In 1968, SRI researcher Douglas Engelbart gave what was later called "The Mother of All Demos," in which he offered a preview of things that have become the staples of daily working

SEMIBOLD

This meant that they were still large and difficult to manufacture just like their mainframe predecessors. After the "computer-on-a-chip" was commercialized, the cost to manufacture a computer system dropped dramatically. The arithmetic, logic, and control functions that previously occupied several costly circuit boards were now available in one integrated circuit, making it possible to produce them in high volume. Concurrently, advances in the development of solid state memory eliminated the bulky, costly, and power-hungry magnetic core memory used in prior generations of computers. The single-chip microprocessor was made possible by an improvement in MOS technology, the silicon-gate MOS chip, developed in 1968 by Federico Faggin, who later used silicon-gate MOS technology to develop the first single-chip microprocessor, the Intel 4004, in 1971. A few researchers at places such as SRI and Xerox PARC were working on computers that a single person could use and that could be connected by fast, versatile networks: not home computers, but personal ones. The minicomputer ancestors of the modern personal computer used early integrated

BOLD

Somewhat larger and more expensive systems were aimed at office and small business use. These often featured 80-column text displays but might not have had graphics or sound capabilities. These microprocessor-based systems were still less costly than time-shared mainframes or minicomputers. Workstations were characterized by high-performance processors and graphics displays, with large-capacity local disk storage, networking capability, and running under a multitasking operating system. Eventually, due to the influence of the IBM PC on the personal computer market, personal computers and home computers lost any technical distinction. Business computers acquired color graphics capability and sound, and home computers and game systems users used the same processors and operating systems as office workers. Mass-market computers had graphics capabilities and memory comparable to dedicated workstations of a few years before. Even local area networking, originally a way to allow business computers to share expensive mass storage and peripherals, became a standard feature of personal computers used at home. An increasingly important

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GERMAN

Ein Personal Computer ist ein Mehrzweckcomputer, dessen Größe und Fähigkeiten ihn für den individuellen persönlichen Gebrauch im Alltag nutzbar machen; im Unterschied zu vorherigen Computermodellen beschränkt sich die Nutzung nicht mehr auf Computerexperten, Techniker oder Wissenschaftler. Das Konzept geht zurück auf eine Idee aus den 1970er-Jahren, begründet von Hackern. Die leichte Bedienbarkeit und ein für Privathaushalte erschwinglicher Preis waren wichtige

FRENCH

Un ordinateur personnel est destiné à un usage individuel, par opposition à un ordinateur central où les demandes de l'utilisateur final sont filtrées par le personnel d'exploitation, ou d'un système de partage de temps dans lequel un grand processeur est partagé par de nombreuses personnes. Après le développement du microprocesseur, des ordinateurs personnels individuels étaient assez peu coûteux qu'ils sont finalement devenus des biens de consommation abordables. Les premiers ordinateurs

SPANISH

Una computadora personal, computador personal u ordenador, conocida como PC (siglas en inglés de Personal Computer), es un tipo de microcomputadora diseñada en principio para ser utilizada por una sola persona. Habitualmente, la sigla PC se refiere a las computadoras IBM PC compatibles. Una computadora personal es generalmente de tamaño medio y es usada por un solo usuario, aunque hay sistemas operativos que permiten varios usuarios simultáneamente, lo que es

POLISH

W styczniu 1975 roku w amerykańskim czasopiśmie dla elektroników Popular Electronics ukazał się opis systemu komputerowego Altair 8800, bazującego na procesorze Intel 8080. Była to konstrukcja przedsiębiorstwa MITS, które odpowiadało również za produkcję i dystrybucję. Drogą wysyłkową można było nabyć go jako zestaw do samodzielnego montażu lub złożony. W wersji podstawowej nie posiadał żadnej pamięci masowej, klawiatury ani monitora. Program wprowadzało

PORTUGESE

Até o final da década de 1970, reinavam absolutos os mainframes, computadores enormes, trancados em salas refrigeradas e operados apenas por poucos, que apenas grandes empresas e bancos podiam compra-los, investindo alguns milhões de dólares para tornar mais eficientes alguns processos internos e o fluxo de informações. A maioria dos escritórios funcionava mais ou menos da mesma maneira que no começo do século. Arquivos de metal, máquinas de escrever, papel carbono e memoran-

STYLES AND WEIGHTS

Thin	100	AaBbCcDdEeFfGgHhIiJjKkLlMmNnOoPpQqRrSsTtUuVvWwXxYy
Extralight	200	AaBbCcDdEeFfGgHhIiJjKkLlMmNnOoPpQqRrSsTtUuVvWwXxY
Light	300	AaBbCcDdEeFfGgHhIiJjKkLlMmNnOoPpQqRrSsTtUuVvWwXx
Regular	400	AaBbCcDdEeFfGgHhIiJjKkLlMmNnOoPpQqRrSsTtUuVvWwX
Medium	500	AaBbCcDdEeFfGgHhIiJjKkLlMmNnOoPpQqRrSsTtUuVvWw
Semibold	600	AaBbCcDdEeFfGgHhIiJjKkLlMmNnOoPpQqRrSsTtUuVvW
Bold	700	AaBbCcDdEeFfGgHhIiJjKkLlMmNnOoPpQqRrSsTtUuVvW
Extrabold	800	AaBbCcDdEeFfGgHhIiJjKkLlMmNnOoPpQqRrSsTtUuVvW

Thin Italic	100	*AaBbCcDdEeFfGgHhIiJjKkLlMmNnOoPpQqRrSsTtUuVvWwXxYy*
Extralight Italic	200	*AaBbCcDdEeFfGgHhIiJjKkLlMmNnOoPpQqRrSsTtUuVvWwXxY*
Light Italic	300	*AaBbCcDdEeFfGgHhIiJjKkLlMmNnOoPpQqRrSsTtUuVvWwXxY*
Regular Italic	400	*AaBbCcDdEeFfGgHhIiJjKkLlMmNnOoPpQqRrSsTtUuVvWwX*
Medium Italic	500	*AaBbCcDdEeFfGgHhIiJjKkLlMmNnOoPpQqRrSsTtUuVvWw*
Semibold Italic	600	*AaBbCcDdEeFfGgHhIiJjKkLlMmNnOoPpQqRrSsTtUuVv*
Bold Italic	700	*AaBbCcDdEeFfGgHhIiJjKkLlMmNnOoPpQqRrSsTtUuVv*
Extrabold Italic	800	*AaBbCcDdEeFfGgHhIiJjKkLlMmNnOoPpQqRrSsTtUuVvW*

OPEN TYPE FEATURES

	off		on
Case Sensitive Forms All Caps styling. Brackets, punctuation, dashes, and other marks are replaced with shifted forms	A(BC-)	→	A(BC-)
Standard Ligatures Combines multiple single glyphs to one character	fi fl ff	→	fi fl ff
Proportional Oldstyle Figures Replaces default lining figures with figures for use in continuous text	0123	→	0123
Tabular Lining Figures Replaces default figures with tabular lining figures	0123	→	|0|1|2|3|
Standard Fractions Replaces fraction sequences with standard fractions	1/4 1/2	→	¼ ½ ¾
Dynamic Fractions Replaces fraction sequences with properly sized numerators and denominators	4 3/16	→	4 3⁄16
Denominators Replaces figures with properly sized and positioned denominators	H123	→	H$_{123}$
Numerators Replaces figures with properly sized and positioned numerators	H123	→	H^{123}
SS01 alternate lower case a Replaces default a with a.alt version	arrive	→	arrive
SS05 alternate lower case a Replaces default a with one-storey a.alt version for Italic only	*arrive*	→	*arrive*
SS02 alternate lower case l Replaces default l with l.alt version	lovely	→	lovely
SS03 alternate upper case G Replaces default G with G.alt version	Grade	→	Grade
SS04 alternate upper case J Replaces default J with J.alt version	June	→	June
SS06 Circled Numbers Replaces default figures with circled numbers	123	→	①②③
Ordinals Complete lower case set Replaces lower cases with ordinal letters	2nd Mme	→	2nd M^{me}

CHARACTER SET ROMAN

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CHARACTER SET ITALIC

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LANGUAGE SUPPORT	Datei Grotesk has an Extended Latin character set and covers the following languages: Afrikaans • Albanian • Asu • Basque • Bemba • Bena • Bosnian • Catalan • Cebuano • Chiga • Colognian • Cornish • Corsican • Croatian • Czech • Danish • Dutch • Embu • Esperanto • Estonian • Faroese • Filipino • Finnish • French • Friulian • Galician • Ganda • German • Gusii • Hungarian • Icelandic • Ido • Inari Sami • Indonesian • Interlingua • Irish • Italian • Javanese • Jju • Jola-Fonyi • Kabuverdianu • Kalaallisut • Kalenjin • Kamba • Kikuyu • Kinyarwanda • Koyra Chiini • Koyraboro Senni • Kurdish • Latvian • Lithuanian • Lojban • Low German • Lower Sorbian • Luo • Luxembourgish • Luyia • Machame • Makhuwa-Meetto • Makonde • Malagasy • Malay • Maltese • Manx • Māori • Meru • Morisyen • Nigerian Pidgin • North Ndebele • Northern Sami • Northern Sotho • Norwegian Bokmål • Norwegian Nynorsk • Nyanja • Nyankole • Occitan • Oromo • Polish • Portuguese • Romanian • Romansh • Rombo • Rundi • Rwa • Samburu • Sango • Sangu • Sardinian • Scottish Gaelic • Sena • Shambala • Shona • Slovak • Slovenian • Soga • Somali • South Ndebele • Southern Sotho • Spanish • Sundanese • Swahili • Swati • Swedish • Swiss German • Taita • Taroko • Tasawaq • Teso • Tsonga • Tswana • Turkish • Turkmen • Upper Sorbian • Vunjo • Walloon • Walser • Welsh • Western Frisian • Wolof • Xhosa • Zarma • Zulu, and others
ENCODINGS	Unicode encoded, supports: Western European (Latin 1), Eastern European (Latin 2)
FONT FILES	Desktop (.otf), Web font files (.woff2), App (.ttf) Web fonts for self-hosting Variable Roman + Italic
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