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ROBERT TINNEY 79

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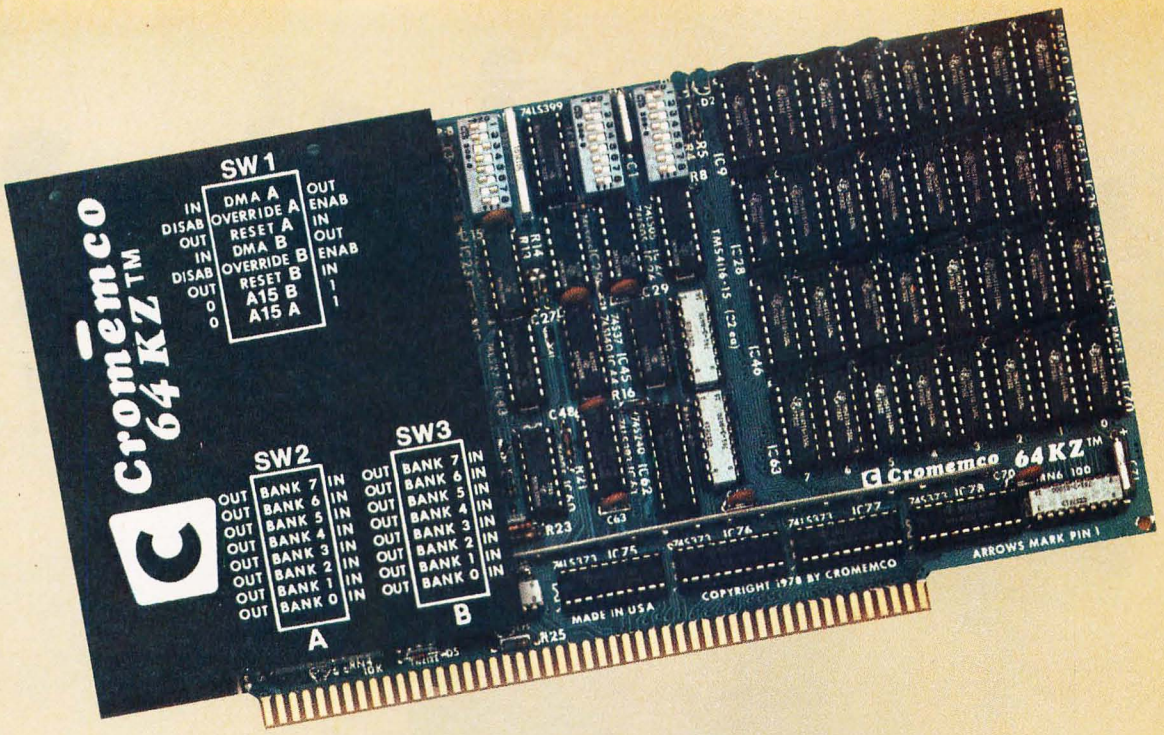

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BYTE July 1979
Volume 4, Number 7

In The Queue

Foreground

18 GRAPHIC INPUT OF WEATHER DATA, *by Stephen P Smith*
Graphical data acquisition techniques

34 SOUND OFF, *by Steve Ciarcia*
Interfacing a computer to external sound generation devices

54 A MODEL OF THE BRAIN FOR ROBOT CONTROL, Part 2: A Neurological Model, *by James Albus*
A hierarchical network that can execute tasks and seek goals

120 SONIC ANEMOMETRY FOR THE HOBBYIST *by Neil Dvorak*
Measuring wind speed and direction by electronic means

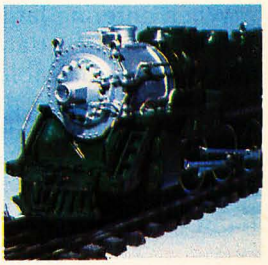
134 THE NATURE OF ROBOTS, Part 2: Simulated Control System, *by William T Powers*
Understanding closed loop control systems

176 QUEST, *by Roger Chaffee*
Will you find the treasure or will the giant find you first?

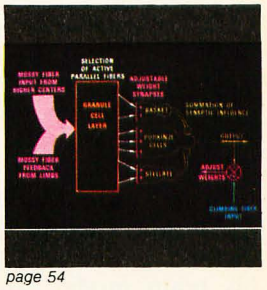
198 MOUSE, A Language for Microcomputers, *by Peter Grogono*
Simple language to demonstrate implementation processes

226 SUBROUTINE PARAMETERS, *by W D Maurer*
More ways than you ever dreamed possible to give your subroutines the data they need

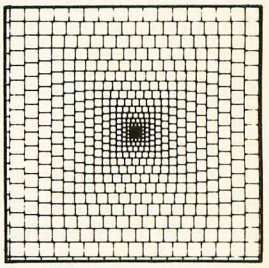
page 8



page 34



page 54



page 105

Background

105 THE MATHEMATICS OF COMPUTER ART, *by Kurt Schmucker*
Plotting figures that express mathematical relationships

158 CREATIVITY IN COMPUTER MUSIC, *by Hubert S Howe Jr*
Effect of computer use on music composition and theory

194 PHOTO ESSAY: Physical Hardware of a New Computer Backplane, *by Carl T Helmers Jr*
The beginnings of a homebrew 6809 personal computer

Nucleus

6 Letters
8 Editorial, "Computers and Eclipses"
36,192 Programming Quickies
96 Event Queue
98,156 BYTE's Bugs
99 BYTE News
154 Clubs and Newsletters
155 BYTE's Bits
174 Nybbles: Tiny Pascal in Assembly Language
193 World Power Systems: A Report
187 Book Reviews
222 Technical Forum
231 Languages Forum
233 What's New?
270 Unclassified Ads
272 BOMB, Reader Service

Cover Art: AUTOMATING ECLIPSES, *by Robert Tinney.*

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Robert Tinney's cover painting, "Automating Eclipses", symbolizes this month's theme of computers and weather. See this month's theme articles by Stephen P Smith and Neil Dvorak, and the editorial by Carl Helmers.

In This BYTE

When entering large amounts of graph associated data into a computer, a graphic tablet that allows you to digitize the data is a great help. Stephen P Smith uses such a device, the Summagraphics Bit Pad digitizer, to perform the **Graphic Input of Weather Data.** *page 18*

This month "Ciarcia's Circuit Cellar" explores the use and interfacing of Texas Instruments and General Instrument sound generators. Find out how you can let your computer **Sound Off.** *page 34*

In part 1 of **A Model of the Brain for Robot Control,** James Albus defined the notation we used for his brain model. This month he describes a neurological model that can store and recall a broad class of mathematical functions. *page 54*

Much computer art employs the calculating ability of the machine to make drawings expressing mathematical relationships. Kurt Schmucker defines two classes of such drawings and describes methods for producing them in **The Mathematics of Computer Art.** *page 105*

To forecast weather, you need to know wind speed and direction. By using modern technology, we can do without whirling mechanical assemblies. Neil Dvorak shows us how to use electronic components and computer programs to measure the wind in **Sonic Anemometry for the Hobbyist.** *page 120*

In part 2 of **The Nature of Robots,** William T Powers presents a BASIC simulation of a control system. By experimenting with this simulator, the reader is able to work with the concepts of a closed loop control system. *page 134*

Creativity in Computer Music by Hubert S Howe Jr is a survey of some recent work in music theory, analysis, sound generation, and composition done with computers. Microcomputers can now be used for much of the work formerly done by large scale computers a decade ago. *page 158*

After you have successfully hunted the Wumpus, and destroyed all the Klingons, what is your next step? Roger Chaffee suggests you try your hand in some caves, searching for hidden treasure. Enter the world of suspense and danger on your **Quest** for riches. *page 176*

Building a computer from scratch as an amateur is the historical root of the personal computer field. In this issue, Carl Helmers begins an informal series of articles on a new homebrew project: a general purpose 6809 system. The computer itself has an intended application to music, but the design and construction of this homebrew project are quite general. See **Photo Essay: Physical Hardware of a New Computer Backplane.** *page 194*

Mouse is a programming language that contains many features usually associated with high level programming languages and can be implemented with minimal resources. It is of interest to people who enjoy obtaining dramatic results with little effort and to those who have a system which is too small to support a conventional high level language. Peter Grogono describes the implementation of Mouse by means of a Pascal program which can be used to write an assembly language version. Indications of how this might be done are provided in **Mouse: A Language for Microcomputers.** *page 198*

When working with subroutines, the concept of passing parameters can be confusing. W D Maurer describes three methods of passing parameters (call by value and result, call by reference, and call by name) in his article **Subroutine Parameters.** *page 226*

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Letters

SERIOUS COMMENTS ON AMENDED BASIC

I enjoyed the humor that Robert Bass used in his Languages Forum on "Amended BASIC" (April 1979 BYTE, page 238). Most of his suggested additions to the BASIC language were of the April Fool's Day variety; however, his FORGET statement, though included in jest, does have some merit.

Frequently, the programs I write have hard-to-find bugs in them. These programs may have long printouts of instructions on how to use them. However, when debugging programs, it is irritating to have to wait for all of these printouts before the program really starts. I usually change all of those PRINT statements into comments by inserting a REM before them. A FORGET statement, however, would be far more convenient. The programmer could include a statement like FORGET 100-210, 320, 400-460 at the beginning, and then run the program. The BASIC will treat the statements listed in the FORGET statement as remarks. When you are finished debugging the program, remove the FORGET statement, or change it into a remark. In this way, you need to change only one statement in your program, instead of numerous statements as in our current BASIC.

Another suggestion I would like to see implemented in BASIC is a variation of the RESTORE statement. Presently the RESTORE statement sets the DATA pointer to the start of the list of DATA. However, sometimes it is convenient to have the pointer set at a different point. I suggest that a statement of the form "RESTORE 300" be implemented. This would set the DATA pointer to the first set of DATA at or following line 300. A variation of this might be "ON K RESTORE 300, 310,320." This statement would be analogous to the "ON K GOTO 300, 400, 500" statement. Both versions would allow immediate access to DATA. At present you must RESTORE the pointer to the beginning of the DATA, and then use dummy variables to READ to the DATA you actually want.

James L Boettler
Director of the Computer Laboratory
Claflin College
Orangeburg SC 29115

SQUISH BUGS

Regarding the April 1979 editorial about operating systems with bombed file systems:

First, we note that the UCSD file system, RT-11 for the PDP-11, and many other disk operating systems require periodic squishes to manage a disk. This is a foolhardy stunt as, in your case, one bad disk sector can prevent the entire squish from working. I feel that people who build and propagate file systems like this (without even any attempt to skip bad sectors!) are irresponsible.

It shows the need for better error recovery or a scheme which prevents the need for *squish* altogether, such as dynamic file space allocations (eg: CP/M).

Secondly, your need to write your own recovery program indicated a need for such a recovery program to come as a standard operating system utility. Disasters happen; the need is real.

To my knowledge, Motorola MDOS and Software Dynamic's SDOS (for the 6800) are the only microcomputer operating systems that provide both dynamic file allocation and disaster recovery programs.

The industry needs more systems like these.

Ira Baxter
Software Dynamics
2111 W Crescent Suite G
Anaheim CA 92801

A FASTER MAILING LIST

In reference to Thomas E Doyle's article, "A Computerized Mailing List," (January 1979 BYTE, page 84) a few modifications might be helpful, particularly, as he expresses some concern on saving time in the discussion of Program 6.

Program 7 is the main concern of this letter. After the program locates the desired record to eliminate, it performs, in closing up the gap, what is commonly called *garbage collection*. It would appear to be more desirable to flag that record as an unused record and not perform garbage collection every time. Two possible ways to do this are: a special (in Mr. Doyle's application) call sign which is recognized as a *null record*; or add an additional variable to the list for each record. This additional variable could be easily used to indicate a variety of meanings for the remaining data on the record besides a null record. Then Programs 2 and 3 could be selective.

With the addition of this variable, all the other programs would have to be modified to take into account the change in the structure of the file. The disk file could be viewed as a collection of one or more sets of records, each set being zero or more consecutive records of *good* data, and ending with one null record. Program 1, having initialized the file, would then write one null record before ending. Program 6 would only search up to the first null record after the point of insertion (a null record must still exist at the end of the file, for Program 4 as well). Program 8 (to be

Text continued on page 98

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Editorial

Computers and Eclipses

by Carl Helmers

The idea occurred last fall. An innocuous advertisement appeared in *Smithsonian Magazine*, trumpeting an exciting adventure called "Eclipse Over Big Sky" which would take place in February 1979 at the Big Sky ski resort in the southwestern part of Montana, near Yellowstone Park in Wyoming. Naturally, I sent away for the information advertised.

After receiving the literature, I made up my mind that a total solar eclipse was worth seeing, especially if it was to be the last one on continental North America for some forty years. So, I sent in my deposit and made plans to attend. It turned out (as I found when I arrived) that this expedition was one of a series of such expeditions organized by sociologist and eclipse buff Dr Phil Sigler of New York City. These expeditions had attended every total solar eclipse for the past eight or ten years. Using the latest in modern techniques, including reference to weather satellite data, they had found a necessary hole in the clouds at the right time in eight out of nine cases prior to this eclipse.

Previous expeditions had used cruise ships on the open ocean in order to implement the concept of "mobility" pioneered by Dr Ed Brooks of Boston University, the weather adviser for the operation. In order to utilize the same concept for the 1979 eclipse, some form of land mobility was required. An initial attempt to take advantage of an Amtrak route which paralleled the eclipse path was apparently squelched by the usual bureaucratic catch-22: "Sure you can rent the track, but we can't supply you with a train." Thus, mobility was achieved through the services of the Yellowstone Bus Company and a procession of 15 large buses. At 2 AM on eclipse day, this procession left the hotel for a six hour trip to central Montana, just west of a town called Roundup.

Taking pictures of a transient, two minute phenomenon is one of the goals of an eclipse expedition; the other goal being to simply watch this phenomenon with the naked eye or through a suitable telescope. When I say "naked eye," I mean it, despite all normal reactions which say "you can't look at an eclipse without protection." In actuality, there is absolutely no way to look at an un-eclipsed or partially eclipsed sun without using filters to avoid damaging your eyeballs or camera equipment.

However, this is the key difference with regard to a totally eclipsed sun: you can look at it directly. That last .1 percent that separates 99.9 from 100 percent makes all the difference in the world between the dull, filtered crescent sun of a partial eclipse and the incredibly beautiful natural phenomenon of a totally eclipsed sun. You can take excellent pictures, without filters, using 400 speed film and exposures of 1/30 to 1/2000 of a second (see photos 1 and 2). But, photographing the phenomenon is definitely a bit of a problem.

During this past eclipse, I had only enough time to take about 15 exposures, with one lens change. This was done in −3 to 0 degree Celsius prevailing temperatures on an isolated road west of Roundup, Montana. My hands froze, and I probably did not get the optimal personal viewing, although the 1000 mm reflex telephoto lens of my camera acted as an excellent spotting scope through which to watch the sun for most of the eclipse.

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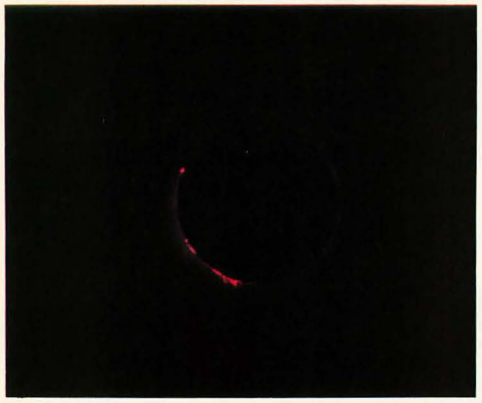

Photo 1: A shot of the 1979 North American total solar eclipse taken with a relatively quick shutter speed. Note the prominences showing around the extremely dark disk of the sun as obscured by the moon. This picture was exposed shortly after totality began.

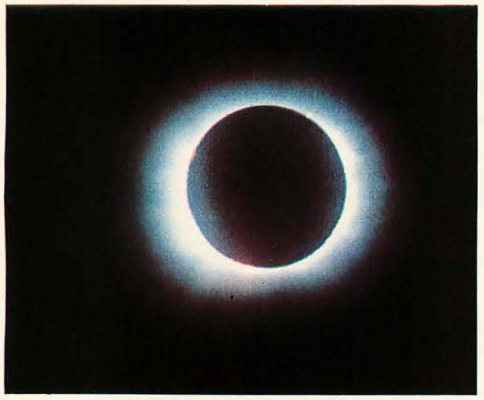

Photo 2: With a much slower shutter speed, elements of the solar corona begin to show. This picture was taken with about a 1/30th second exposure at f/11 using 400 ASA Ektachrome slide film. (I was too busy during the eclipse to take detailed notes for each exposure, so I can only observe that this was one of the longer exposures, probably at 1/30th second.)

The problem is that if you spend your allotted time budget fooling around with the camera, you can miss a good portion of the event and its natural beauty. This is where the computer experimenter's inventiveness can come into play. Why not automate the exposure and picture taking sequences of the camera and telescope combination, so that once the first diamond rings of totality occur, a microcomputer can run through an open loop exposure sequence adapted to the camera equipment and the particular eclipse being viewed?

What are the functional requirements of such a device? Based on the recommendations of the expedition's photography advisers, George Keene of Eastman Kodak and Robert Little of Criterion Manufacturing (and confirmed by my own successful experience), the main requirement for achieving excellent photos with a 35 mm camera during an eclipse is to use a non-automatic exposure technique which simply covers a range of shutter speed settings within a fixed aperture setting.

At each exposure of the film, different phenomena dominate the image. During short exposures, the extremely bright solar prominences are highlighted, with almost no corona visible (see photo 1). In longer exposures, one begins to see details of the fainter solar corona, while the inner prominence detail washes out due to overexposure.

During the transient events at the beginning ("second contact") and end ("third contact") of totality, a fixed aperture and shutter speed setting are appropriate, with a rather fast frame-to-frame timing. During totality, the film load of the camera should be spaced out over the balance of the 36 exposure magazine.

So, what we want the camera to do with its "n" exposures during the eclipse is to use a programmed sequence. The diagram of figure 1 shows a sequence that might have been ideal for me during the 1979 eclipse's 138 seconds of totality. In this figure, the events start at the last sliver of crescent sun when the filter is removed and a manual input starts the hypothetical computer sequence. Six shots are budgeted at 1/2 second intervals for the initial transient phenomenon called "Baily's beads" or "the diamond ring," depending upon the details of the sun shining through the lunar mountains.

The ideal case would then expose 24 frames at a uniform rate, covering an up and down sequence of exposure speeds. Finally, as the first bit of the departing transient starts to happen, the remaining six exposures would be used to capture the third contact "Baily's beads" or "diamond ring" effects as they occur. This would completely fill a single 36 exposure magazine of Kodak's excellent ASA 400 Ektachrome slide film. It sounds like a job for a microcomputer system as timing and control element, with suitable photographic peripherals.

How would this programmed sequence be possible? We want to use as much standard equipment as possible, for the purpose of reliability and to avoid total reinvention of the wheel. Fortunately, in contemporary photography, the motor drive is becoming an inexpensive and common accessory for the 35 mm SLR (single lens reflex) camera. This solves the problem of moving the film between frames. We need only set the motor drive on automatic and then the camera will take a picture and move the film to the next frame every time the exposure button is pushed. We must merely get the computer to push the shutter release button according to the timing diagram.

A relatively simple adaptation of a cable release to a solenoid actuator will serve to link the exposure button to the microcomputer sequencer. A suitable solid state relay power driver output from the computer will then press the button to take each picture. This, however, does not solve the problem of adjusting the shutter speed. Based on the current marketing literature of Nikon, I can get automated aperture control from an external source, but not control of the exposure time. Thus, the adaptation of my F2A camera will require careful thought and craftsmanship, of the same sort required for any other 35 mm camera body.

We will need a more elaborate combination of mechanical and electronic skills for this part of the operation. The adaptation of the camera shutter

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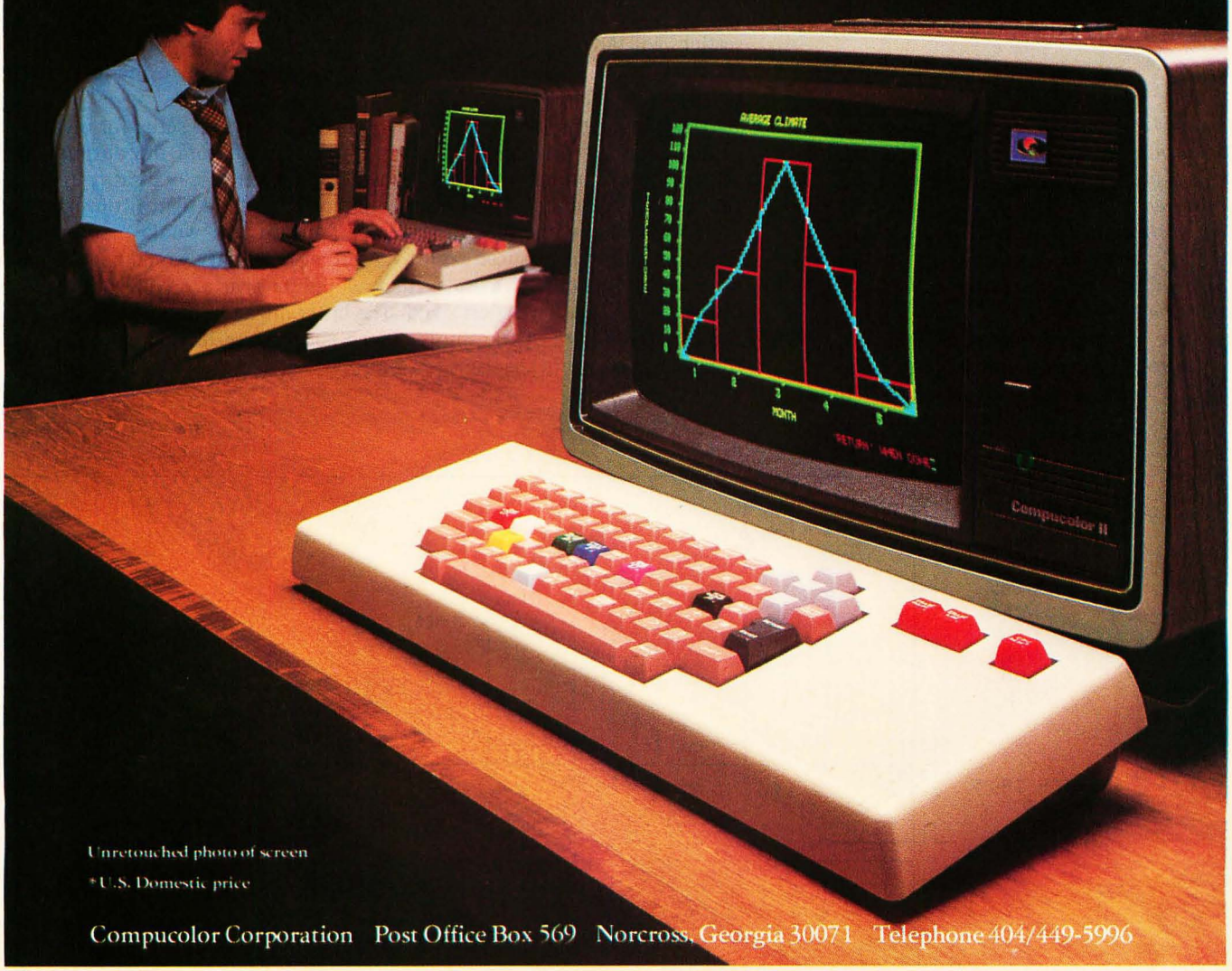

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Photo 3: A wide angle photograph showing the partially eclipsed sun in the southeastern sky, with one of several hot air balloons nearby. In order to get both the sun and the balloon, the sun is necessarily overexposed, and the balloon is underexposed.

speed control to computer control requires machining skills with an amateur's lathe and milling setup.

The adapter is based upon a metal bracket which screws onto the camera at the tripod mounting socket which is standard on all 35 mm cameras. This bracket is set up with suitable spacers so that it will mount to the camera in a reliably repeatable fashion. The bracket can be mounted in the tripod socket since the telephoto lens or telescope used during an eclipse has its own mount on either a tripod or a true equatorial telescope base.

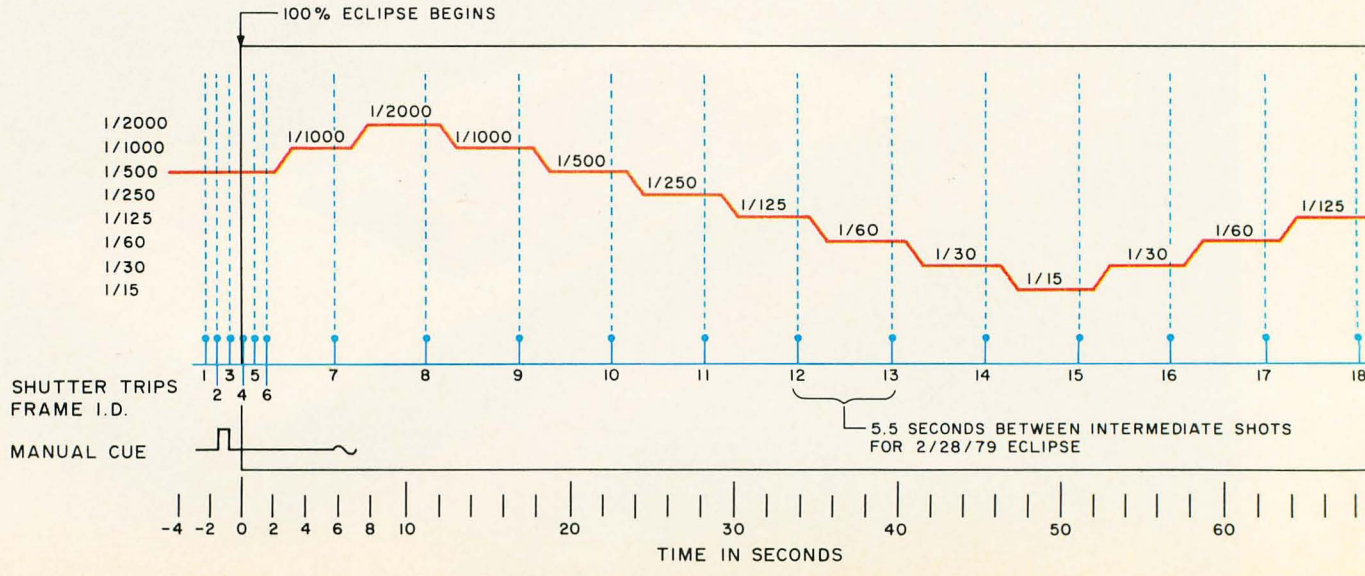
The adapter plate is then used to mount the small DC instrumentation motor and gearbox, which creates a reasonably high torque from the light duty motor. With my Nikon F2A, I need to turn the shutter speed control through an angle of approximately 10 degrees in about 1/4 to 1/2 of a second in order to accommodate the timing diagram of figure 1.

The output of the gearbox is a shaft which lines up with the axis of rotation of the shutter speed control. To this shaft is attached an optical position sensor created by passing the edge of a thin brass disk through an optoelectronic interrupter arrangement of the sort one can purchase from any optoelectronic company catalog. In the final stage of the custom fitting of this mechanism to the camera, each shutter position is marked on the disk and a small hole is punched in the disk. Thus, while the motor is turning the computer can tell when a given position has been reached, and the motor can be turned off.

The DC motor itself is controlled by a bidirectional electronic interface similar to the one shown in the article on the Terrapin Turtle by James A Gupton Jr ("Talk to a Turtle," June 1979 BYTE, page 74). This bidirectional interface allows us to turn the shutter speed knob to any setting, with the sensing of the shutter position returned by the optical interrupter. Use of a second interrupter for encoding of the first and last shutter speed settings will guarantee proper initialization and referencing of the speeds. This provides direct feedback of the limit stops in addition to the intermediate position information.

The one critical, unsolved problem in projecting this setup for my camera is the detail of driving the shutter speed control from the output of the gearbox. I will probably have to consider some potentially disastrous modifications to the camera. One possible method could be a tight fitting, carefully milled cylinder with ridges on its inner surface that would mate with the ridges on the shutter speed control. Another possibility would be to drill one or more off-center drive holes that would receive a driving pin mounted off-center on the drive shaft's end. The latter might be impossible, due to the complicated nature of the shutter speed control and its interaction with the film speed setting mechanisms.

Figure 1: A timing diagram of an "ideal" 36 exposure sequence for a 138 second eclipse event, allowing two seconds before and after totality for transient phenomena. The horizontal axis of this figure is time in seconds, and the vertical axis is shutter speed of the camera, a discrete phenomenon with the steps shown. During an eclipse, aperture setting of the camera cannot be controlled if long focus telephoto or astronomical telescope lens equipment is used.



The computer system which drives the camera during an eclipse is quite simple. The computer itself should be a dedicated 8 bit device with a suitable high level language program loaded into its local read only memory. Several 2708 or 2716 read only memory parts should suffice to store the systems software and the application program needed to control the telescope camera during a specific eclipse and to space out the 24 intermediate pictures during the estimated length of totality. Power requirements can be adequately handled by a single 6 or 12 V battery which also supplies power to the shutter speed control motor and the shutter tripping solenoid. The camera motor drive has its own dedicated NiCad battery pack which is totally independent of the computer. In a field situation it is assumed that batteries can be recharged through 110 V AC mains on the cruise ship or in land based hotels. If North American standard voltages are not available, the chargers can certainly be run through one of a number of standard converters available for world travelers.

Photo 4: One of the most unusual occurrences was the appearance of several hot air balloons in the sky at the time of the eclipse. While the balloonists must certainly have been having fun, some of the people watching from the ground were, no doubt, perturbed. Here is a kind of man made "cloud" phenomenon totally unpredictable by any meteorologist.

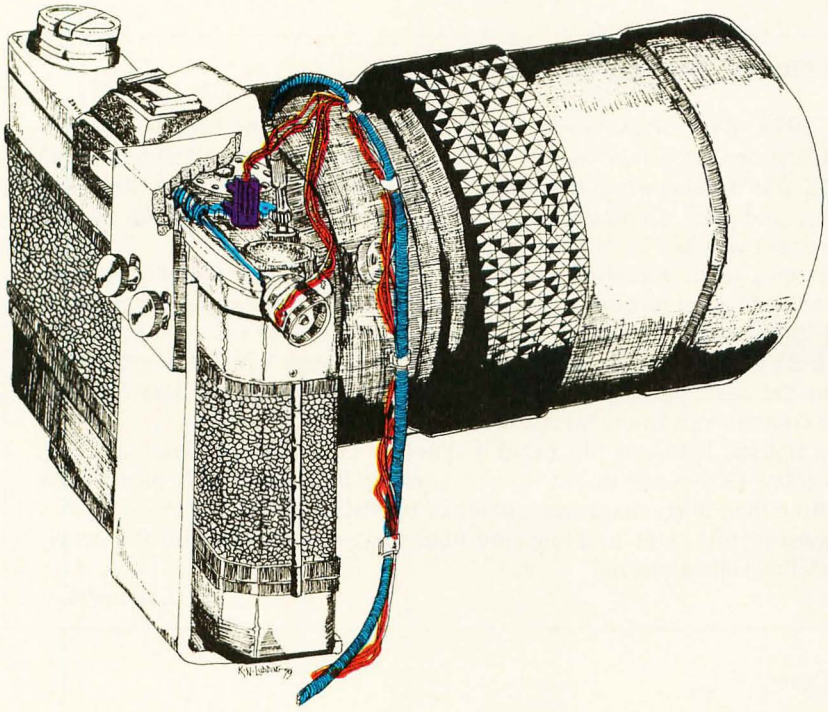
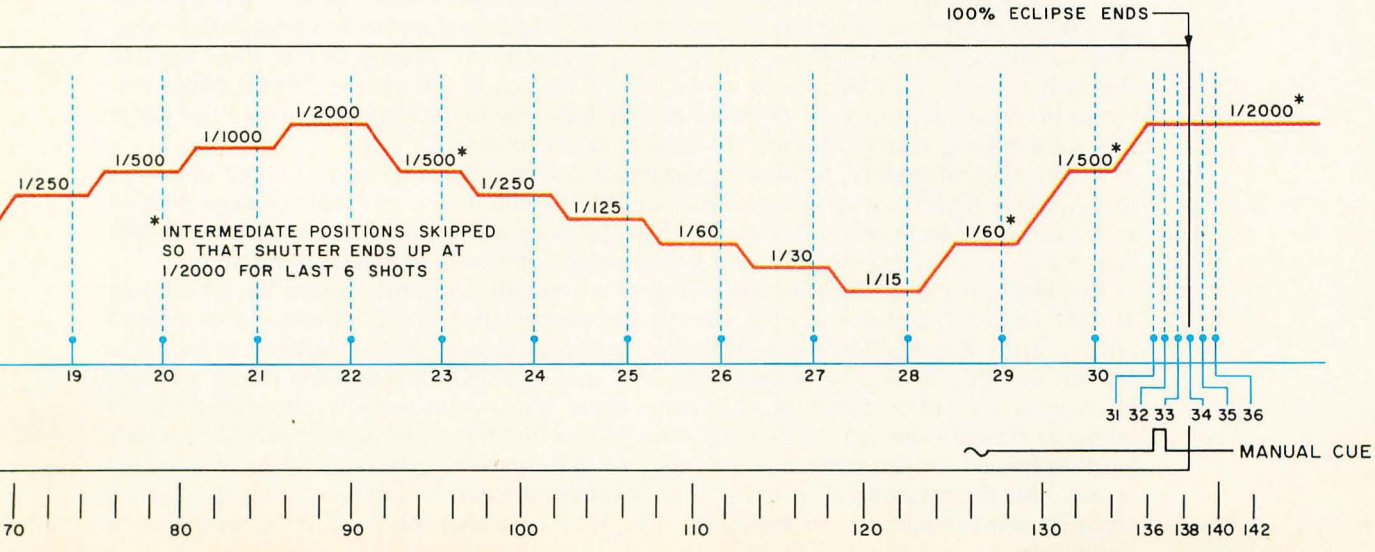


Figure 2: A conceptual sketch of possible homebrew machinery adapted to a 35 mm camera with motor drive, to allow automation of eclipse photography according to the timing diagram in figure 1. This fantasy was created by artist Ken Lodding.



Articles Policy

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Will I ever build this? At this time I can't predict if and when I will get around to building this sort of system. If I do, readers can be certain that there will be photographic documentation of the system. My immediate deadline might be to get the system working for the 1980 eclipse which occurs over the equatorial Atlantic Ocean, Africa, Indian Ocean, India and China on February 16. However, as this is written, I don't even know if I will go to see that event.

This camera automation computer is one of those applications of a small computer system which is most appropriate. It has elements of the mechanical interfaces to electronics which are a necessary part of any practical robotic system, as well as elements of real time control akin to those needed for other practical uses of the small computer in home, laboratory and industry. It is the kind of system many of our readers are conceiving and building, whether it be for fun or for professional purposes. As time goes on, we can expect to see this kind of application documented in the form of articles with much greater detail than this editorial sketch. Conceiving, and then building this kind of application is when the fun of contemporary small computing reaches its highest level. ■

The More Things Change, The More They Stay The Same. . . .

On April 20, 1979, BYTE Publications Inc and onComputing Inc became a part of McGraw-Hill Publications Co. Thus, as we neared completion of our fourth year as an enterprise, BYTE, and *onComputing* magazines joined *Electronics, Aviation Week and Space Technology,* and *Data Communications* to become key parts in a group of high technology magazines published by McGraw-Hill.

BYTE will continue to be published from offices in Peterborough NH, with the same staff and the same dedication to quality. Aside from such detail changes as the notation "A McGraw-Hill Publication" on our cover, readers can expect the editorial and advertising content of BYTE to continue under the same philosophy which has established our reputation in the past. Indeed, a major factor in our decision to affiliate with McGraw-Hill is their commitment to the independence of individual magazines.

An interesting statistic is that at this exciting time, BYTE's paid circulation of about 156,000 readers (May 1979 issue) makes it second only to *Business Week* in paid circulation among the more than thirty magazines published by McGraw-Hill.

We look forward at this point to a long and flourishing relationship with the people who form the McGraw-Hill enterprise.

. . . .Carl Helmers

A Note About the Cover. . .

One of the interesting social phenomena of this eclipse was the appearance of a number of artificial clouds over the observation site: five or six different hot air balloons appeared over our site just at the time of totality. Photo 3 shows a wide angle shot that was intentionally overexposed during the partial phase of the eclipse just prior to totality. One of these artificial clouds is a dark object below and to the left of the sun in this picture. The telephoto shot shown in photo 4 captured one of these balloons in the sky to the west of the expedition site as they were drifting towards us, about 10 minutes before totality.

At the time of totality, I distinctly remember looking up and seeing two bright objects in the sky. One object was the eclipsed sun, and the second object, at about the same position as the dark balloon in photo 3, was one of the balloons with its propane flame shining a brilliant orange color. A man-made fire was complementing the eclipsed embers of the sun.

Combining the eclipse automation theme of this month's editorial with the hot air balloons actually observed, and the weather analysis and measurement themes of two of this month's articles, artist Robert Tinney has created a fantasy on eclipses, hot air balloons and weather for this month's cover. The dramatic effect of cumulonimbus thunderstorm clouds was used in place of the rather dull, high, thin cirrus cloud layer which partially obscured the 1979 eclipse as viewed from central Montana. And perhaps the hot air balloonists should have their heads examined for departing into this imagined thunderstorm, inexorable timing of an eclipse or not. But the resulting oil painting is an incomparable work of beauty, celebrating an uncommon event unique to our spaceship earth, its sister planet the Moon and a technological civilization.

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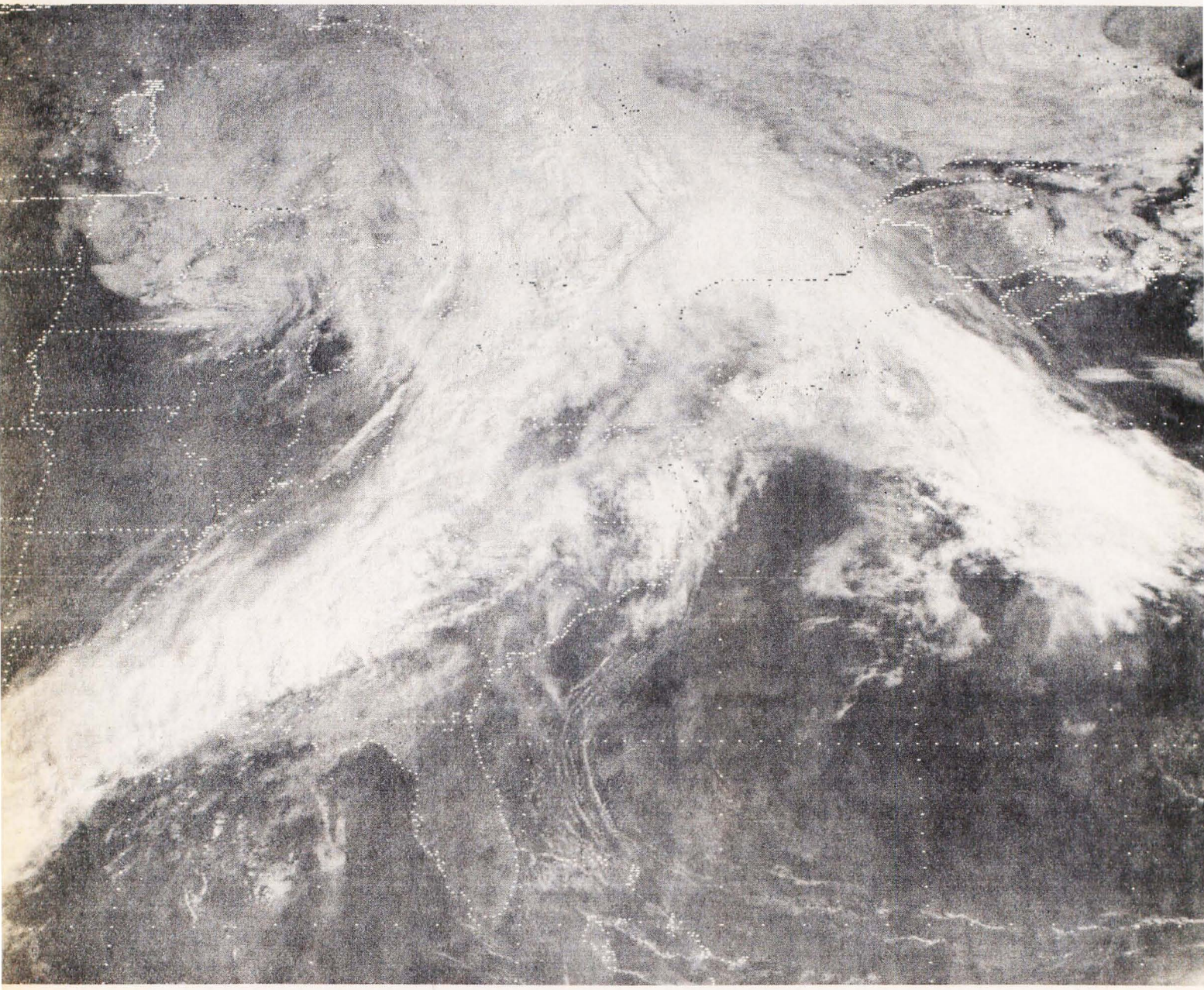

Photo 1: Infrared and visible light photographs like this one are the primary tool of the satellite meteorologist. Cloud formations help locate rain. Temperature data from the infrared images indicates intensity. Photograph courtesy NOAA National Weather Service.

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The fact that everyone complains about the weather, but nobody does anything about it, is well-known. Weather forecasting is still more art than science.

Manual techniques still yield the best quantitative weather predictions when compared with the largest computer systems processing a wealth of satellite, radar, and ground station data. However even modest data processing equipment can be an important *tool* for the meteorologist. I'll show how the combination of a small personal computer and a Summagraphics Bit Pad graphics tablet simplifies the processing of rainfall estimates for a regional data base. The application is an interesting one, and the BASIC language software developed will be useful in any system employing a Bit Pad for data entry.

Locally, rainfall can be measured with simple gauges. The heavy showers common during the prime growing and flood seasons have irregular distributions, so local measurements may be inadequate for regional use. Agricultural planners need to know how much rain has fallen over a specific growing area. Hydrologists working on flood warning and control need to know how much has fallen within a given watershed. Both groups need this information broken down into relatively small elements of time and area, perhaps for each 24 hour period and for each 10 kilometer square. To achieve this detail, tools in addition to rain gauges must be used.

The first of these tools is ground based radar. Most of us have seen weather radars operating on television news broadcasts. Rainfall reflects the radar signal and provides a visual display for the operator, similar to figure 1. Showers can be located accurately, and relative intensity can be determined. Unfortunately, even highly calibrated radars have difficulty measuring actual amounts of rain, and most weather radars are not well calibrated for this application. Radar coverage is also not complete over all areas of the country.

A second tool, satellite imagery, has extended that coverage significantly (see figure 2). Geostationary satellites, which remain fixed over one point on the earth, provide pictures every half hour. Polar orbiting satellites, flying much closer to the earth, provide more detailed images several times a day. A trained meteorologist can identify cloud formations in pictures like photo 1. Several investigators primarily at the National Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration (NOAA, pronounced like Noah) have developed schemes to estimate the rainfall beneath these clouds. (see references 1 and 2).

Text continued on page 20

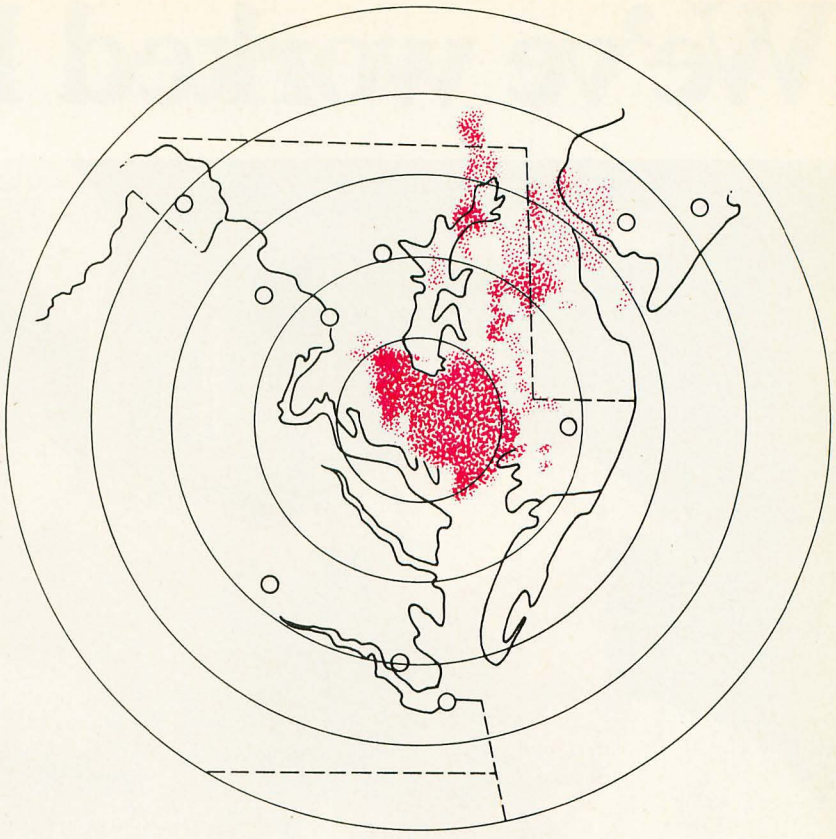

Figure 1: Meteorologists can locate rainstorms using ground based radar. Images like this are familiar from television news. Unfortunately, they are not sufficient to gauge intensity, and radar coverage is not complete throughout the country.

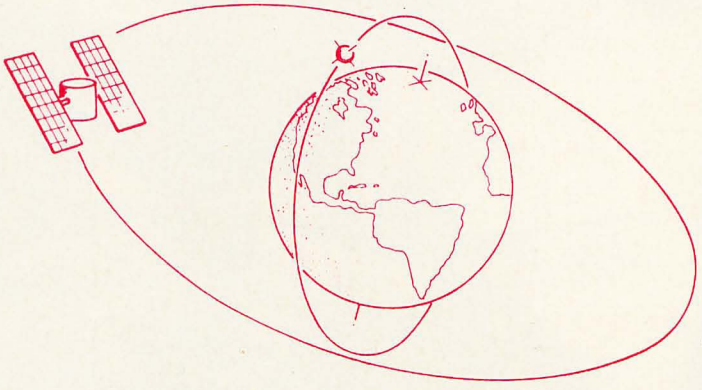

Figure 2: Meteorologists can obtain imagery from two types of satellites. Geosynchronous satellites orbit at the same speed that the earth turns. They appear to be stationary, giving continuous coverage of one area of the Earth. Polar orbiting satellites fly a North to South pattern while the earth turns west to east below them. They provide frequent coverage of every point on the globe.

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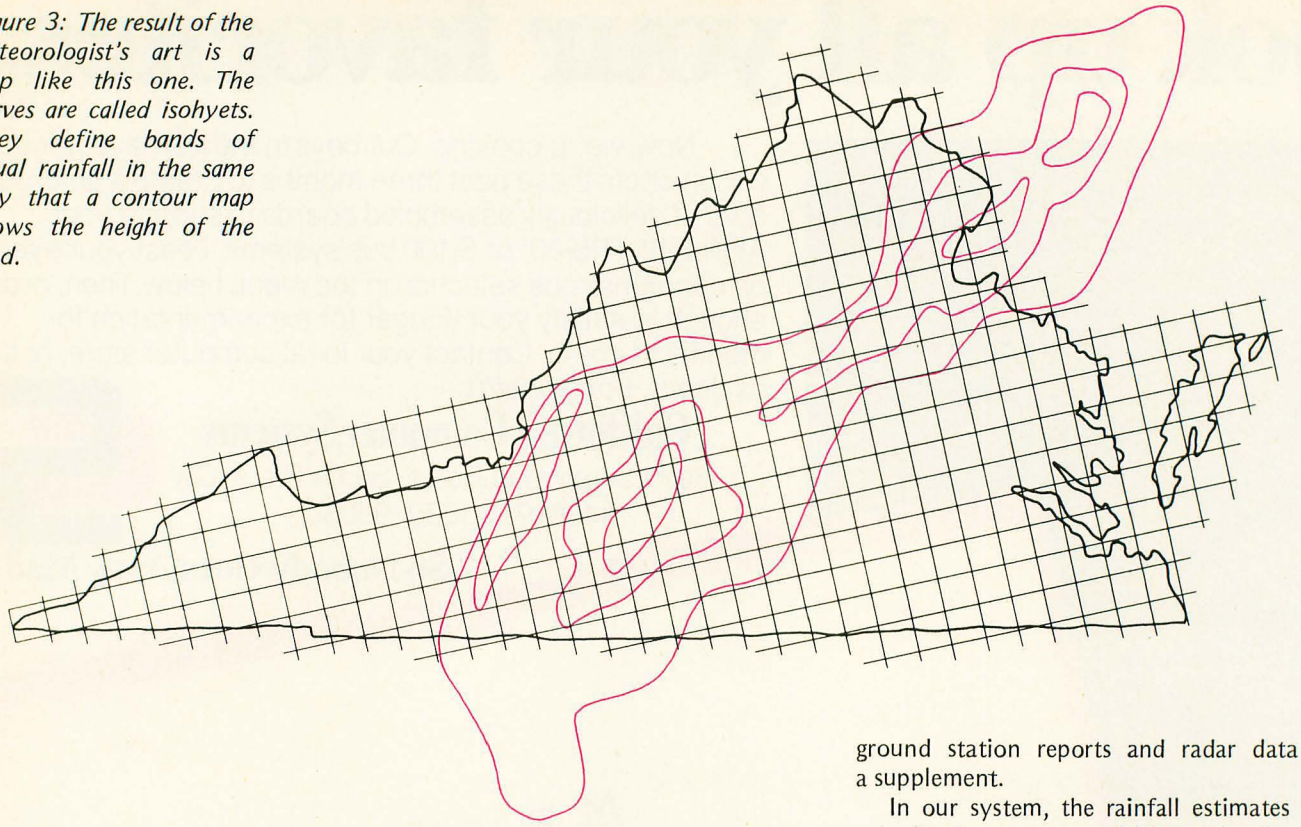

Figure 3: The result of the meteorologist's art is a map like this one. The curves are called isohyets. They define bands of equal rainfall in the same way that a contour map shows the height of the land.

Text continued from page 17:

The job of tying together the satellite information with ground station and radar data quickly falls to computers. The manual work should be made as simple as possible, with data provided to the computer in a format designed for the convenience of the meteorologist. The computer should accept this data, digitize it, manipulate it, store it, and produce reports in a format designed for agricultural planners, hydrologists, and other users. Programs of this type have typically been run on medium sized mainframe computers. For data entry and conversion, and limited report generation, however, there are a lot of good microcomputer applications.

Let's examine a specific example. We will accept rainfall estimates and process them to produce reports of accumulation in each 10 km square over a region of about 150,000 km^2 (ie: 30 by 50 squares). It would be nice if a digitized satellite photograph could be input to a computer to generate rainfall estimates directly, but that is well beyond the current state of the art. Attempts have been made to input manual interpretations of cloud formations seen in the photos and have the computer evaluate their rain potential (see reference 3). This, too, lacks the necessary precision. The best estimates come from the evaluations of an experienced meteorologist working with satellite photos, and using ground station reports and radar data as a supplement.

In our system, the rainfall estimates are submitted as maps on which bands of equal rainfall will be drawn. Figure 3 shows a sample. The bands are called *isohyets* and are similar to the *isobars*, or lines of equal barometeric pressure, also used by weather people.

A more familiar analogy might be a contour map. If locations on the ground are identified by XY coordinates, the rainfall rate can be thought of as a Z coordinate analogous to height at that point. Converting the isohyets to XYZ coordinates compatible with a grid of ten kilometer squares is the prime function of our processing system.

For a few locations, this could be done manually. The XY point could be located on the map and entered at a terminal along with the value of the isohyet in which it fell. When the number of points runs into the hundreds, however, and the data must be entered at half hour intervals, the manual approach becomes unworkable. A technique for rapidly entering the isohyets, automatically converting to XYZ format, and summing the entries over time must be devised.

Isohyets can be entered directly from the maps using a device called a graphic tablet. The map is placed on the tablet and a stylus is used to trace the outline of each isohyet. The tablet senses the position of the stylus, and the signals are electronically transmitted to a controller and converted to XY data. This type of equipment can resolve positions

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Next Byte	Byte Received	Mode 2	Mode 1	Rate 4	Rate 2	Rate 1	Status Valid

Figure 4: The computer usually talks to the Bit Pad in parallel mode. One 8 bit word is used to control the Bit Pad. The two most significant bits are part of the communications handshake. The next five provide software control, duplicating switches on the controller. The last bit, status valid, *should be set when transmitting a command.*

to 0.1 millimeter and can enter data as fast as the operator can trace the lines. Until recently, graphics tablets were expensive, typically $5000. With the introduction of the Bit Pad from Summagraphics, however, the price is now within the range of the personal computer experimenter for scientific and business applications. As of this writing, a complete unit with a tablet, stylus and controller can be purchased for $555.

Using the Bit Pad for our rainfall application involves a little hardware and some software to interface the graphics tablet to my Ohio Scientific computer. The hardware interface has largely been taken care of by Summagraphics. The software problem is a matter of scaling and accounting for misalignment of the maps during the digitizing process. The same techniques will apply to any Bit Pad application on an 8 bit microcomputer. Although BASIC may be too slow for some applications, I'll use it to illustrate this application, so the concepts will be available to the widest variety of users.

Before dealing with code, let's look at the hardware interface. The Bit Pad uses 8 bit parallel input and output as its standard. Serial communication at TTL (transistor-transistor logic) or RS-232 voltages is available as an option. With the option, it may be possible to place the Bit Pad between your serial terminal and computer in much the same way that a SwTPC cassette interface is installed. I have a parallel port based on a 6520 PIA (peripheral interface adaptor) on my central processor board, so I elected to use the parallel format. The physical connection consists of a cable with a DB-25P plug on each end. One end plugs into the Bit Pad's controller. The other connects to the PIA lines brought out to my computer's back panel. The installation could hardly be simpler.

The 8 input and 8 output signals flow along the cable. The Bit Pad receives commands from the computer in the format shown in figure 4. Each XY point is trans-

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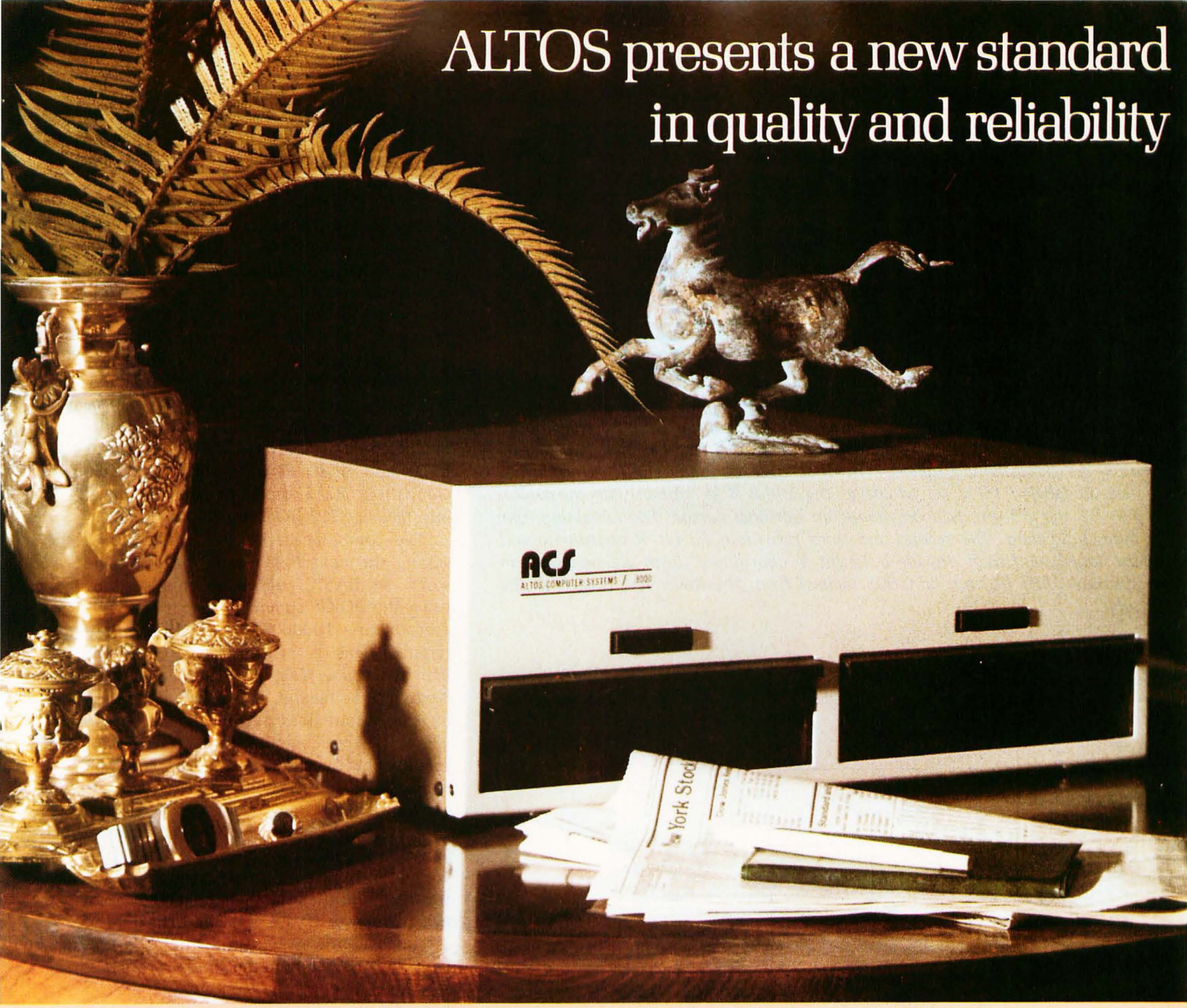

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Status (1)	Byte Available	F3	F2	F1	F0	0	0
Data (0)	Byte Available	X5	X4	X3	X2	X1	X0
Data (0)	Byte Available	X11	X10	X9	X8	X7	X6
Data (0)	Byte Available	Y5	Y4	Y3	Y2	Y1	Y0
Data (0)	Byte Available	Y11	Y10	Y9	Y8	Y7	Y6

Figure 5: The Bit Pad communicates with the computer in parallel mode. Five bytes are used to transmit data to the computer. The first two bits of each are handshaking signals. The first byte contains status information. The bit labeled F0 is set whenever the stylus is in contact with the tablet. F1, F2 and F3 are used only with an optional cursor. The remaining four bytes hold data. The second and third provide a 12 bit X coordinate and the fourth and fifth provide a 12 bit Y coordinate. Both are measured in absolute units (0.1mm or 0.005 inches) from the lower left corner of the tablet.

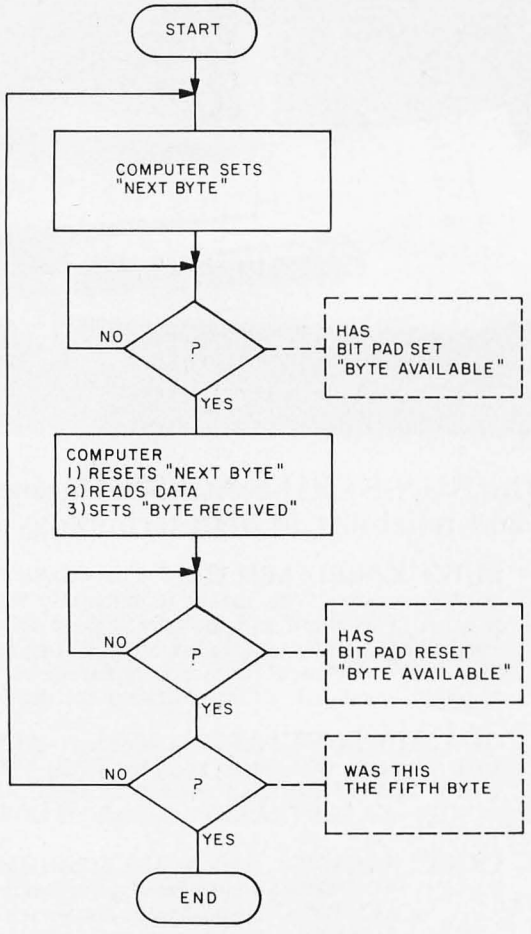


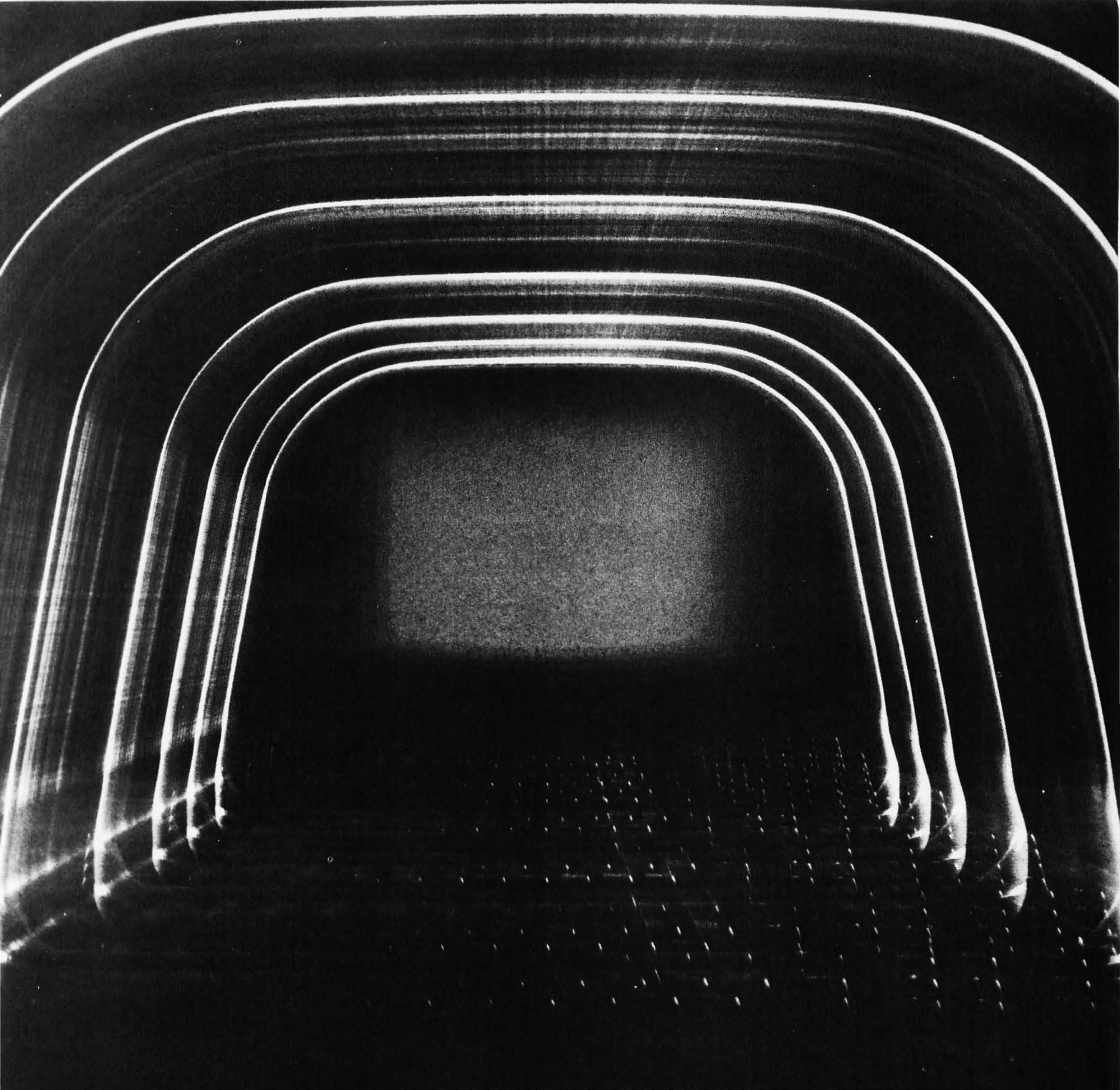
Figure 6: A handshaking arrangement insures proper data transfer between the Bit Pad and your computer. The Bit Pad performs its part of the procedure automatically. A simple BASIC or machine language routine will handle the computer's end.

mitted as a sequence of five bytes, as shown in figure 5. A ninth output bit is generated as a data strobe and can be used for interrupt driven software. Using this strobe, interaction between the Bit Pad and the computer could become largely a hardware function. In order to present that interface, however, a lengthy discussion of the PIA interrupt handling and control line features would be needed. That would be beyond the scope of this article and is of little practical use to experimenters with 8080 and Z-80 systems. The more general interface I'll develop here uses a software handshake illustrated in figure 6. It can be handled with a BASIC program and can be implemented as easily on the Motorola type 6820 and 6520 PIAs or the 8080/Z-80 compatible 8255 programmable peripheral interface or 8212 I/O (input/output) port.

The computer begins the handshake by setting the *next byte* bit of the command word. In BASIC, this is accomplished by using the POKE command to put the value 128 (binary 1000000) in the PIA output register. This is memory location 63488 in my system. When the Bit Pad sees the *next byte* command, it places a data word on the output lines, setting the *byte available* bit. The computer has been looking for this by executing an appropriate wait command.

Now it reads the data, sets *byte received* and resets *next byte.* The Bit Pad acknowledges by resetting *byte available.* The computer is now certain that a valid byte was read and that the Bit Pad is ready for a new sequence. If this was the fifth byte of a sequence, processing can continue. If not, *next byte* is set and the entire process is repeated. Should the computer somehow miss a byte or lose track of the count, it can recover by monitoring the *first byte* bit of each data word. It will be set (ie: have value 1) on the first of the five bytes and be reset (ie: value 0) on each of the others. The Bit Pad holds up its end of the handshaking automatically. The computer's end can be handled by the BASIC subroutine beginning at line 1100 in listing 1.

Using this subroutine, we end up with five values between 0 and 255 in array D. The status information in the first byte may be ignored for now. D(1) and D(2) contain the X location of the data point, but they also contain the *byte available* and *first byte* handshake signals (always set and reset respectively for data bytes). We must mask them out using a logical AND operation, or, in BASIC, by subtracting 64 (binary 01000000). The high order portion of X in D(2) is now multiplied by 64 (2^6) and added to D(1). The result is X, the absolute dis-



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```
10    REM     DATA ENTRY ROUTINE USING SUMMAGRAPHICS BIT PAD
20    REM     WRITTEN IN MICROSOFT 6502 BASIC
30    REM     STEPHEN P. SMITH, STATE COLLEGE, PA
40    DIM D(4),EW(20,20),NS(20,20),M(10)
50    P1=63844:                          REM ADDRESS OF PARALLEL PORT
60    REM
1000  REM     GET A POINT FROM THE BIT PAD
1010  GOSUB  1100:                       REM FETCH A BYTE
1020  IF D1<128 GOTO 1010:               REM IS IT THE FIRST OF 5
1030  FOR I=1 TO 4:                      REM IF YES, READ NEXT 4
1040  GOSUB 1100:                        REM FETCH A BYTE
1050  D(I)=D1-64:                        REM STRIP THE HANDSHAKE BIT
1060  NEXT I
1070  X=D(2)*64+D(1):                    REM FIND THE ABSOLUTE X POSITION
1080  Y=D(4)*64+D(3):                    REM FIND ABSOLUTE Y POSITION
1090  RETURN
1100  REM     HANDSHAKE ROUTINE
1110  POKE P1, 128:                      REM SET "NEXT BYTE"
1120  WAIT P1+2,64,0:                    REM LOOK FOR "BYTE AVAIL" SET
1130  D1=PEEK(P1+2):                     REM READ DATA
1140  POKE P1,64:                        REM RESET "NEXT BYTE", SET "BYTE RCVD"
1150  WAIT P1+2,64,64:                   REM LOOK FOR "BYTE AVAIL" RESET
1160  RETURN
3000  REM     SET UP AUTOSCALING
3010  GOSUB 1000:                        REM GET X,Y, POINT A
3020  AX=X: AY=Y
3030  GOSUB 1000:                        REM GET X,Y, POINT B
3040  BX=X: BY=Y
3050  REM
3060  DATA 0,0,30,50:                    REM A & B IN GRID COORDINATES
3070  READ AG,AH,BG,BH
3080  S1=SQR((BG-AG)↑2+(BH-AH)↑2):       REM DISTANCE AB IN GRID SYSTEM
3090  S2=SQR((BX-AX)↑2+(BY-AY)↑2):       REM DISTANCE AB IN BIT PAD SYSTEM
3100  S=S1/S2:                           REM SET SCALE FACTOR
3110  T1=ATN((BY-AY)/(BX-AX)):           REM ANGLE IN BIT PAD SYSTEM
3120  T2=ATN((BH-AH)/(BG-AG)):           REM ANGLE IN GRID SYSTEM
3130  DT=T2-T1:                          REM ROTATION ANGLE
3140  DX=AX-(AG*COS(DT)-AH*SIN(DT))/S:   REM X TRANSLATION
3150  DY=AY-(AH*COS(DT)+AG*SIN(DT))/S:   REM Y TRANSLATION
3160  RETURN
3190  REM
3200  REM     CONVERT ABSOLUTE X,Y TO GRID COORDINATES
3210  REM      J IS NUMBER OF ISOHYET
3230  REM      K IS NUMBER OF THIS POINT
3240  REM
3250  X=X-DX:                            REM TRANSLATE X
3260  Y=Y-DY:                            REM TRANSLATE Y
3270  X1=X*COS(DT)-Y*SIN(DT):            REM ROTATE X
3280  Y1=Y*COS(DT)+X*SIN(DT):            REM ROTATE Y
3290  EW(J,K)=X1*S:                      REM SCALE X AS EAST-WEST COORDINATE
3300  NS(J,K)=Y1*S:                      REM SCALE Y AS NORTH-SOUTH COORDINATE
3310  RETURN
4000  REM     MENU BOARD ROUTINE
4010  REM
4020  DATA 0.,.01,.02,.03,.04,.05,.06,.07,.08,.09,.10
4030  FOR I=1 TO 10:                     REM INITIALIZE 10
4040  READ M(I):                         REM VALUES FOR MENU
4050  NEXT I
4060  GOSUB 1000:                        REM FETCH AN X,Y POINT
4070  IF X>2794/20 GOTO 4060:            REM USE LEFTMOST 5% OF TABLET
4080  N=Y/2794*10:                       REM MENU HAD 10 ELEMENTS
4090  R=M(N):                            REM Y POSITION SELECTS ONE
4100  RETURN
```

Listing 1: BASIC program to use the Bit Pad for entering data. This program inputs a point using the discussed handshaking method, automatically scales and rotates the point, and then allows you to perform operations using that point.

tance from the left side of the tablet. D(3) and D(4) are processed in the same way to calculate Y, the absolute distance from the lower edge of the tablet. The necessary subroutine begins at line 1000 of listing 1.

The absolute coordinates in the Bit Pad system run from 0 to 2794 for 0.1 millimeter resolution (0 to 2000 for .005 inch resolution). Given the scale of our map and assuming it is well aligned on the tablet, it should be a trivial matter to convert X and Y to our 10 kilometer grid coordinate system. Actually, a little software can be added to take care of the scale and map alignment, too. We begin each session by digitizing two known points on the map. The distance between them gives us the scale factor. Their relative orientation tells the system how the map is positioned on the tablet. Figure 7 and caption give a general presentation of coordinate transformations. The subroutine which sets up this transformation begins at line 3000 of listing 1. At line 3200 absolute X and Y values are converted into grid coordinates and stored in a pair of arrays.

Using BASIC, the data is entered by touching the stylus to a number of points around each isohyet. The smooth curves on the map are approximated in the computer by polygons as in figure 8. A larger number of points produces a better approxi-

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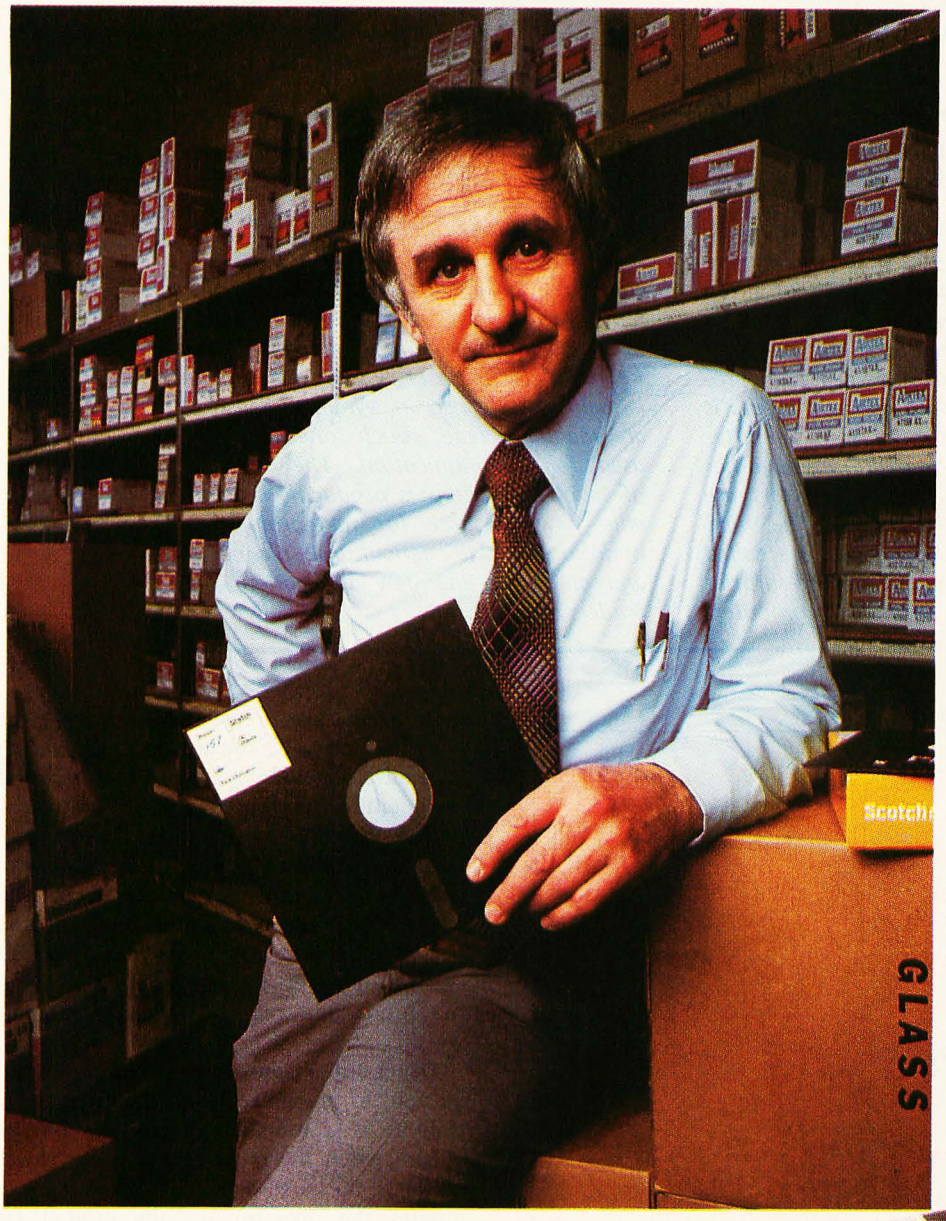

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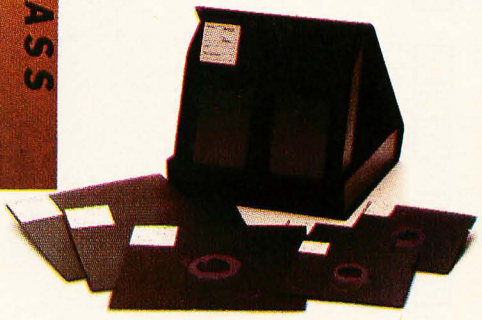
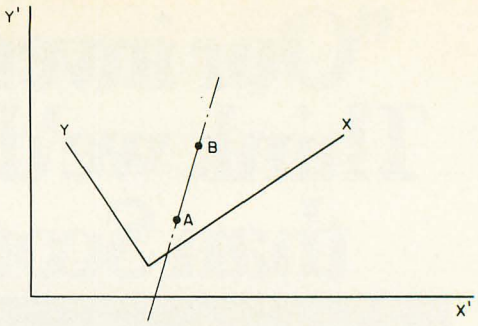


3M

Circle 368 on inquiry card.

Figure 7: In the general coordinate transform there are two problems. The first is translation. Each point must be moved by the distance between the origins of the two coordinate systems. Because the distance is the same for every point, you need only know the coordinates of one point in both systems to compute the translation vector dX, dY. The second problem is rotation. The line between A and B makes a different angle with the X axis than with the X' axis. Each point must be rotated by the difference. To compute the transformation, each point is multiplied by a rotation matrix, then added to the translation vector. The equation looks like this:



$$\begin{bmatrix} X \\ Y \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \cos d & -\sin d \\ \sin d & \cos d \end{bmatrix} \cdot \begin{bmatrix} X' \\ Y' \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} dX \\ dY \end{bmatrix}$$

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A system is being installed in the state of Virginia that typifies what can be done with microprocessors. At each of seven remote stations, sensors collect data on wind, rainfall, temperature, etc; and store it in the memory of a dedicated microcomputer. About once a day the data is transmitted to a central minicomputer for processing and integration with other data sources. The microcomputers are nicknamed the Seven Dwarfs. The minicomputer, not surprisingly, is called Snow White. It should also be no surprise to those who work with small computers that the first station to be installed was called Grumpy.

Now suppose that instead of just seven stations, a large number of personal computer owners attached some simple sensors to their systems, and were linked in a personal computer network (see February 1978 BYTE). Such a network is being tried, also in Virginia. Sensors are manually read; touch tone pads are used for communication. The interest of involved citizens is producing a valuable new resource for meteorologists, hydrologists and agricultural planners; and an interesting new application for readers of BYTE. ■

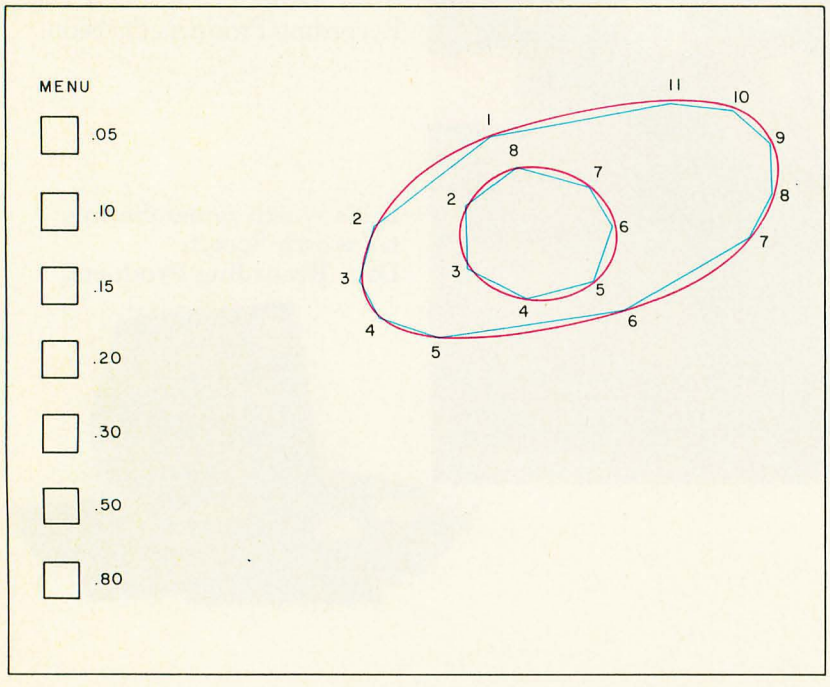

Figure 8: After digitizing with the Bit Pad, simple closed curves are approximated by polygons. More corners in the polygon produce a better approximation. Unused areas of the tablet can be used for a menu board. Touching the stylus in the appropriate area enters the indicated value. A software handler is required.

mation but takes longer to enter. If a faster, machine language routine is used, we can take advantage of the Bit Pad's stream mode of operation to enter a large number of points rapidly. As long as the stylus is touching the tablet, the Bit Pad transmits points continuously at a rate of between 1 and 64 points per second. The rate is set by the operator using switches on the control box, or by the computer setting the mode and rate bits of the command word.

Using either approach, the computer must be able to recognize when the entry of an isohyet is complete. In our system this occurs when the most recent point closely matches the first one. The computer now queries the operator for the rainfall rate corresponding to the isohyet just entered. The rate may be entered at a terminal, or by using a portion of the tablet itself as a menu board. In the latter approach, the computer associates a touch of the stylus in one of several small boxes with a preset rainfall rate. Figure 8 shows the menu board ready for operation. The subroutine which interprets the input begins at line 4000 of listing 1.

When all the isohyets have been entered, the computer can begin to assign a rainfall

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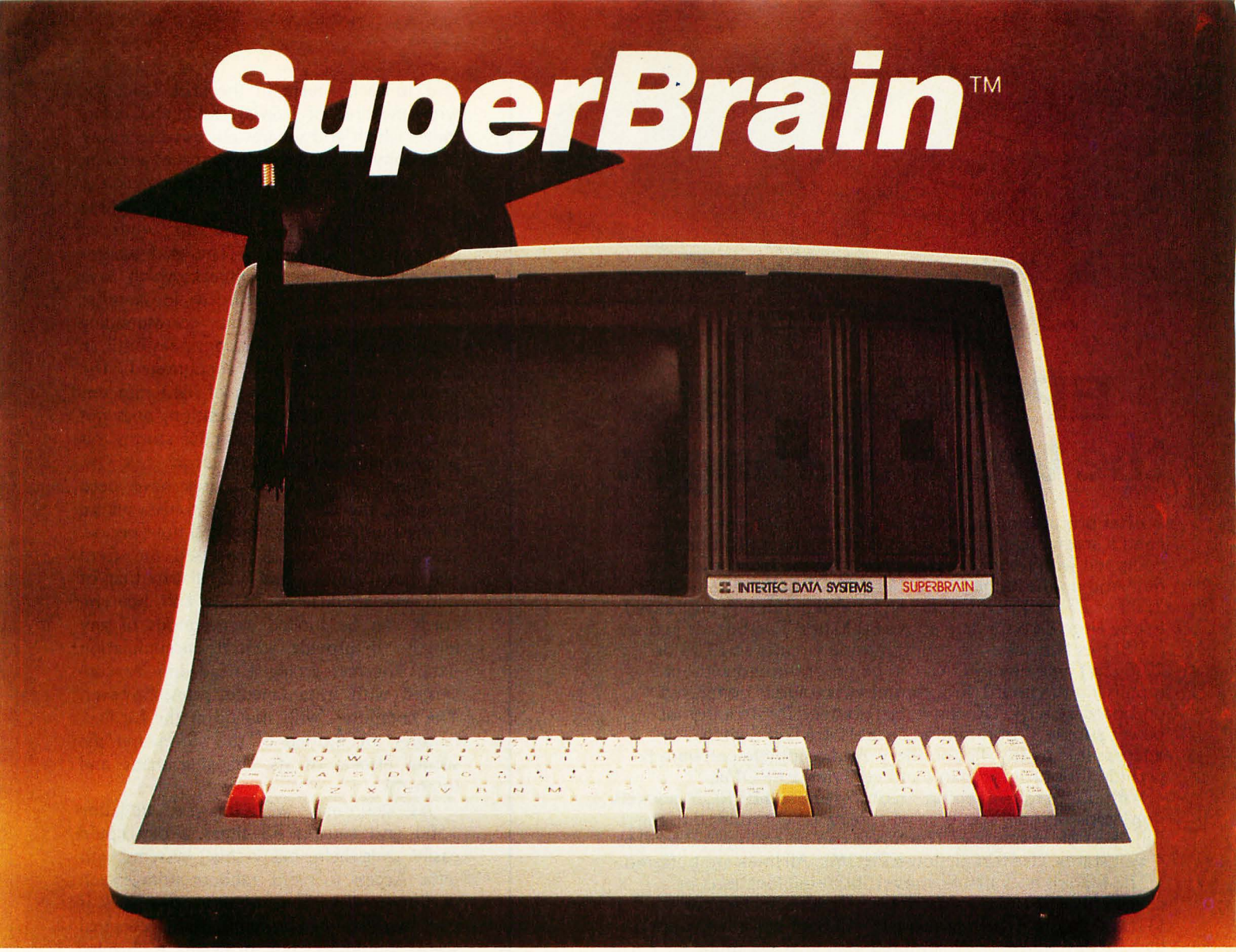

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rate to each square in the grid. It begins with the area of heaviest rain, and determines which grid squares are surrounded by that isohyet (eg: does the center of a square fall within the approximating polygon?). The heaviest rate is assigned to each of these squares. Beyond this area are bands of successively lighter rain. The grid squares surrounded by these isohyets, which have not already been included in another isohyet, are assigned the corresponding lighter rates. The process continues until an area of zero rainfall is encountered. The inverse situation, an area of light rain surrounded by heavier precipitation, does not occur in the sudden, convective storms this program was designed to monitor.

When all the grid squares have been assigned, the computer then holds a record of the rainfall during a one half hour period. When the next map is processed, the storm will have moved, and the distribution of rain will be different. These half hour records can be totaled over periods of any length to provide accurate accumulation data. The meteorologist need only be concerned with instantaneous rates, however. The computer, with the aid of the Bit Pad, handles the motion of the storm and the subtle effects of its changing shape and intensity.

As you may well imagine, updating 1500 grid squares 48 times a day could easily overwhelm many small systems with data. Access to rapid, random storage such as floppy disks is mandatory. The work is still within the capabilities of personal sized computers, but it begins to involve specific operating systems and algorithms which would be useful to only a few readers. The BASIC routines developed here, however, apply to any Bit Pad application. They demonstrate how easy it is to use the Summagraphics graphics tablet for data entry. In doing so, I hope this article has also shown that a microcomputer, when teamed with some novel peripherals, can be used to process data for a challenging meteorological application.■

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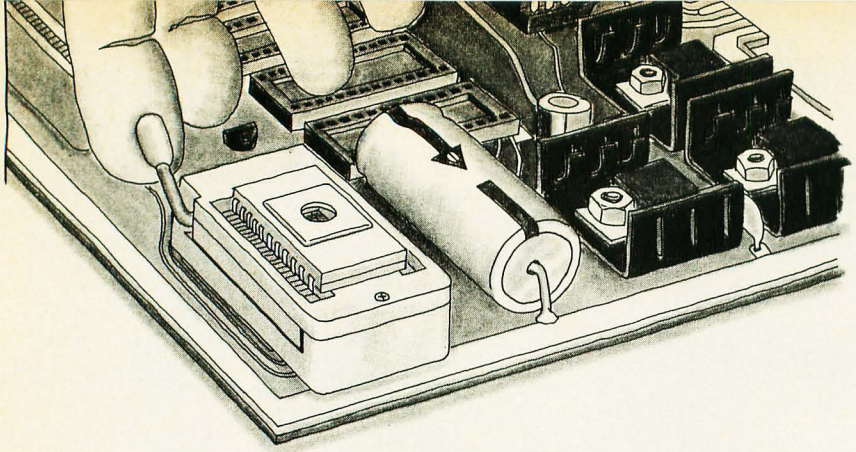

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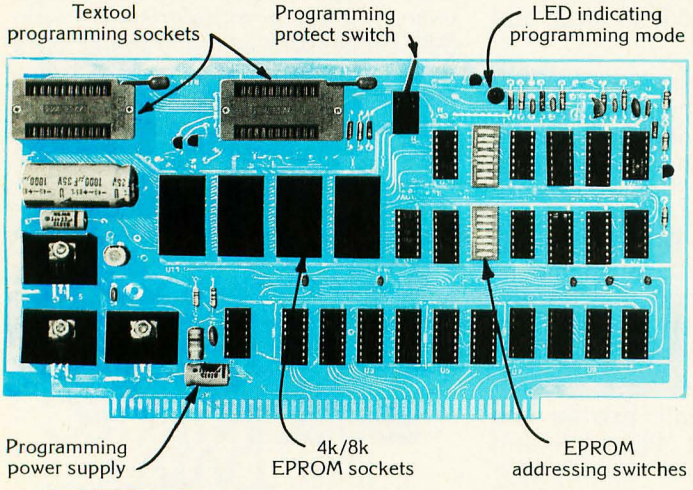

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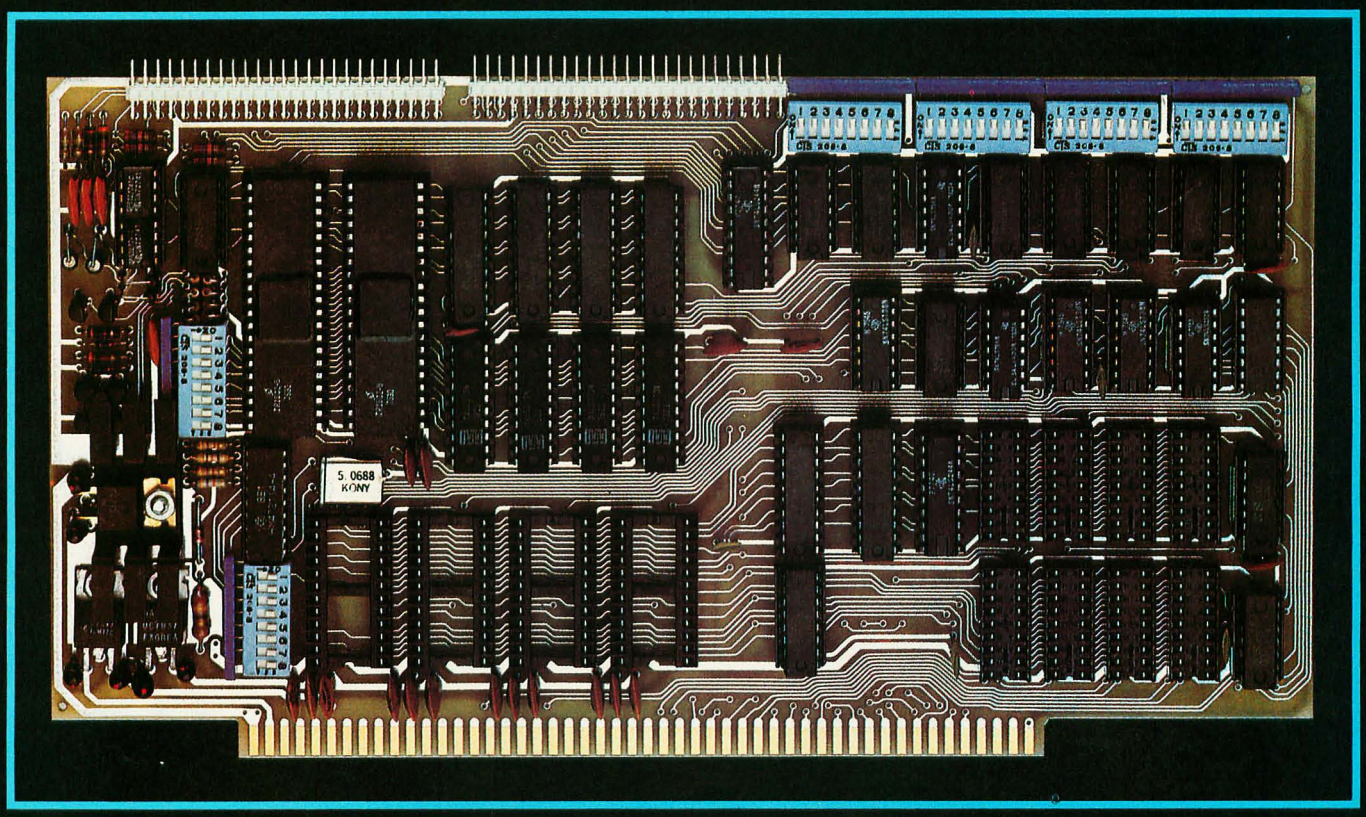

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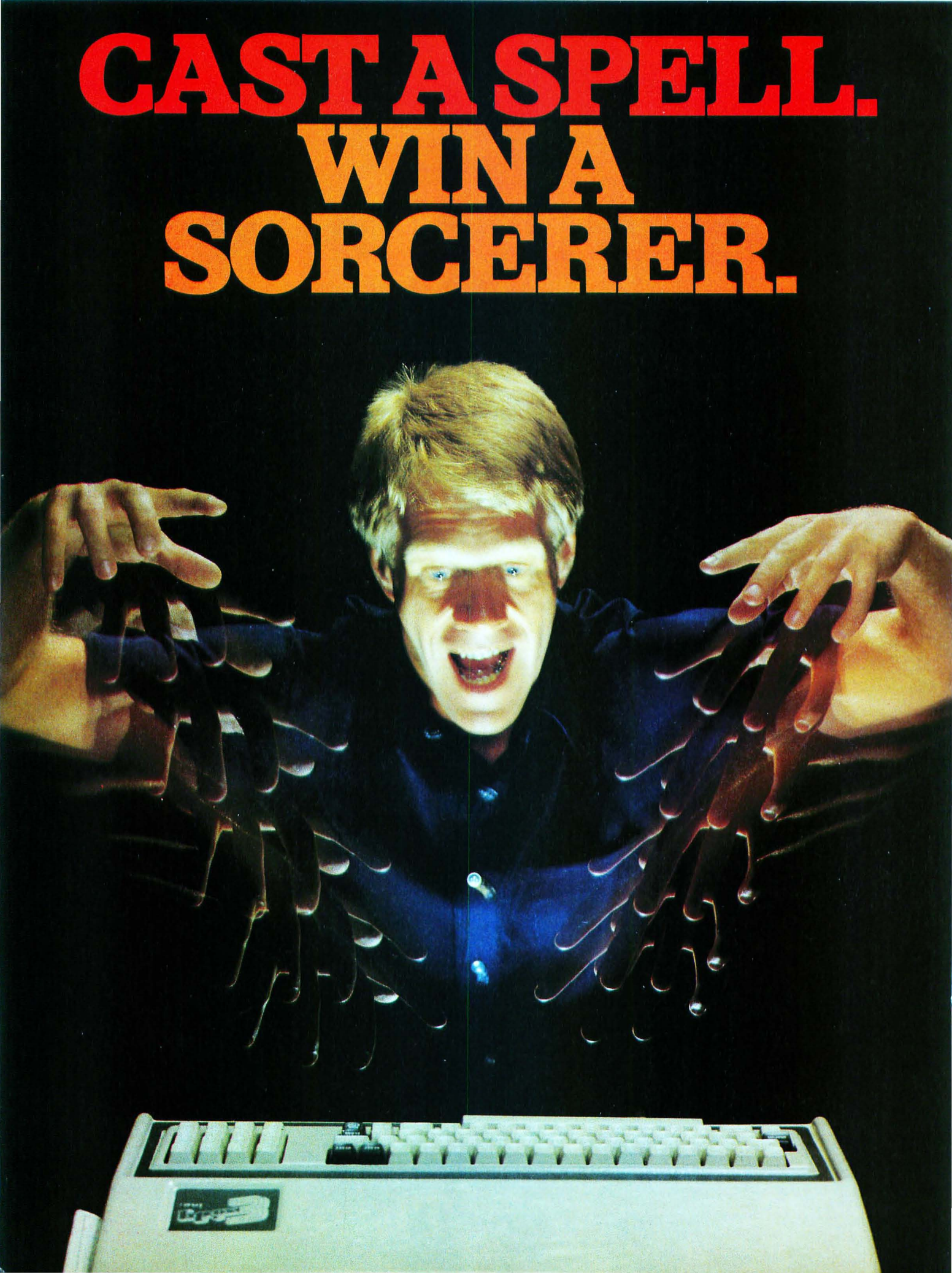

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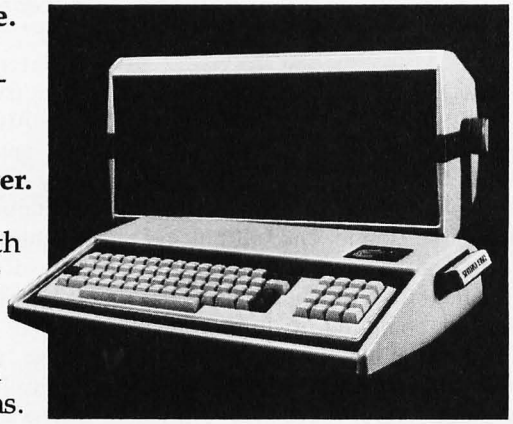

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Ciarcia's Circuit Cellar

Sound Off

Steve Ciarcia
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Creating music and sound effects with a microcomputer is an arduous task when the processor must directly synthesize each wave form. The usual technique employed is for the computer to calculate a mathematical model of a desired sound and output it through a digital to analog converter. In theory this is fine, but in practice it requires an extremely fast computer to form complex waves. For example, to synthesize a simple 8 kHz tone, the computer must generate an audio wave coordinate every 62 μs. Use of memory tables to replace some calculations can speed up the process, but the production of complex waveforms or higher frequencies would monopolize all of the processor's available time.

A second technique for sound synthesis is to use an analog approach. The computer can simulate an electronic organ by attaching separate tone generators to the computer which are turned on and off digitally. In *The Toy Store Begins at Home* ("Ciarcia's Circuit Cellar", April 1979 BYTE, page 10) four oscillators were attached and could be individually controlled through an output port. Although a tune with four notes isn't very appealing, it served a purpose, and easily demonstrated this alternative synthesis technique. Complex sounds, such as a musical chord, were created by simply turning three of the tone generators on simultaneously. Unfortunately, the preset frequencies allowed only one chord, and in order to change it the circuit would have to be physically altered.

The concept of the external oscillator is the important fact to point out because the production of the sound no longer presents critical real time operation to the computer. To further simplify this approach and reduce the necessity for N number of oscillators to produce N conceivable tones, we can design this external generator to be frequency programmable by controlling the timebase components. More on this later.

More often than not, the sounds we hear are not pure tones, but rather are complex combinations of frequencies that are sometimes mixed with noise. In many instances it is the characteristic presentation or amplitude variations rather than the frequency content which we recognize as the relevant quantity.

Photo 1 shows a steam engine. For the model railroading buffs out there, it is a Lionel Southern Crescent steam engine. The chug-chug sound we all associate with trains is nothing more than white noise which is modulated. The amplitude, or envelope, is pulsed on and off to produce the characteristic sounds of a steam locomotive. While, in theory, the computer can directly synthesize all of these sounds, the personal computing enthusiast might find it more rewarding to consider a hardware alternative.

Fortunately, Texas Instruments and General Instrument have come to the rescue with LSI (large scale integration) sound generator integrated circuits. These integrated circuits contain the basic elements of sound

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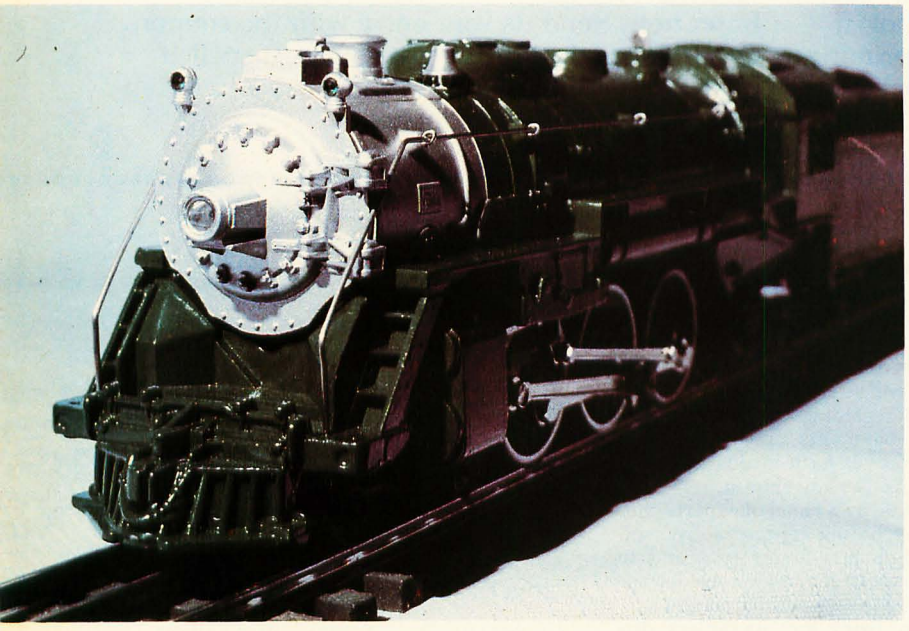
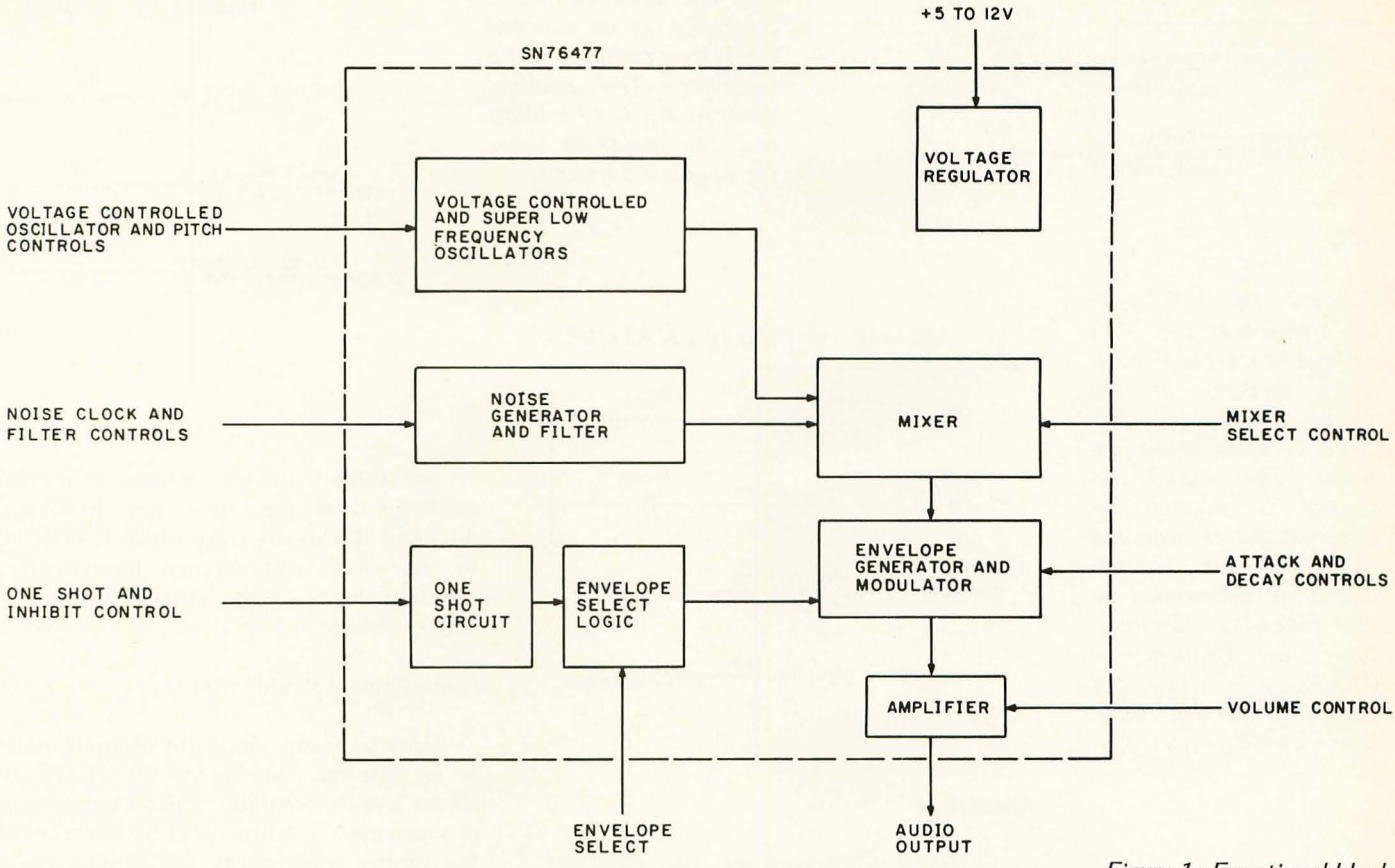


Photo 1: Sound effects for a Lionel Southern Crescent model steam engine is one use of a programmable sound generator device.



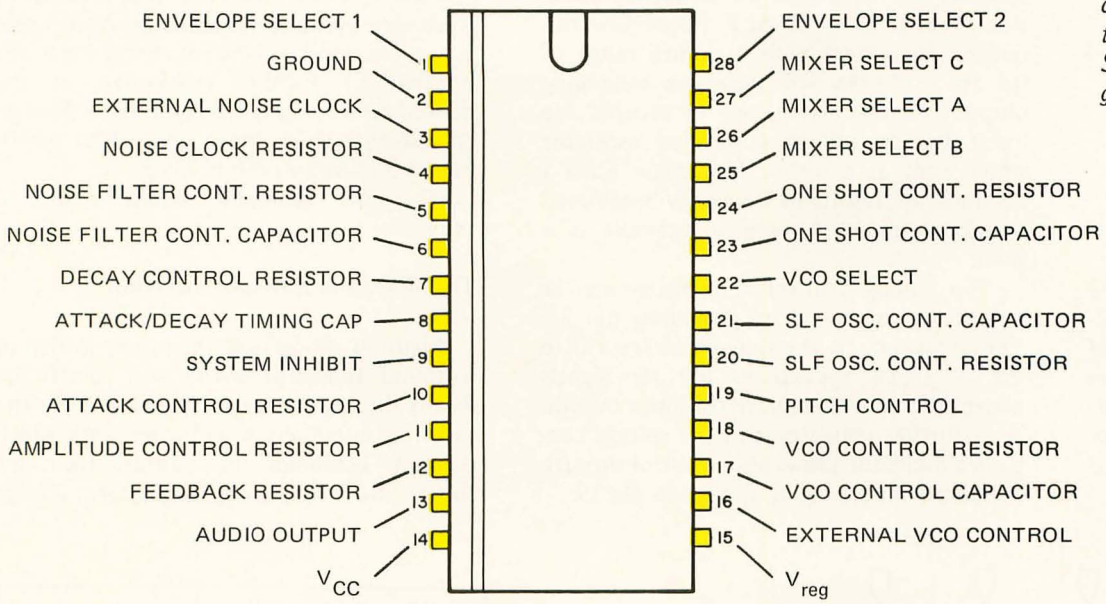


Figure 1: Functional block diagram and pin description of Texas Instruments SN76477 complex sound generator.

synthesis: VCO (voltage controlled oscillators), mixers, envelope generators, noise generators, etc. The Texas Instruments unit is specifically designed to be used independently with sound defined through component selection. The General Instrument unit is bus oriented and attaches to a microprocessor. Both produce sound, but their interfaces are quite different.

The SN76477 Complex Sound Generator

The SN76477 complex sound generator produces sounds by the value selection of externally attached resistors and capacitors. Internally, as shown in figure 1, the generator contains two voltage controlled oscillators, a noise generator, envelope generator and modulator, and mixers.

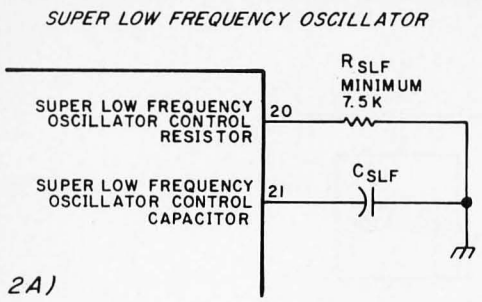
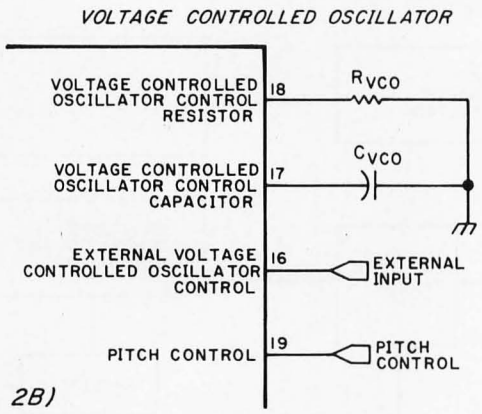


Figure 2: The SLF (super low frequency) and VCO (voltage controlled oscillator) sections of the Texas Instruments SN-76477 complex sound generator. The desired frequency is selected by adjusting the resistor and capacitor circuits. The frequency is determined by the following formulas: super low frequency = $0.64/R_{SLF} \times C_{SLF}$ and voltage controlled oscillator = $0.64/R_{VCO} \times C_{VCO}$.

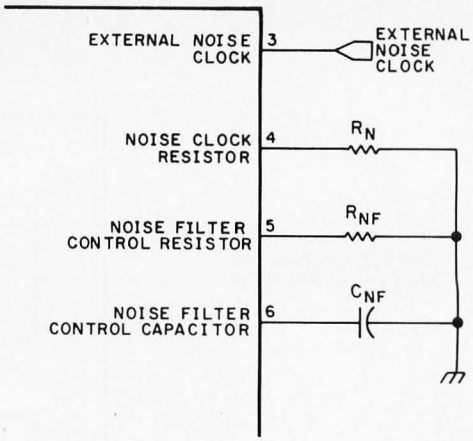


Oscillators

Figure 2 illustrates the two oscillator sections and equations for frequency selection. Figure 2a is an SLF (super low frequency generator) with a normal range of 0.1 Hz to 30 Hz. This super low frequency output is most often used to provide the input to the voltage controlled oscillator which runs at a higher frequency. Such a combination results in frequency modulated sound synthesis. A familiar example is a siren.

The voltage controlled oscillator can be externally controlled by grounding pin 22. The frequency is then governed by a 0 to 2.35 V signal applied to pin 16. Signals above 2.35 V will saturate oscillator output. As a further enhancement, the voltage controlled oscillator allows pitch control through a similarly ranged signal applied to pin 19.

Figure 3: The noise generator and filter section is composed of an external clock, two resistors, and a capacitor. The nominal value of R_N is 47 k ohms and the minimum value for R_{NF} is 7.5 k ohms.



The output of the voltage controlled oscillator and the super low frequency oscillator is a square wave which is supplied to the mixer and through the envelope selection logic to the envelope generator and modulator.

Noise Generator and Filter

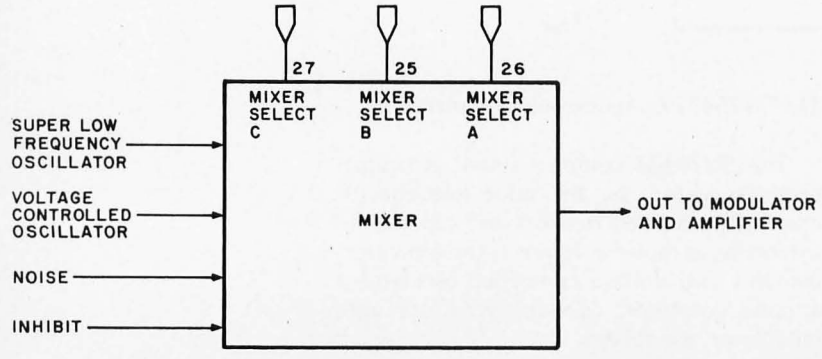
Since so many sounds incorporate noise as an integral component, the 76477 includes a noise generator which can be set to produce pink or white noise by selection of the proper components. (Pink noise has a spectral intensity inversely proportional to frequency over a specified range. White noise is random and has constant energy for a unit bandwidth.) Further refinement of the desired noise range is accommodated through an external clock input applied to pin 3. Figure 3 illustrates this hookup.

The noise generator output is sent to the mixer.

The Mixer and Envelope Selection

Figure 4 shows how the mixer section of a sound generator works and specifically details the logic codes for the SN76477. The mixer is essentially a gating network which digitally combines the outputs from the super low frequency oscillator, voltage

Figure 4: Outputs of the super low frequency oscillator, voltage controlled oscillator, and noise generator are digitally selected. The control table indicates the output produced for any particular input.



Mixer Select Inputs			Mixer Output
C (Pin 27)	B (Pin 25)	A (Pin 26)	
L	L	L	VCO
L	L	H	SLF
L	H	L	NOISE
L	H	H	VCO/NOISE
H	L	L	SLF/NOISE
H	L	H	SLF/VCO/NOISE
H	H	L	SLF/VCO
H	H	H	INHIBIT

H = high level
L = low level or open

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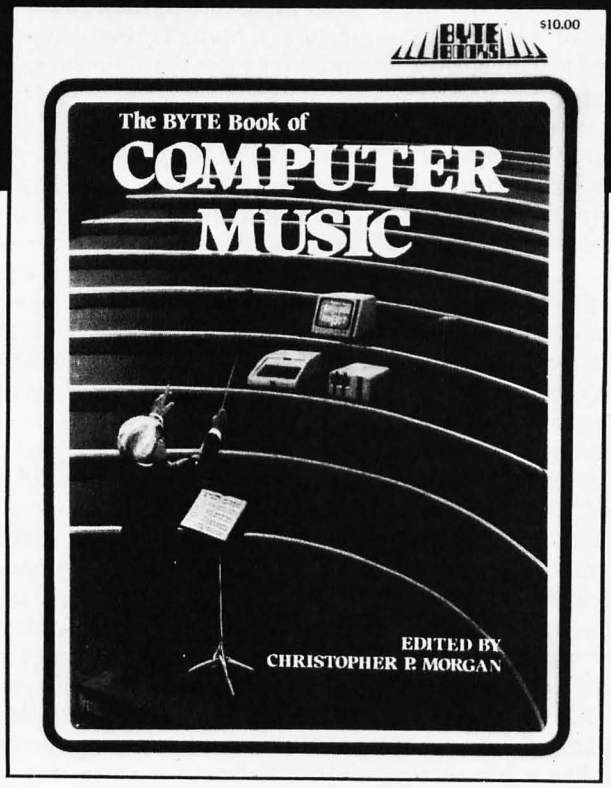

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controlled oscillator, and noise generator through a 3 bit code applied to pins 25, 26, and 27. An additional inhibit state is added to shut off operation of the mixer when desired.

The individual outputs of the voltage controlled oscillator, super low frequency oscillator and noise generator are selected with codes of 000, 001, and 010 respectively, as shown in the chart accompanying figure 4. The true value of this device is demonstrated when complex sounds are produced by combining these three sources and utilizing the inhibit for emphasis.

Figure 5a shows how the voltage controlled oscillator can be modulated by the super low frequency oscillator. As mentioned, an example of this is a siren. If, on the other hand, the super low frequency oscillator were programmed as in figure 5b, and mixed with the noise generator, the mixer output would sound like the steam engine we previously discussed. For faster on/off pulsing of the noise generator, the voltage controlled oscillator could be selected, and would appear as in figure 5c.

The inhibit line, rather than being an actual sound source, controls the duration of the other three sections. The internal one shot, triggering a 100 ms burst of noise to a loud amplifier, will sound like a gun shot. This is detailed in figure 5d.

The combined mixer output then goes to the envelope generator and modulator where the amplitude (volume) of the output signal is tailored through proper attack and decay timing so that it will synthesize actual sounds accurately. A piano is most easily characterized by its sharp attack and very long decay. Figure 6 outlines the component calculations for these timed functions.

Manual Sound Synthesizer

The SN76477 is essentially an independent sound generator. This means that with a few discrete components it can independently synthesize the sound of sirens, phasers, guns, etc. A computer is not required to program this device and, in fact, with the exception of the envelope, mixer and inhibit selection inputs, it is not directly controllable with a microprocessor. An example of a typical hardwired circuit using the SN76477 is shown in figure 7. This circuit simulates the sound of a steam engine and a whistle. The timing components were selected by using the equations outlined in figures 2 thru 6. This circuit produces two sounds by multiplexing the mixer between the voltage controlled oscillator frequency and the super low noise outputs. Normally, with the push button open the super low frequency oscillator pulses the noise generator on and off, producing a chug-chug sound. When the button is pushed, oscillator IC2 multiplexes the integrated circuit to the voltage

Text continued on page 42

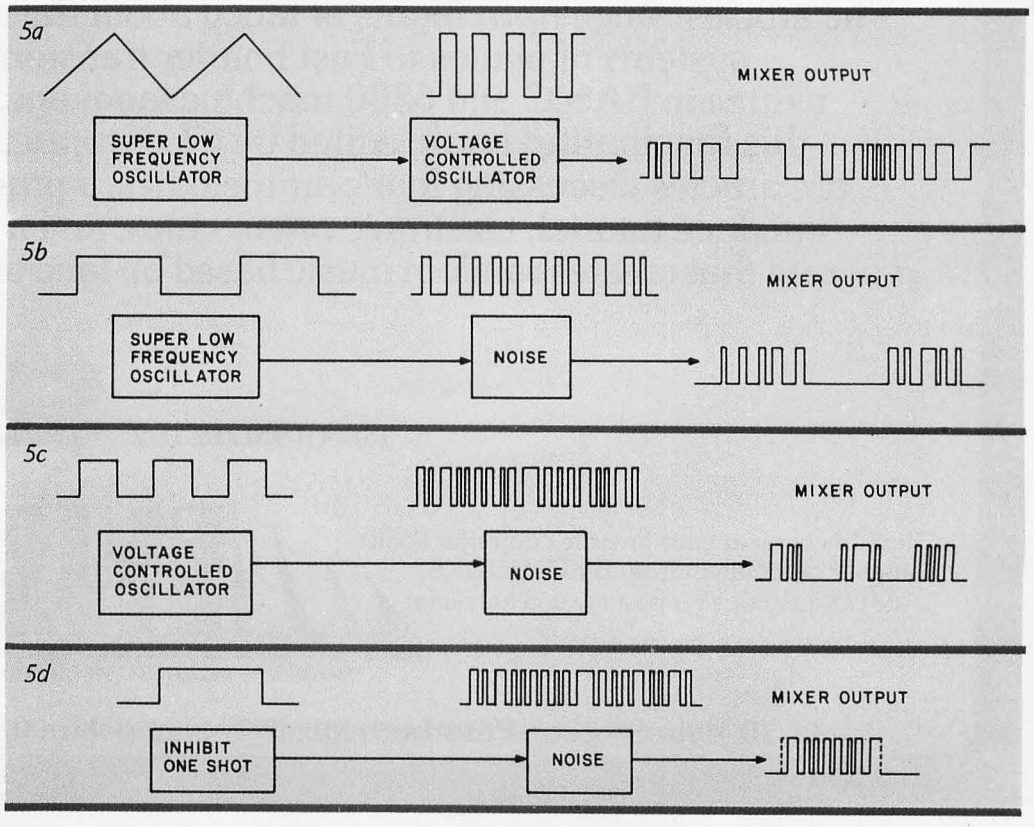
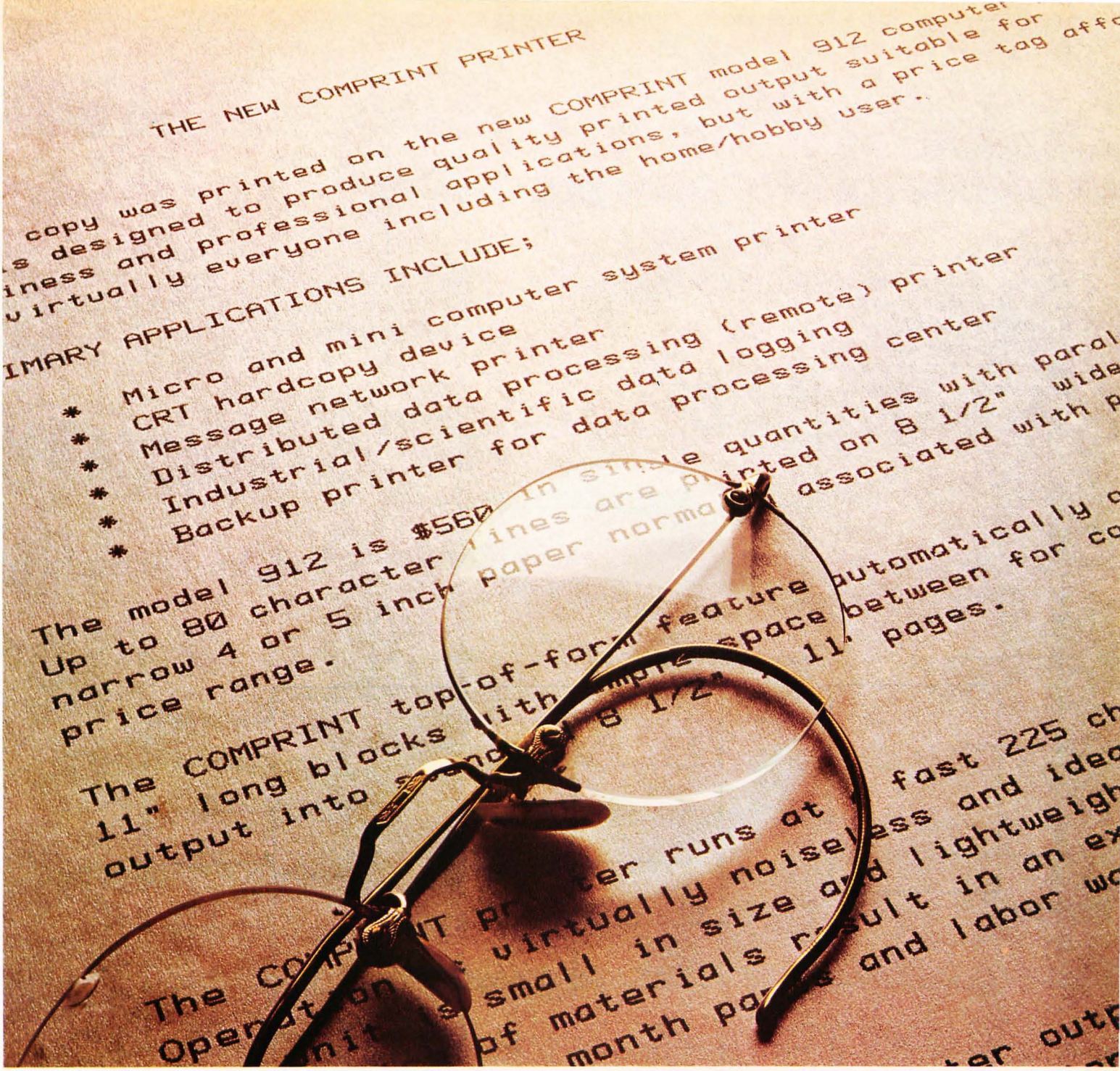


Figure 5: By carefully choosing what signals are combined, a variety of different types of sounds can be produced. Figure 5a shows a combination of the super low frequency generator and the voltage controlled oscillator producing a sound such as a siren. Figure 5b combines the super low frequency oscillator and the noise generator to generate a sound such as a steam engine. In figure 5c, the voltage controlled oscillator and noise generator are mixed together to form a faster on and off pulsing than produced using the super low frequency generator. When the inhibit one shot is mixed with noise (figure 5d) the resulting sound would sound like a gun being fired.



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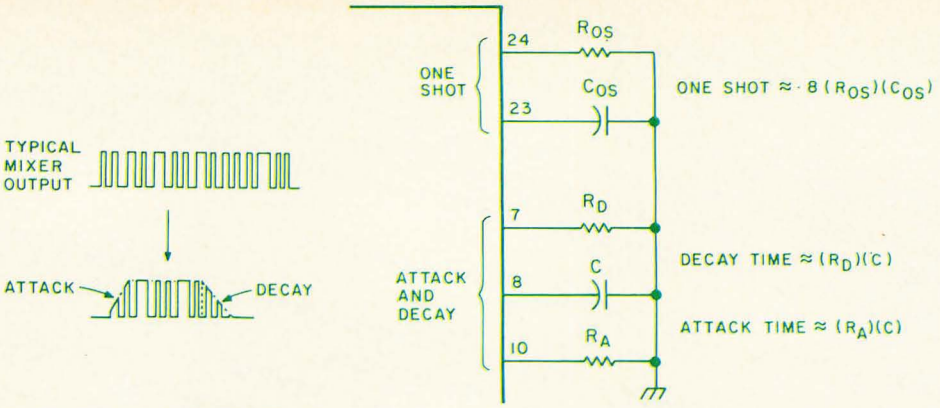
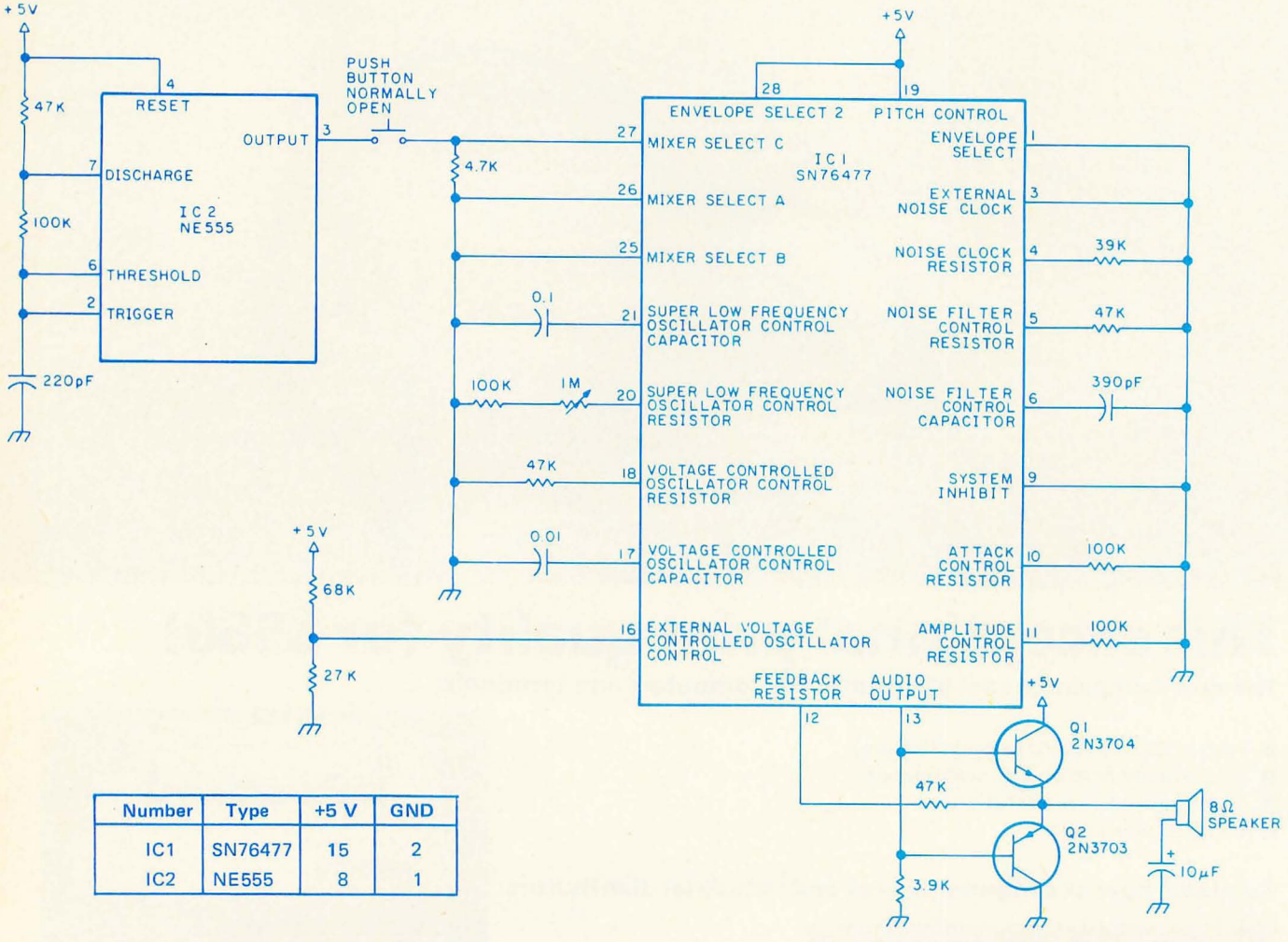


Figure 6: The envelope selection (table) is determined by envelope select 1 and envelope select 2 (pins 1 and 28) as shown in the table. The attack and decay timing is determined by R_{OS}, C_{OS}, R_D, C, and R_A.

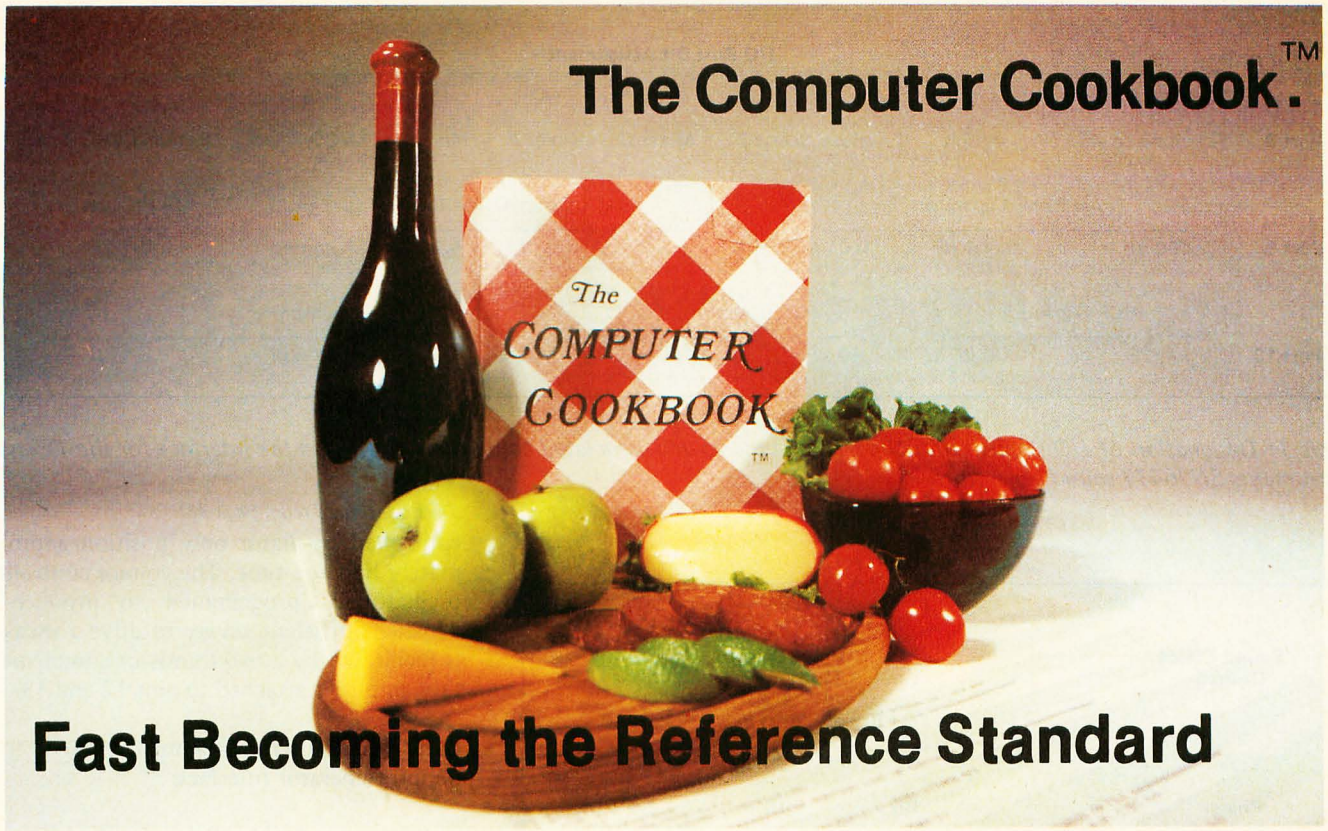
Envelope Select		
1 (Pin 1)	2 (Pin 28)	Function Selected
L	L	VCO
L	H	Mixer only
H	L	One shot
H	H	VCO with alternating cycles

H = high level
L = low level or open



Number	Type	+5 V	GND
IC1	SN76477	15	2
IC2	NE555	8	1

Figure 7: The Texas Instruments SN76477 is often used in a hardwired, dedicated device. One such use is simulated steam engine and whistle sound as shown here.



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I/O Port Bit Assignment

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Port 8	Envelope Select 1	Inhibit	Envelope Select 2	Mixer C	Mixer A	Mixer B	VCO Select	External VCO Select
Port 9	Noise Filter Capacitor: 150 pF	0.001 μF	0.01 μF	Attack/Decay Capacitor: 0.1 μF	1.0 μF	4.7 μF	unused	SLF Capacitor: 0.1 μF
Port 10	SLF Capacitor: 0.47 μF	1.0 μF	VCO Resistor: 10 kΩ	100 kΩ	1 MΩ	VCO Capacitor: 0.005 μF	0.05 μF	0.47 μF

Table 1: Designation of I/O (input/output) port assignments and associated component choices in the interface for the Texas Instruments SN76477 sound generator.

Sound Effect Desired	Hexadecimal Value Sent to Output Port		
	Port 8	Port 9	Port 10
Train	32	80	80
Phaser	B6	10	54
Siren	82	00	62

Table 2: Values which are sent to the output ports connected to the SN-76477 interface to produce the indicated sound effects.

Photo 2: A typical video based space exploration game could be enhanced by sound effects.

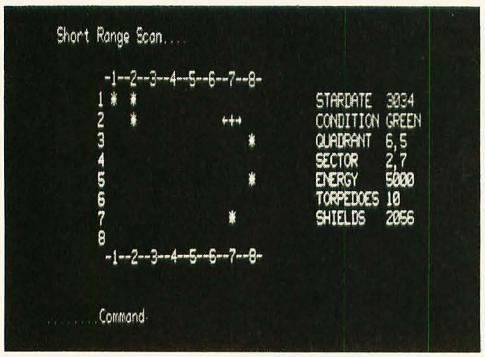
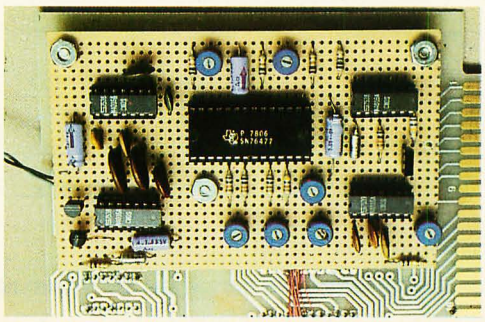


Photo 3: A look at the prototype circuit of figure 7 attached to the back of an I/O (input/output) board.



Text continued from page 38:

controlled oscillator only position approximately half the time. The voltage controlled oscillator is programmed to produce a whistle. Sufficient power to drive a speaker is facilitated by a two transistor complementary amplifier attached to pins 12 and 13.

Build a Computer Programmable Sound Generator Interface

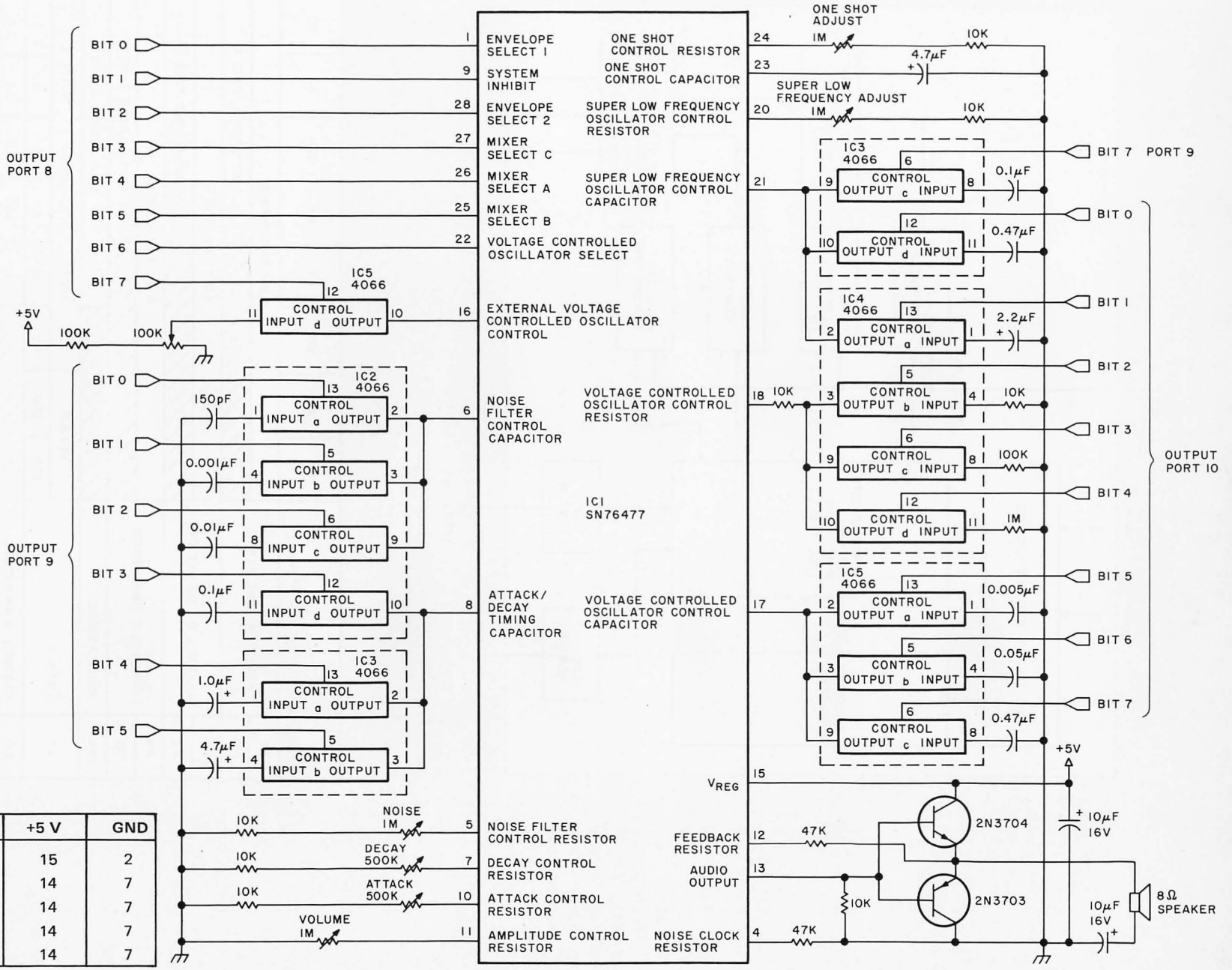
While the SN76477 is not directly controllable by a computer as it exists, an interface between it and a computer can be designed which will give it some semblance of programmability. Figure 8 illustrates such an interface. Sound generation is programmed through three output ports, two of which control CMOS analog switches. These switches allow a variety of resistor and capacitor combinations to be selected. Total control requires three output commands from a BASIC or machine language program, and it is very easy to switch from a siren to a phaser gun sound when implemented as game sound effects. Photo 2 shows the video display of a typical spacewar game. Consider the sophistication that sound effects would add.

In the prototype, shown in photo 3, ports 8, 9, and 10 were chosen to drive the interface. Port 8 handles mixer and envelope selection; port 9 controls selection of components for the attack, decay and noise sections; and port 10 controls the SLF and VCO programming. The values chosen are nominal and will not allow unlimited sound synthesis. Potentiometers are added to facilitate fine tuning.

A More Sophisticated Programmable Sound Generator

The SN76477 is attached to a microcomputer largely through brute force. A far more sophisticated device has been

Text continued on page 45



Number	Type	+5 V	GND
IC1	SN76477	15	2
IC2	4066	14	7
IC3	4066	14	7
IC4	4066	14	7
IC5	4066	14	7

Figure 8: The SN76477 complete sound generator can be controlled by a computer. All capacitors are 100 V ceramic, except electrolytics which are 16 V or greater. All resistors are ¼W ±5%.

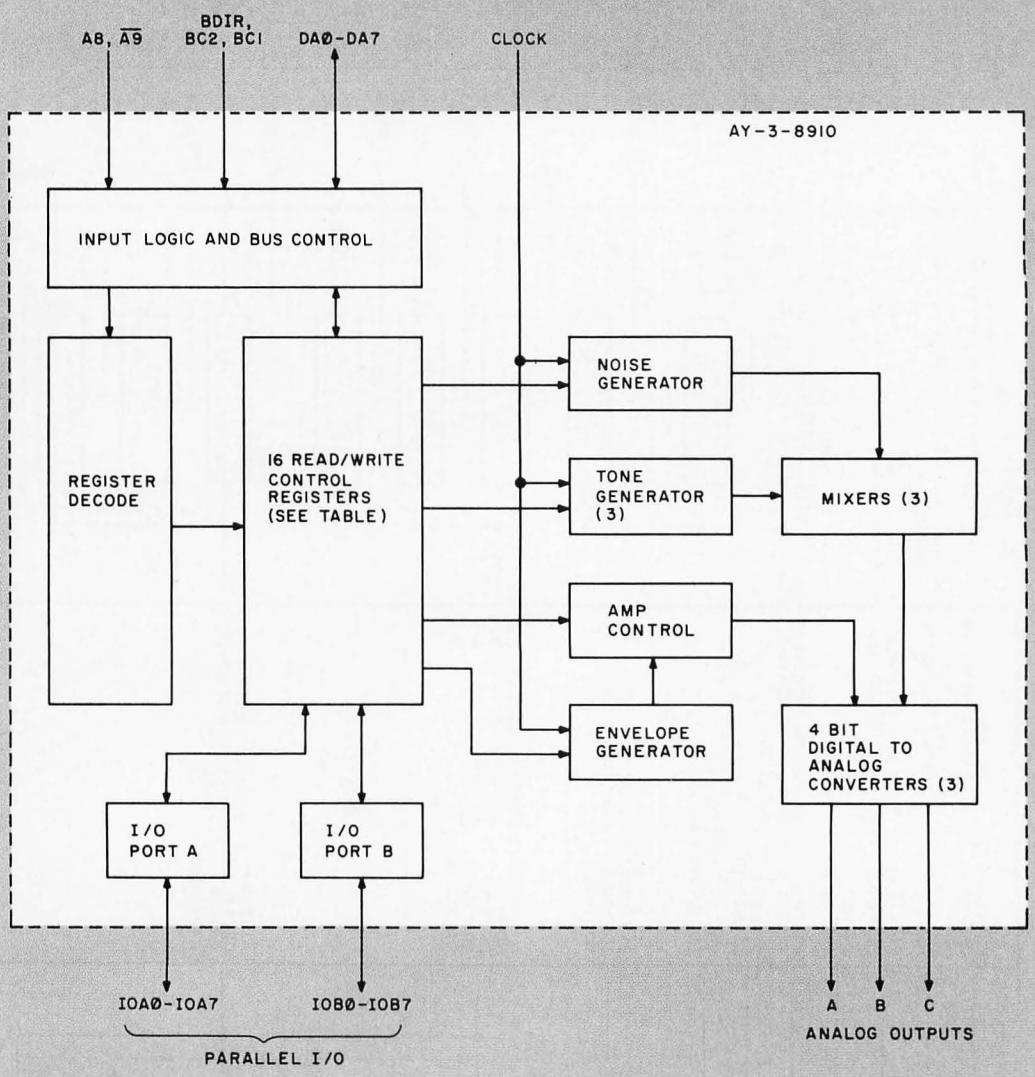
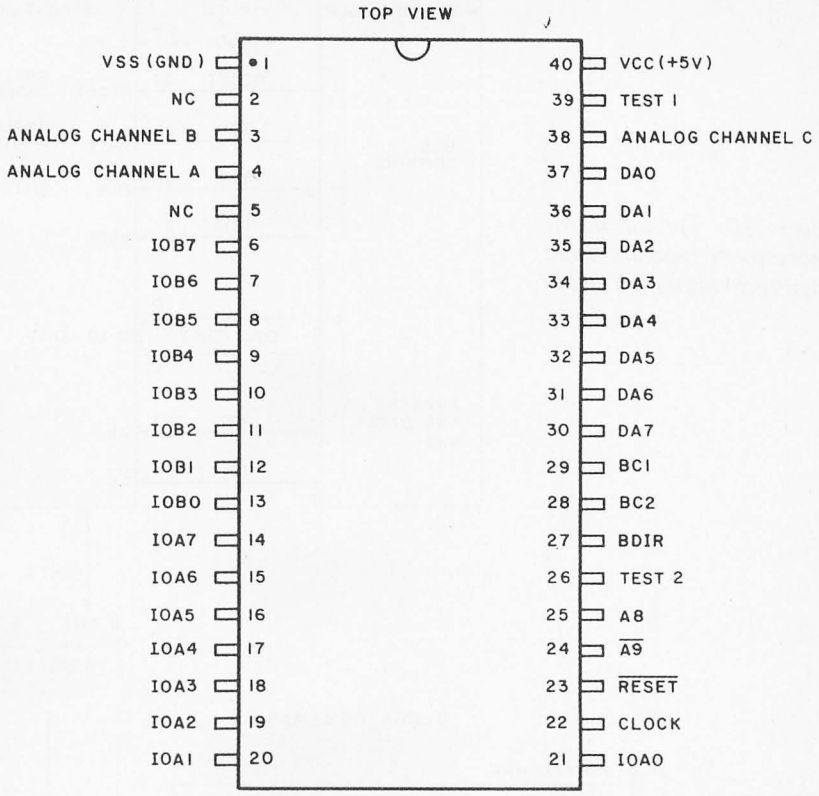


Figure 9a: Functional block diagram of the General Instrument AY-3-8910 programmable sound generator. The device is made by General Instrument Corp, Microelectronics Division, 600 W John St, Hicksville NY 11802.

REGISTER \ BIT		B7	B6	B5	B4	B3	B2	B1	B0
R0	CHANNEL A TONE PERIOD	8 BIT FINE TUNE A							
R1						4 BIT COARSE TUNE A			
R2	CHANNEL B TONE PERIOD	8 BIT FINE TUNE B							
R3						4 BIT COARSE TUNE B			
R4	CHANNEL C TONE PERIOD	8 BIT FINE TUNE C							
R5						4 BIT COARSE TUNE C			
R6	NOISE PERIOD				5 BIT PERIOD CONTROL				
R7	$\overline{\text{ENABLE}}$	$\overline{\text{IN}}$/OUT		$\overline{\text{NOISE}}$			$\overline{\text{TONE}}$		
		IOB	IOA	C	B	A	C	B	A
R10	CHANNEL A AMPLITUDE				M	L3	L2	L1	L0
R11	CHANNEL B AMPLITUDE				M	L3	L2	L1	L0
R12	CHANNEL C AMPLITUDE				M	L3	L2	L1	L0
R13	ENVELOPE PERIOD	8 BIT FINE TUNE E							
R14		8 BIT COARSE TUNE E							
R15	ENVELOPE SHAPE/CYCLE					CONT	ATT	ALT	HOLD
R16	I/O PORT A DATA STORE	8 BIT PARALLEL I/O ON PORT A							
R17	I/O PORT B DATA STORE	8 BIT PARALLEL I/O PORT B							

Figure 9b: Map of the control registers of the AY-3-8910.

Figure 9c: Pin designations of the AY-3-8910 device.



Text continued from page 42:

recently introduced and it is designed specifically as a bus controlled device. This new device is the AY-3-8910 from General Instrument. It uses no external components and synthesizes sounds totally by digital means. A functional block diagram is shown in figure 9a.

You'll notice a similarity between this programmable sound generator and the Texas Instruments device in that they both contain the same elemental sound synthesis components such as noise and tone generators. The real difference is that the General Instrument programmable sound generator is programmed through 16 read/write control registers rather than resistors and capacitors. These registers appear as 16 sequential memory mapped I/O (input/output) locations to the controlling processor.

The AY-3-8910 incorporates a noise generator, three tone generators, three mixers, an envelope generator and three digital to analog converters for amplitude control. An added benefit is the inclusion of two decoded I/O ports which are available for other external applications. All subsystems are controlled through the control register array.

The device is specifically designed to interface with the General Instrument CP1600 series of microprocessors but it can be easily accommodated by others. Figure 10 illustrates this simple attachment. A bidirectional address/data bus, DA0 thru DA7, provides the necessary communication path. Since there are 16 registers, only four bits of address are actually used, and A8 and $\overline{A9}$ serve more as device select lines by definition. BC1, BC2, and BDIR are the bus control lines and define bus direction, reading, and writing of register data. While an inexpensive circuit such as that shown in figure 11 can be used as the clock for both the processor and the programmable sound generator, they are basically independent and can be different rates. The programmable sound generator clock is primarily used for the sound synthesis. The reset line clears all registers.

For all practical purposes, signal line BC2 is unnecessary and can be tied to +5 V. The read/write control logic is shown in table 4.

The timing of BC1 and BDIR control lines are shown in figure 12. Data transfer is carried out by strobing these lines, while the

Text continued on page 48

Whistling Bomb Sound Effect

Register Number	Hexadecimal Load Value	Explanation
Any not specified	00	
R7	3E	Enable tone only on channel A only.
R10	0F	Select maximum amplitude on channel A.
R0	30 (start)	Sweep effect for channel A tone period via a processor loop with approximately 25 ms wait time between each step from 30 to C0 (0.429 ms/2330 Hz to 1.72 ms/582 Hz).
R0	C0 (end)	
R6	0F	Set noise period to midvalue.
R7	07	Enable noise only on channels A,B,C.
R10	10	Select full amplitude range under direct control of envelope generator.
R11	10	
R12	10	
R14	10	Set envelope period to 0.586 seconds.
R15	00	Select envelope decay, one cycle only.

Phaser Sound Effect

Register Number	Hexadecimal Load Value	Explanation
Any not specified	00	
R7	3E	Enable tone only on channel A only.
R10	0F	Select maximum amplitude on channel A.
R0	30 (start)	Sweep effect for channel A tone period via a processor loop with approximately 3 ms wait time between each step from 30 to 70 (0.429 ms/2330 Hz to 1.0 ms/1000 Hz).
R0	70 (end)	
R10	00	Turn off channel A to end sound effect.

Table 3: Values which are loaded into the control registers of the General Instrument AY-3-8910 sound generator in order to produce the indicated sound effects.

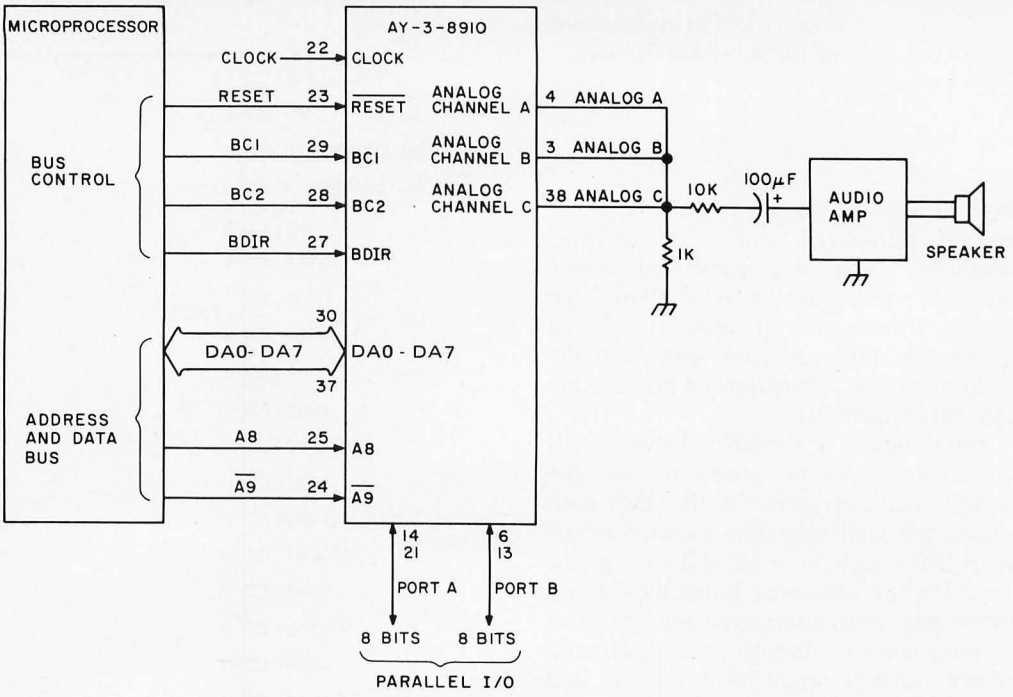


Figure 10: Typical microprocessor to programmable sound generator interface.

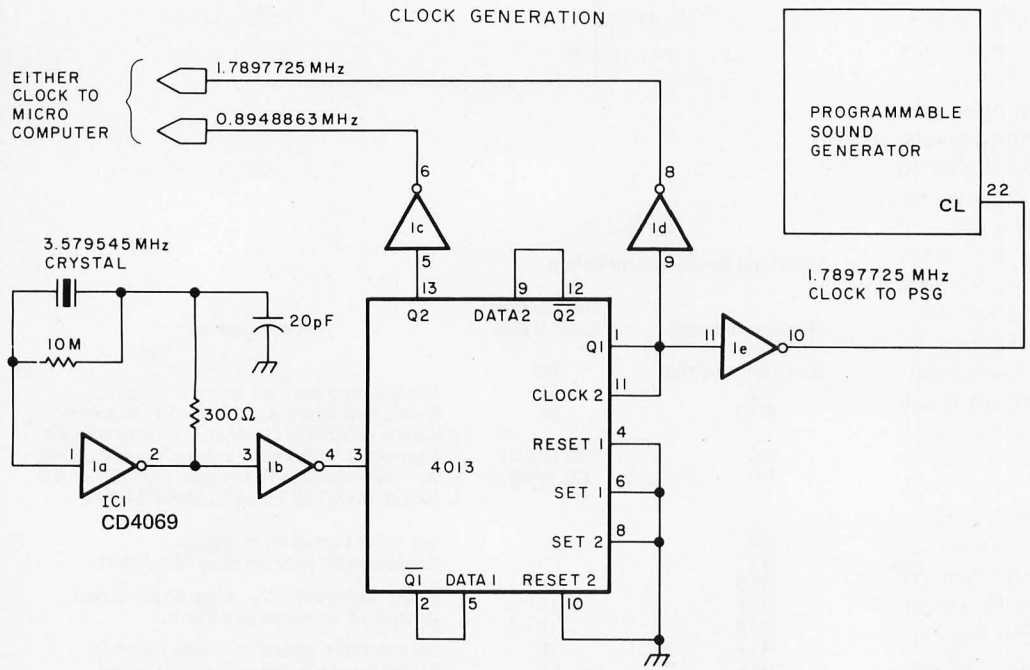
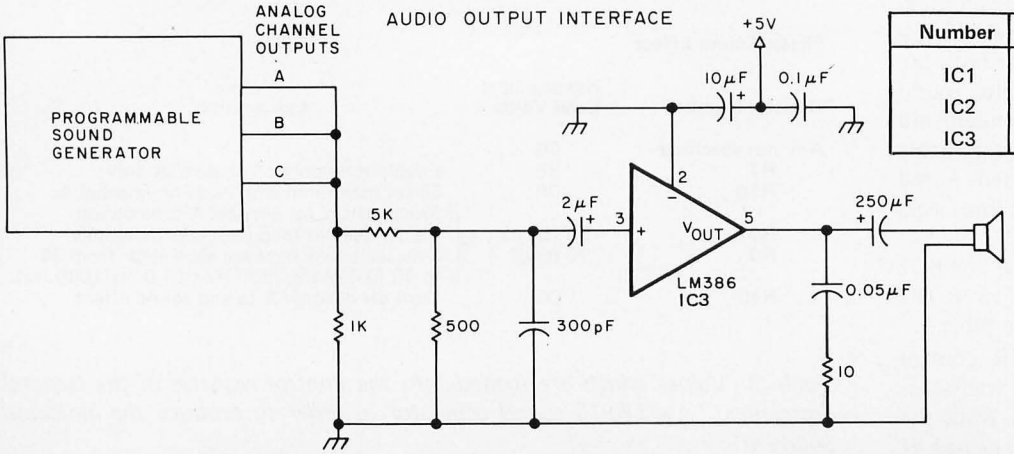


Figure 11a: A simple clock generator which can be used as a clock for the processor and the programmable sound generator.



Number	Type	+5 V	GND
IC1	CD4069	14	7
IC2	4013	14	7
IC3	LM386	6	4

Figure 11b: A typical audio output interface for driving a speaker from the programmable sound generator.

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BDIR	BC2	BC1	Function	CP1600 Function Abbreviation
0	1	0	Inactive	NACT
0	1	1	Read from PSG	DTB
1	1	0	Write to PSG	DWS
1	1	1	Latch Address	INTAK

Table 4: Summary of the read/write control logic needed to control the AY-3-8910 sound generator.

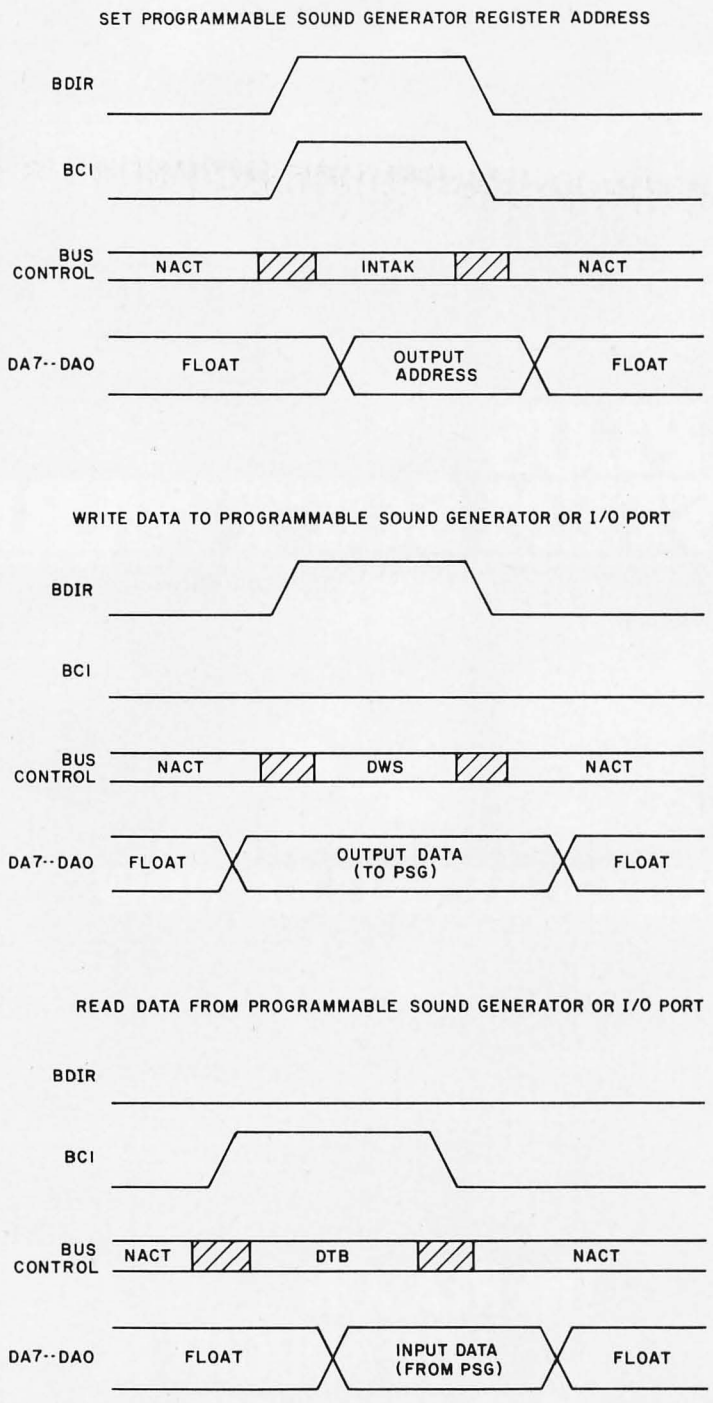

Figure 12: Programmable sound generator bus timing logic.

Text continued from page 45:

address/data bus contains the pertinent contents. These pulses should be short and one processor clock cycle should suffice.

Tone Select

The registers are divided into six categories, and numbered in base eight:

Tone generators	R_0 thru R_5
Noise generator	R_6
Mixer control	R_7
Amplitude control	R_{10} thru R_{12}
Envelope control	R_{13} thru R_{15}
I/O ports	R_{16} and R_{17}.

Tones are square waves produced by dividing the input clock by 16, then counting that result down by a programmed 12 bit tone-period value. The 12 bit value, defined by the coarse and fine tune registers, is a combination of the two control registers. The 12 bits represent period and T = 1/frequency. The higher the register value, the lower the tone. Register contents range from 000000000001 (divide by 1) to 111111111111 (divide by 4095). With a 2 MHz clock the frequencies would be 125 kHz and 30.5 Hz respectively.

The other parameters, such as noise, mixers, amplitude, and envelope controls, are chosen in a similar manner. The actual programming technique is beyond the scope of this introduction to the AY-3-8910, and I suggest that interested readers send inquiries to General Instrument.

Connecting the AY-3-8910 to the S-100 Bus

Figure 13 shows how an AY-3-8910 programmable sound generator can be connected as an I/O device on the S-100 8080 compatible bus. Switches SW1 through SW6 define the starting I/O address of the 16 programmable sound generator registers.

Text continued on page 51

Number	Type	+5 V	GND
IC1	7485	16	8
IC2	7485	16	8
IC3	7404	14	7
IC4	7402	14	7
IC5	7400	14	7
IC6	7400	14	7
IC7	74148	16	8
IC8	74LS367	16	8
IC9	74LS367	16	8
IC10	74LS367	16	8
IC11	74LS367	16	8
IC12	AY-3-8910	40	1

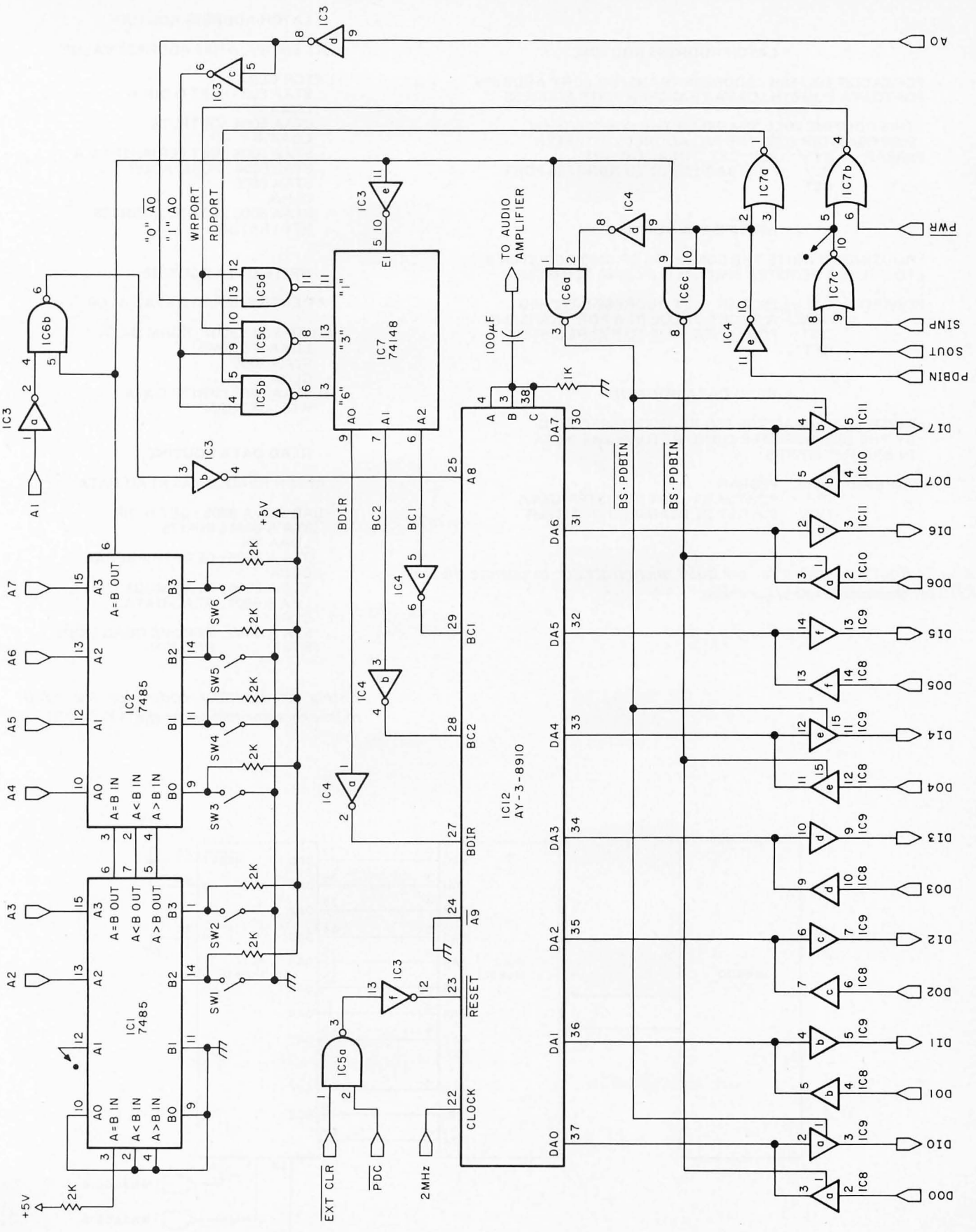

Figure 13: The AY-3-8910 can be connected to the S-100 bus. SW1 thru SW6 define the starting address of the 16 control registers. The power pin assignment is shown in the table at left.

```
                    LATCH ADDRESS ROUTINE

PORTADDR EQU 80H ; ADDRESS TRANSFER PORT ADDRESS
PORTDATA EQU 81H ; DATA TRANSFER PORT ADDRESS

; THIS ROUTINE WILL TRANSFER THE CONTENTS OF
; 8080 REGISTER C TO THE PSG ADDRESS REGISTER
PSGBAR    MOV   A,C ; GET C IN A FOR OUT
          OUT   PORTBAR ; SEND TO ADDRESS PORT
          RET

                    WRITE DATA ROUTINE

; ROUTINE TO WRITE THE CONTENTS OF 8080 REGISTER B
; TO THE PSG REGISTER SPECIFIED BY 8080 REGISTER C
;
PSGWRITE  CALL  PSGBAR ; GET ADDRESS LATCHED
          MOV   A,B ; GET VALUE IN A FOR TRANSFER
          OUT   PORTDATA ; PUT TO PSG REGISTER
          RET

                    READ DATA ROUTINE

; ROUTINE TO READ THE PSG REGISTER SPECIFIED
; BY THE 8080 REGISTER C AND RETURN THE DATA
; IN 8080 REGISTER B
;
PSGREAD   CALL  PSGBAR
          IN    PORTDATA ; GET REGISTER DATA
          MOV   B,A GET IN TRANSFER REGISTER
          RET
```

Listing 1: Routines written for the 8080 microprocessor to operate the AY-3-8910 programmable sound generator.

```
                    LATCH ADDRESS ROUTINE

; AT ENTRY, B HAS ADDRESS VALUE
;
LATCH CLRA
      STAA 8005 ; GET D DIR A
      LDAA #FF
      STAA 8004 ; OUTPUTS
      LDAA #4
      STAA 8005 ; GET PERIPHERAL A
      STAB 8004 ; FORM ADDR
      STAA 8006
      CLRA
      STAA 8006 ; LATCH ADDRESS
      RTS ; RETURN

                    WRITE DATA ROUTINE

; AT ENTRY, B HAD DATA VALUE
;
WRITE STAB 8004 ; FORM DATA
      LDAA #6 ; DWS
      STAA 8006
      CLRA
      STAA 8006 ; WRITE DATA
      RTS ; RETURN

                    READ DATA ROUTINE

; AFTER READ, B HAS READ DATA
;
READ STA A 8005 ; GET D DIR
      STA A 8004 ; INPUTS
      LDAA #4
      STA A 8005 ; GET PERIPHERAL
      DECA
      STA A 8006 ; READ MODE
      LDA B 8004 ; READ DATA
      CLRA
      STA A 8006 ; REMOVE READ MODE
      RTS        ; RETURN
```

Listing 2: Routines coded for the 6800 microprocessor to operate the AY-3-8910.

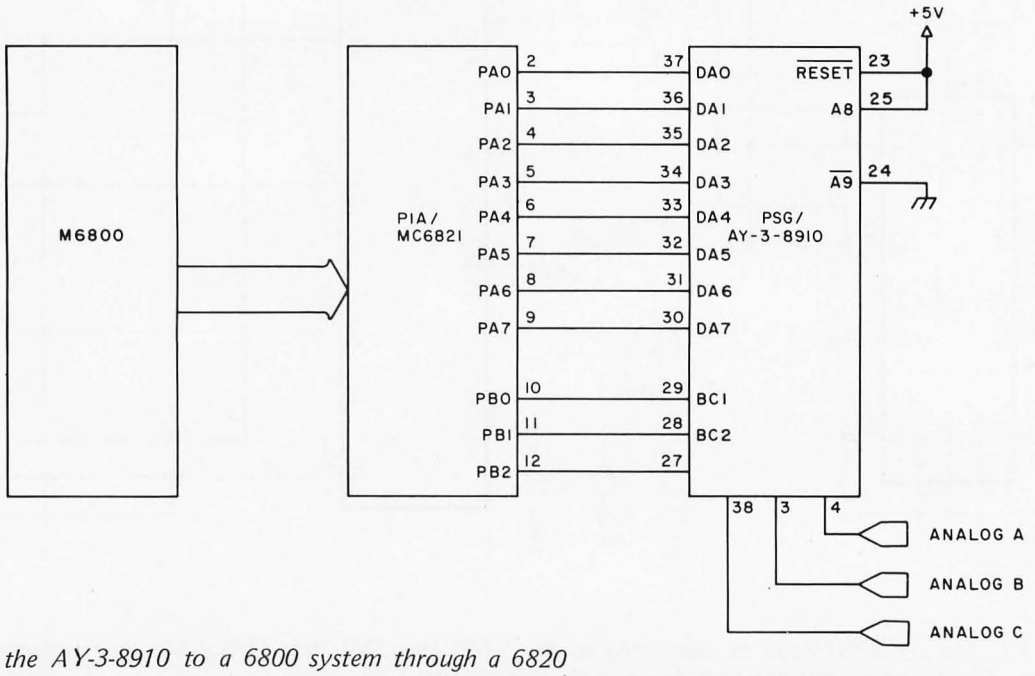

Figure 14: Connecting the AY-3-8910 to a 6800 system through a 6820 programmable interface adapter is easier than interfacing the S-100 bus.

Text continued from page 48:

Reading and writing from it is as illustrated.

A less complicated hardware interface is attained by using a peripheral interface adapter such as the 6820. Figure 14 demonstrates a technique which can be used for 6800 systems. The considerable difference in hardware complexity should in no way imply lack of ability using the 8080. If the S-100 bus is ignored and a 8255 programmable peripheral interface is used instead, it would result in a circuit similar to figure 14.

In Conclusion

I have briefly presented two methods of sound synthesis. While both are simple to implement, it is easy to recognize that the Texas Instruments part is more applicable in dedicated designs while the General Instrument device is for general synthesizer applications. It is not inconceivable that the AY-3-8910 could produce almost any sound, and it is a natural for use with a music interpreter running on a microcomputer. Perhaps the next famous composer will not direct a 150 piece orchestra but, rather, a trio of microcomputers controlling a bank of AY-3-8910s.■

Circuit diagrams and drawings pertaining to the AY-3-8910 were provided courtesy of General Instrument Corp.

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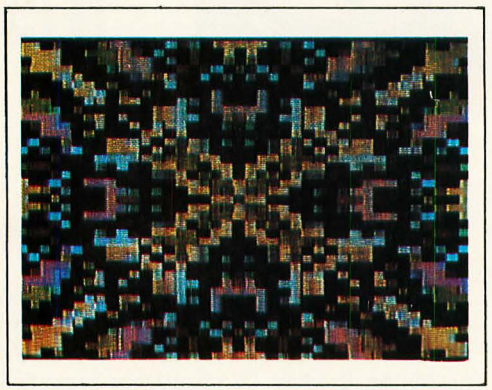

Photo 1: Typical output of the Kaleidoscope program.

Listing 1 is a short program that generates a fastmoving colorful display on your Apple II.

The program starts at hexadecimal location 0800 and resides in less than one page of memory. It may be entered in object form by use of the system monitor. To run the program, simply type: 800G. The display can be *frozen* by hitting any key on the keyboard. Hitting any key again will resume the action.

The program was written using Microproducts Editor/Assembler program for the Apple II.■

```
                    0010   KALEIDOSCOPE
                    0020
0800  4CA508      0030       JMP STAR
                    0040
                    0050   PLOT (20+X,20+Y)
                    0060
0803  18          0070   DRAW CLC
0804  A914        0080        LDA 14
0806  6510        0090        ADC *X
0808  A8          0100        TAY
0809  A914        0110        LDA 14
080B  6511        0120        ADC *Y
080D  2000F8      0130        JSR PLOT
                    0140
                    0150   PLOT (20-X,20+Y)
                    0160
0810  38          0170        SEC
0811  A914        0180        LDA 14
0813  E510        0190        SBC *X
0815  A8          0200        TAY
0816  200EF8      0210        JSR PLT1
                    0220
                    0230   PLOT (20+Y,20+X)
                    0240
0819  18          0250        CLC
081A  A914        0260        LDA 14
081C  6511        0270        ADC *Y
081E  A8          0280        TAY
081F  A914        0290        LDA 14
0821  6510        0300        ADC *X
0823  2000F8      0310        JSR PLOT
                    0320
                    0330   PLOT (20-Y,20+X)
                    0340
0826  38          0350        SEC
0827  A914        0360        LDA 14
0829  E511        0370        SBC *Y
082B  A8          0380        TAY
082C  200EF8      0390        JSR PLT1
                    0400
                    0410   PLOT (20+X,20-Y)
                    0420
082F  18          0430        CLC
0830  A914        0440        LDA 14
0832  6510        0450        ADC *X
0834  A8          0460        TAY
0835  38          0470        SEC
0836  A914        0480        LDA 14
0838  E511        0490        SBC *Y
083A  2000F8      0500        JSR PLOT
                    0510
                    0520   PLOT (20-X,20-Y)
                    0530
083D  38          0540        SEC
083E  A914        0550        LDA 14
0840  E510        0560        SBC *X
0842  A8          0570        TAY
0843  200EF8      0580        JSR PLT1
                    0590
                    0600   PLOT (20+Y,20-X)
                    0610
0846  18          0620        CLC
0847  A914        0630        LDA 14
0849  6511        0640        ADC *Y
084B  A8          0650        TAY
084C  38          0660        SEC
084D  A914        0670        LDA 14
084F  E510        0680        SBC *X
0851  2000F8      0690        JSR PLOT
                    0700
                    0710   PLOT (20-Y,20-X)
                    0720
0854  38          0730        SEC
0855  A914        0740        LDA 14
0857  E511        0750        SBC *Y
0859  A8          0760        TAY
085A  200EF8      0770        JSR PLT1
085D  60          0780        RTS
                    0790   X     DL 0010
                    0800   Y     DL 0011
                    0810   Z     DL 0012
                    0820   PLOT  DL F800
```

```
                    0830  PLT1 .DL F80E
                    0840  :
                    0850  :"RANDOM" NUMBERS
                    0860  :
085E  E8            0870  RND  INX
085F  D00D          0880       BNE GRAB
0861  EE7008        0890       INC GRAB+02
0864  AD7008        0900       LDA GRAB+02
0867  09E0          0910       ORA #E0
0869  8D7008        0920       STA GRAB+02
086C  E615          0930       INC *ZZ
086E  BD00E0        0940  GRAB LDA BASE,X
0871  60            0950       RTS
                    0960  :
                    0970  :MAIN SUBROUTINE
                    0980  :
0872  A510          0990  GUTS LDA *X
0874  208908        1000       JSR STEP
0877  8510          1010       STA *X
0879  A511          1020       LDA *Y
087B  208908        1030       JSR STEP
087E  8511          1040       STA *Y
0880  A512          1050       LDA *Z
0882  2064F8        1060       JSR SETC
0885  208308        1070       JSR DRAW
0888  60            1080       RTS
0889  850F          1090  STEP STA *WORK
088B  205E08        1100       JSR RND
088E  1002          1110       BPL CONT
0890  E60F          1120       INC *WORK
0892  6A            1130  CONT ROR
0893  9002          1140       BCC TEST
0895  C60F          1150       DEC *WORK
0897  A50F          1160  TEST LDA *WORK
0899  1003          1170       BPL CMP
089B  A913          1180       LDA #13
089D  60            1190       RTS
089E  C914          1200  CMP  CMP #14
08A0  D002          1210       BNE EXIT
08A2  A900          1220       LDA #00
08A4  60            1230  EXIT RTS
                    1240  WORK .DL 000F
                    1250  :
                    1260  :MAIN PROGRAM
                    1270  :
08A5  2032F8        1280  STAR JSR GR
08A8  A900          1290       LDA #00
08AA  8D50C0        1300       STA $C050
08AD  8D52C0        1310       STA $C052
08B0  8513          1320       STA *XX
08B2  8514          1330       STA *YY
08B4  8515          1340       STA *ZZ
08B6  8516          1350       STA *XXX
08B8  8517          1360       STA *YYY
08BA  AA            1370       TAX
08BB  A513          1380  LOOP LDA *XX
08BD  8510          1390       STA *X
08BF  A514          1400       LDA *YY
08C1  8511          1410       STA *Y
08C3  A515          1420       LDA *ZZ
08C5  8512          1430       STA *Z
08C7  207208        1440       JSR GUTS
08CA  A510          1450       LDA *X
08CC  8513          1460       STA *XX
08CE  A511          1470       LDA *Y
08D0  8514          1480       STA *YY
08D2  A516          1490       LDA *XXX
08D4  8510          1500       STA *X
08D6  A517          1510       LDA *YYY
08D8  8511          1520       STA *Y
08DA  A900          1530       LDA #00
08DC  8512          1540       STA *Z
08DE  207208        1550       JSR GUTS
08E1  A510          1560       LDA *X
08E3  8516          1570       STA *XXX
08E5  A511          1580       LDA *Y
08E7  8517          1590       STA *YYY
08E9  AD00C0        1600       LDA $C000
08EC  10CD          1610       BPL LOOP
08EE  A900          1620       LDA #00
08F0  8D10C0        1630       STA $C010
08F3  AD00C0        1640  WAIT LDA $C000
08F6  10FB          1650       BPL WAIT
08F8  A900          1660       LDA #00
08FA  8D10C0        1670       STA $C010
08FD  F0BC          1680       BEQ LOOP
                    1690  XX   .DL 0013
                    1700  YY   .DL 0014
                    1710  ZZ   .DL 0015
                    1720  XXX  .DL 0016
                    1730  YYY  .DL 0017
                    1740  BASE .DL E000
                    1750  SETC .DL F864
                    1760  GR   .DL F832
                    1770  END  .EN
```

```
SYMBOL TABLE
DRAW   0803
X      0010
Y      0011
Z      0012
PLOT   F800
PLT1   F80E
RND    085E
GRAB   086E
GUTS   0872
STEP   0889
CONT   0892
TEST   0897
CMP    089E
EXIT   08A4
WORK   000F
STAR   08A5
LOOP   08BB
WAIT   08F3
XX     0013
YY     0014
ZZ     0015
XXX    0016
YYY    0017
BASE   E000
SETC   F864
GR     F832
END    08FF
```


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A Model of the Brain for Robot Control

Part 2: A Neurological Model

James Albus
Project Manager
United States Dept of Commerce
National Bureau of Standards
Washington DC 20234

The ideas presented in this article represent the views of the author and not those of the Department of Commerce or the National Bureau of Standards.

In part 1 I described how sensory interactive, goal directed behavior can be generated and controlled by a multilevel hierarchy of computing modules. At each level of the hierarchy, input commands are decomposed into strings of output subcommands which form the input commands to the next lower level. Feedback from the external environment, or from internal sources, drives the decomposition process and steers the selection of subcommands so as to achieve successful performance of the task of reaching the goal. In this article I will address questions of what kind of neurological structures are believed to exist in the brain and what kind of computations, memory storage methods, and associative recall effects these structures seem to be performing.

Unfortunately, definitive experimental evidence about the structure and function of neurological circuitry in the brain is extremely difficult to obtain. Neurons, the brain's computing elements, are very tiny and delicate. It is hard to measure what is happening in them without damaging them or otherwise interfering with the flow of information related to their operation. Techniques do exist for measuring the activity of individual neurons and sometimes even observing the behavior of several neurons at the same time. There are also techniques which make it possible to monitor synchronized changes in the activity of large numbers of neurons.

However, the brain is such a complicated anatomical structure, with such a jumbled interconnection of different kinds of neurons being excited and inhibited by such a broad variety of chemical and electrical stimuli, that it is impossible to infer from these measurements any very sophisticated ideas about what mathematical functions are being computed or what procedures are being executed.

Neurons are as varied in size, shape, and type as trees and bushes in a tropical forest, and often are as closely intertwined and interconnected as a bramble patch overgrown with vines. Many of their most important information processing properties are statistical in nature, and these statistics may apply over ensembles of thousands of neurons.

The situation is further complicated by multiple feedback loops, some of which are confined to small, local clusters of neurons, and others which may thread through several entirely different regions of the brain. The result is that no one has yet been able to construct a clear picture of the overall information processing architecture in the brain. At present there exists no generally accepted theory which bridges the gap between hard neurophysiological measurements and psychological concepts such as perception and cognition.

Nevertheless, there is much that is known with certainty about the structure and function of at least some parts of the brain, particularly in the periphery of the sensory and motor systems. A great deal can be inferred from this knowledge. Furthermore, there is one area, the cerebellar cortex, where the geometry is sufficiently regular to enable researchers to positively identify a

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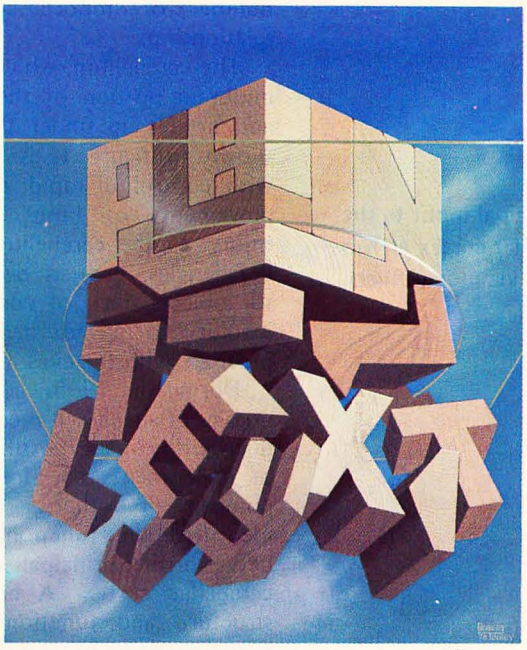

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number of important neurophysiological relationships.

The cerebellum, which is attached to the midbrain portion of the upper spinal cord and nestles up under the visual cortex, as shown in figure 1, is intimately involved with control of rapid, precise, coordinated movements of limbs, hands, and eyes. Injury to the cerebellum results in motor deficiencies, such as overshoot in reaching for objects, lack of coordination, and the inability to execute delicate tasks or track precisely with the eyes.

The principal input to the cerebellar cortex arrives via mossy fibers.

During the 1960s, advances in the technology of single cell recordings and electron microscopy made possible an elegant series of experiments by Sir John Eccles and a number of others. These experiments identified the functional interconnections between the principal components in the cerebellar cortex. A brief outline of the structure and function of the cerebellar cortex is shown in figure 2.

The principal input to the cerebellar cortex arrives via mossy fibers (so named because they looked like moss to the early workers who first observed them through a microscope). Mossy fibers carry information from a number of different sources such as the vestibular system (balance), the reticular formation (alerting, the cerebral cortex (sensory-motor activity), as well as from sensor organs which measure such quantities as position of joints, tension in tendons, velocity of contraction of muscles, pressure on skin, etc. It is possible to categorize mossy fibers into at least two classes based on their point of origin: one, those carrying information which may include commands from higher levels in the motor system; and two, those carrying feedback information about the results of motor outputs. Once these two sets of fibers enter the cerebellum, however, they intermingle and become virtually indistinguishable.

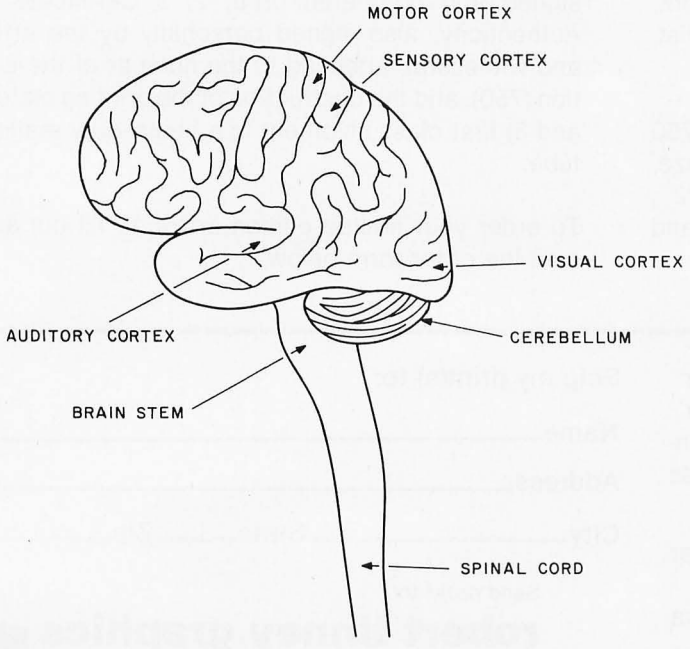


Figure 1. Side view of human brain showing the cerebellum attached to the brain stem and partially hidden by the visual cortex.

The feedback mossy fibers tend to exhibit a systematic regularity in the mapping from point of origin of their information to their termination in the cerebellum. It is thus possible to sketch a map of the body on the surface of the cerebellum corresponding to the origins of feedback mossy fiber information, as shown in figure 3. This map is not sharply defined, however, and has considerable overlap between regions due in part to extensive intermingling and multiple overlapping of terminations of the mossy fibers in the cerebellar granule cell layer. Each mossy fiber branches many times and makes excitatory (+) contact with several hundred granule cells spaced over a region several millimeters in diameter.

Granule cells are the most numerous cells in the brain. It is estimated that there are about 3×10^{10} granule cells in the human cerebellum alone. There are 100 to 1000 times as many granule cells as mossy fibers. Each granule cell is contacted by 5 to 12 mossy fibers and gives off a single output axon which rises toward the surface of the cerebellum. When it nears the surface this axon splits into two parts which run about 1.5 mm in opposite directions along the folded ridges of the cerebellum, making contact with a number of different kinds of cells in passage. These axons from the granule cells thus run parallel to each other in a densely packed sheet (hence the name, parallel fibers).

One of the cell types contacted by parallel fibers are Golgi cells (named for their discoverer). These cells have a widely spread dendritic tree and are excited by parallel fibers over a region about 0.6 mm in diameter. Each Golgi cell puts out an axon which branches extensively, making inhibitory (–) contact with up to 100,000 granule cells in its immediate vicinity, including many of the same granule cells which excited it. The dendritic trees and axons of neighboring Golgi cells intermingle so as to blanket the entire granular layer with negative feedback. The general effect is that of an automatic gain control on the level of activity in the parallel fiber sheet.

It is thought that the Golgi cells operate such that only a small and controlled percentage (perhaps as little as 1 percent or

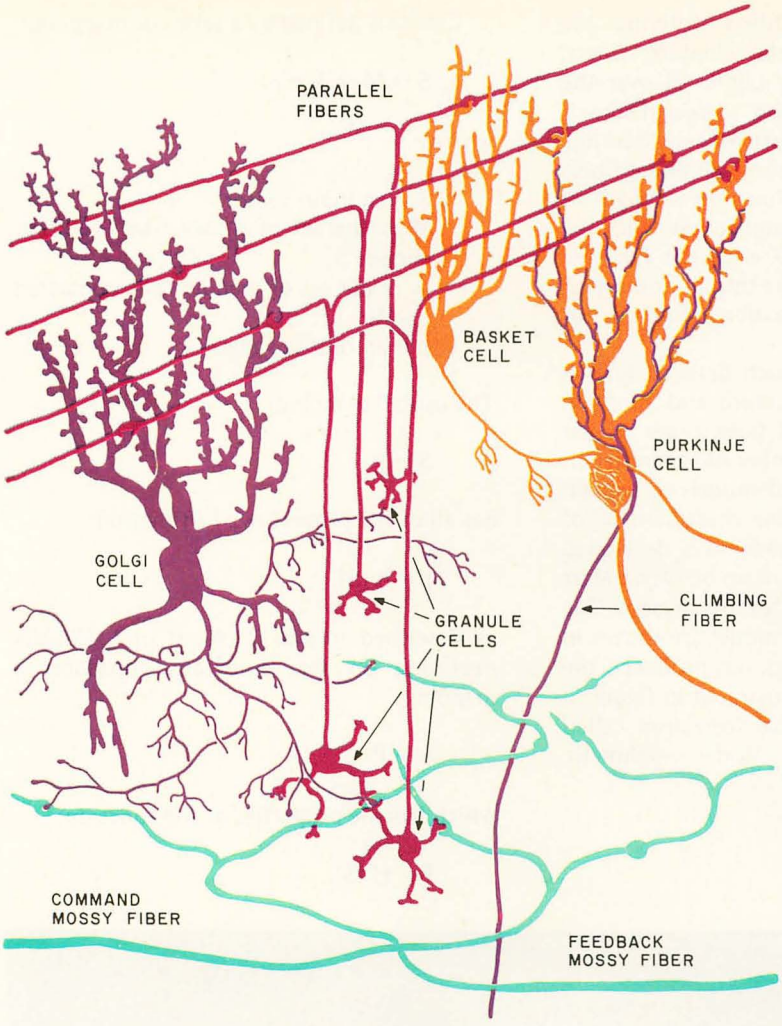


Figure 2. The principal cells and fiber systems of the cerebellar cortex. Command and feedback information arrives via mossy fibers, each of which make excitatory (+) contact with several hundred granule cells. Golgi cells sample the response of the granule cells via the parallel fibers and suppress by inhibitory (–) contacts all but the most highly excited granule cells. Purkinje cells are the output of the cerebellar cortex. They sum the excitatory (+) effect of parallel fibers through weighted connections. They also receive inhibitory (–) input from parallel fibers via basket cell inverters. The strengths of these weights determine the transfer function of the cerebellar cortex. Climbing fibers are believed to adjust the strength of these weights so as to train the cerebellum.

less) of the granule cells are allowed above threshold at any one time, regardless of the level of activity of the mossy fiber input. Any particular pattern of activity on the mossy fiber input will produce a few granule cells which are maximally excited, and a great many others which are less than maximally stimulated. The Golgi cells suppress the outputs of all but the few maximally stimulated granule cells. The result is that every input pattern (or vector) is transformed by the granule layer into a small, and relatively fixed percentage, or subset, of parallel fibers which are active.

These active parallel fibers not only contact Golgi cells, but make excitatory contact with Purkinje cells (named for their discoverer) and basket and stellate cells (named for their shapes) through weighted connections (synapses). Each Purkinje cell performs a summation over its inputs and produces an output which is the output of the cerebellar cortex. The basket and stellate cells are essentially inverters which provide the Purkinje with negative weights that are summed along with the positive weights from parallel fibers.

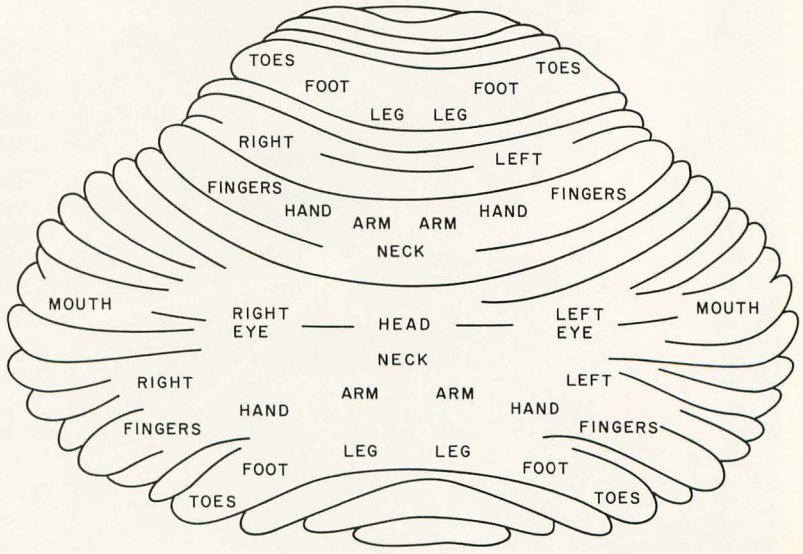


Figure 3. A map of the surface of the cerebellar cortex showing the point of origin of mossy fiber feedback and ultimate destination of Purkinje cell output.

The Golgi cells suppress the outputs of all but the few maximally stimulated granule cells.

A second set of fibers entering the cerebellar cortex are the climbing fibers, so named because they climb all over the Purkinje cells like ivy on a tree. There is typically one climbing fiber for each Purkinje cell. It is believed that these climbing fibers have some role in adjusting the strength of the weighted synaptic connections with the parallel fibers, so as to alter the Purkinje output. Climbing fibers are thus hypothesized to provide the information required for learning.

The availability of such detailed knowledge regarding the structure and function of the various cell and fiber types in the cerebellum has led a number of theoreticians to propose mathematical models to explain the information processing characteristics of the cerebellum. One model was developed independently in Great Britain by David Marr and in the United States by myself. The general outlines of this model are shown in figure 4. My further work has produced the more abstract version illustrated in figure 5, as well as a mathematical formalism called the CMAC (Cerebellar Model Arithmetic Computer).

CMAC is defined by a series of mappings:

$$S \rightarrow M \rightarrow A \rightarrow p$$

where:

S is an input vector;
M is the set of mossy fibers used to encode S;
A is the set of granule cells contacted by M;
p is an output value.

The overall mapping:

$$S \rightarrow p$$

has all of the properties of a function:

$$p = h(S)$$

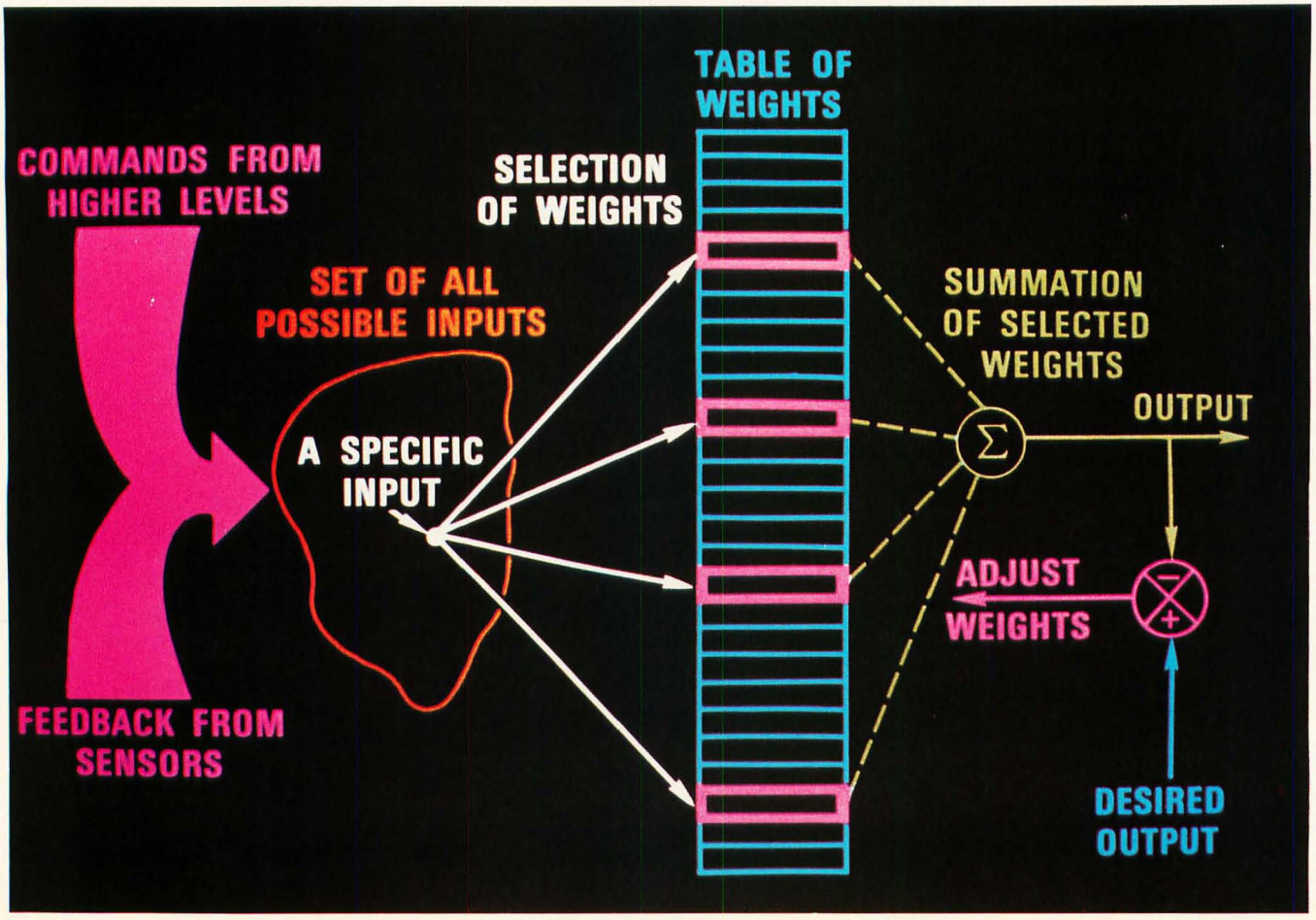
as described in part 1. A set of L CMACs operating on the same input produces a mapping:

$$S \rightarrow P$$

which has the properties of the function:

$$P = H(S).$$

Figure 4. A theoretical model of the cerebellum.



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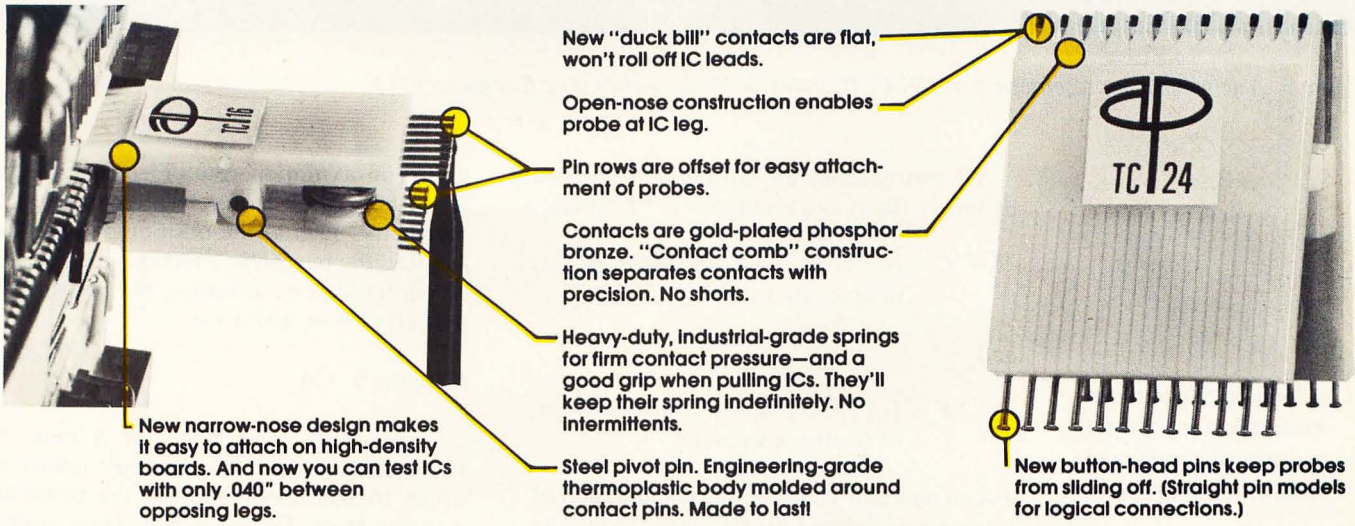

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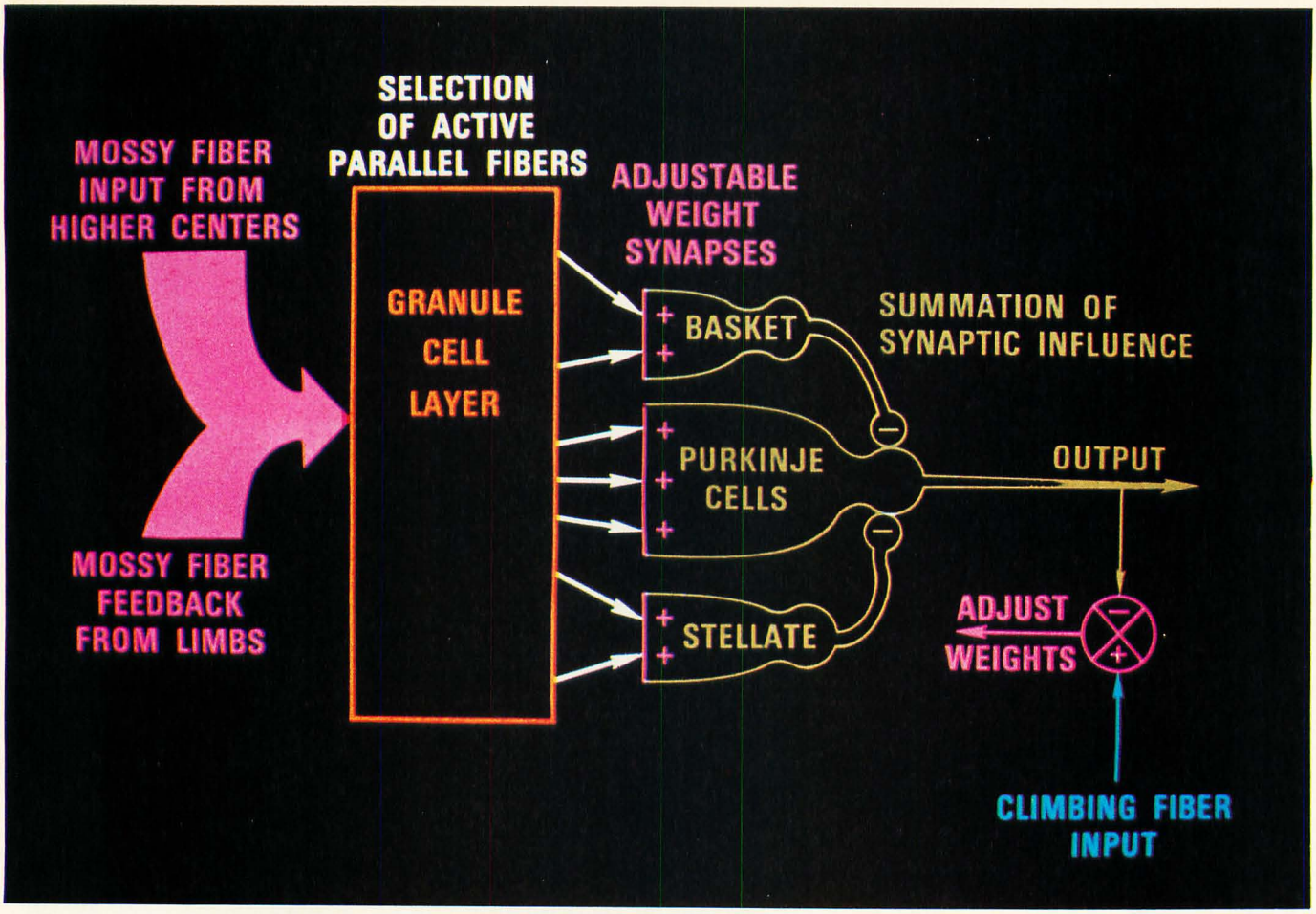

Figure 5. A schematic representation of CMAC (Cerebellar Model Arithmetic Computer).

Pulse frequency and phase modulation are subject to quantization noise and bandwidth limitations.

We may describe the information encoded by mossy fibers as a vector S = C + F where:

C = $(s_1, s_2, \ldots, s_i)$ is a vector, or list, of command variables;

and

F = $(s_{i+1}, \ldots, s_N)$ is a vector, or list, of feedback variables.

+ is an operator denoting the combination of two vectors defined by two lists of variables into a single vector or list of variables.

That is:

S = C + F

means that S = $(s_1, s_2, \ldots, s_i, s_{i+1}, \ldots, s_N)$. Some of the elements of the command vector C may define symbolic motor commands such as <REACH>, <PULL BACK>, <PUSH>, etc. The remainder of the elements in C define arguments, or modifiers, such as the velocity of motion desired, the force required, the position of the terminal point of a motion, etc. Elements of the feedback vector F may represent physical parameters such as the position of a particular joint, the tension in a tendon, the velocity of contraction of a muscle, the pressure on a patch of skin, and so on.

Mapping S → M

The vector components of S must be transmitted from their various points of origin to their destination in the cerebellar granular layer. Distances may range from a few inches to over a foot. This presents a serious engineering problem because mossy fibers, like all nerve axons, are noisy, unreliable, and imprecise information channels with limited dynamic range. Pulse frequency and pulse phase modulation (which the brain uses for data transmission over long distances) are subject to quantization noise and are bandwidth limited. Nerve axons typically cannot transmit pulse rates above two or three hundred pulses per second. Nevertheless, high resolution high bandwidth data is required for precise control of skilled actions.

The brain solves this problem by encoding

each of the high precision variables to be transmitted so that it can be carried on a large number of low precision channels. Many mossy fibers are assigned to each input variable such that any one fiber conveys only a small portion of the information content of a single variable.

The nature of this encoding is that any particular mossy fiber will be maximally active over some limited range of the variable that it encodes, and less than maximally active over the rest of its variable's range. For example, the output of the mossy fiber labeled a in figure 6 is maximally active whenever the elbow joint is between 90° and 120° and is less than maximally active for all other elbow positions. The mossy fiber labeled b in figure 6 is maximally active whenever the elbow angle is greater than 160°. Now if there exists a large number of mossy fibers whose responses have a single maximum but which are maximally active over different intervals, it is then possible to tell the position of the elbow quite precisely by knowing which mossy fibers are maximally active. For example, in figure 7 the fact that mossy fibers a, b, and c are maximally active indicates that the elbow joint is between 118° and 120°.

The CMAC models this encoding scheme in the following way: define m_i to be the set of mossy fibers assigned to convey the value of the variable s_i; define m_i^* to be the mossy fibers in m_i which are maximally stimulated by a particular value of s_i. If for every value of s_i over its range there exists a unique set m_i^* of maximally active mossy fibers, then there is a mapping $s_i \rightarrow m_i^*$ such that knowing m_i^* (ie: which fibers in m_i are maximally active) tells us what is the value of s_i. If such a mapping is defined for every component s_i in the vector **S** then we have a mapping:

$$S \rightarrow M = \begin{cases} s_1 \rightarrow m_1^* \\ s_2 \rightarrow m_2^* \\ . \\ . \\ . \\ s_N \rightarrow m_N^* \end{cases}$$

where M is the set of all mossy fibers which encode the variables in the vector **S**.

In CMAC each of the $s_i \rightarrow m_i^*$ mappings may be defined by a set of K quantizing functions ${}^iC_1, {}^1C_2, \ldots, {}^iC_k$ each of which is offset by a value of 1/K times the quantizing interval. An example of this is given in figure 8 where K = 4 and N = 2. Component s_1 is represented along the horizontal axis, and the range of s_1 is covered by four quantizing functions:

$${}^1C_1 \{A, B, C, D, E\}$$
$${}^1C_2 \{F, G, H, J, K\}$$
$${}^1C_3 \{M, N, P, Q, R\}$$
$${}^1C_4 = \{S, T, V, W, X\} .$$

Each quantizing function is offset from the previous one by one resolution element. For every possible value of s_i there exists a unique set m_1^* consisting of the set of values produced by the K quantizing functions. For example (in figure 8), the value $s_1 = 7$ maps into the set $m_1^* = \{B, H, P, V\}$.

A similar mapping is also performed on s_2 by the set of quantizing functions:

$${}^2C_1 = \{a, b, c, d, e\}$$
$${}^2C_2 = \{f, g, h, j, k\}$$
$${}^2C_3 = \{m, n, p, q, r\}$$
$${}^2C_4 = \{s, t, v, w, x\} .$$

For example, the value $s_2 = 10$ maps into the set $m_2^* = \{c, j, q, v\}$. Now, if the s_1 component in figure 8 corresponds to the position of the elbow joint, the mossy fiber labeled B will be maximally active whenever

Text continued on page 64

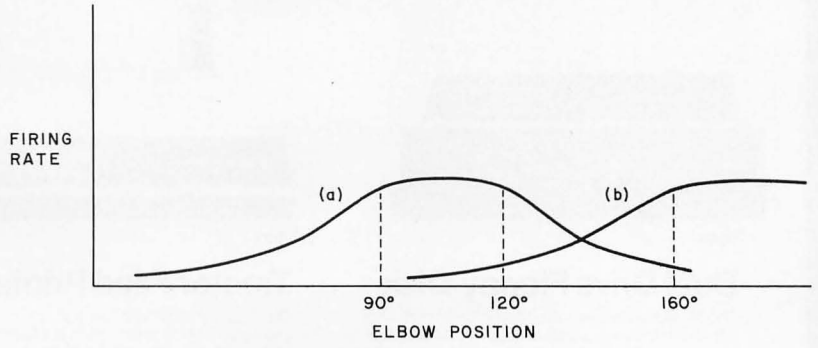

Figure 6. Typical responses of mossy fibers to the sensory variable they encode.

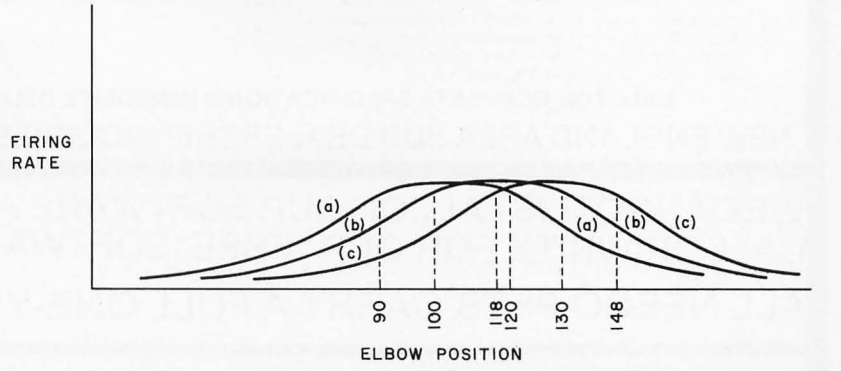

Figure 7: Three different mossy fibers encoding a single sensory variable (elbow position). All three fibers maximally active simultaneously indicates that the elbow lies between 118° and 120°.

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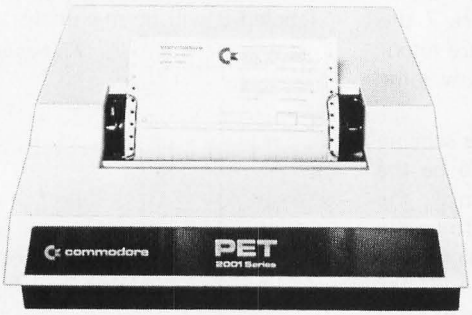

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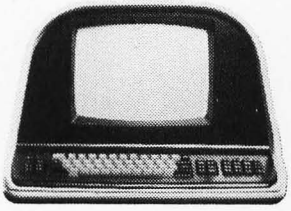

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Text continued from page 61:

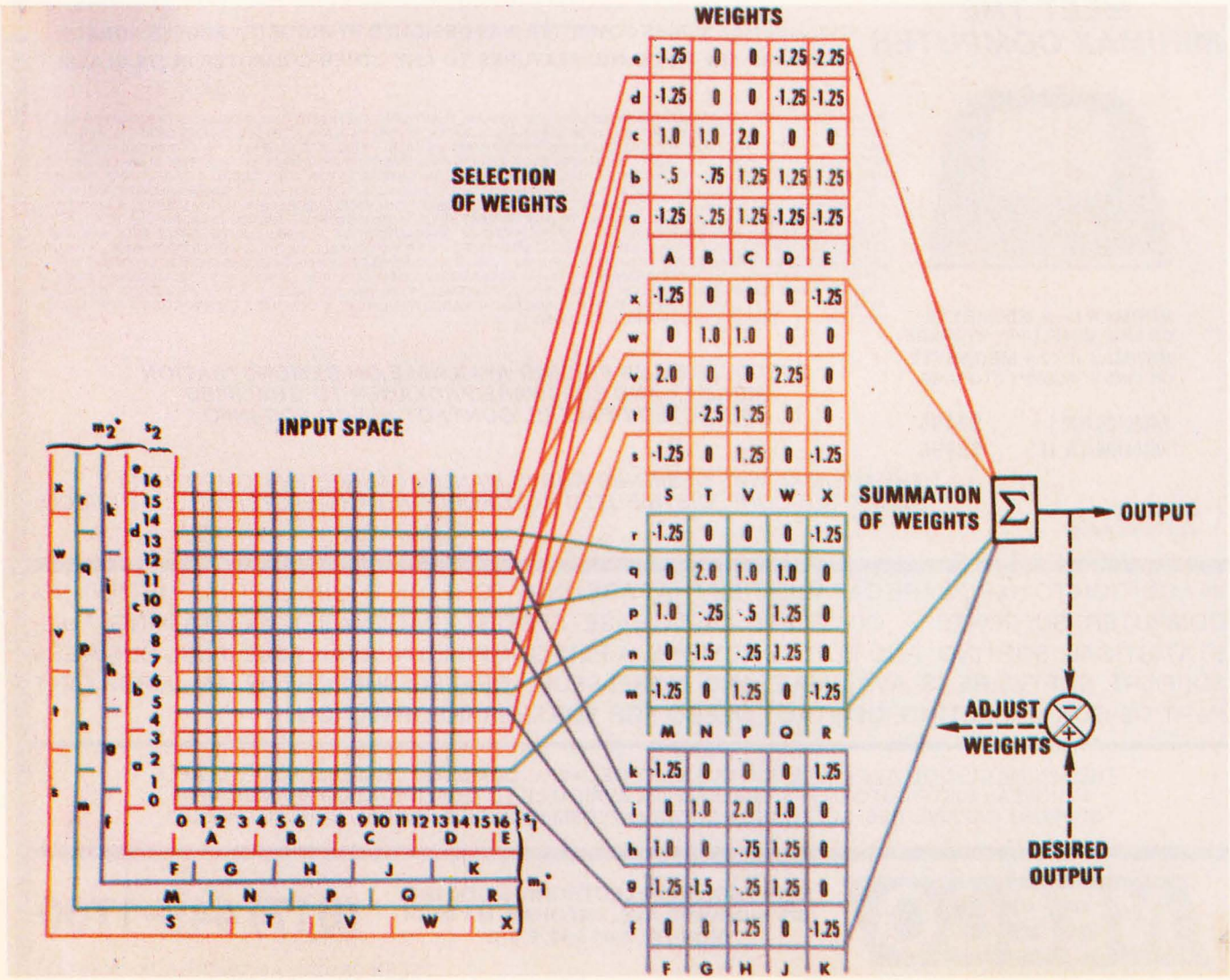
the elbow is between 4 and 7, and less than maximally active whenever the elbow position is outside that region. Similarly, the mossy fiber labeled H is maximally active when the elbow is between 5 and 8, the fiber P maximally active between 6 and 9, and V between 7 and 10, etc. The combination of mossy fibers in the set $m_1^* = \{B, H, P, V\}$ thus indicates that the variable $s_1 = 7$. If s_1 changes one position from (from 7 to 8, for example), the mossy fiber labeled B will drop out of the maximally active set m_1^* to be replaced by another, labeled C.

Encoding Advantages

This encoding scheme has a number of advantages. The most obvious is that a single precise variable can be transmitted reliably over a multitude of imprecise information channels. The resolution (or information content) of the transmitted variable depends on the number of channels. The *more* mossy fibers dedicated to a particular variable, the greater the *precision* with which it is represented.

A second equally important result is that small changes in the value of the input variable s_i have no effect on most of the elements in m_i^*. This leads to a property known as *generalization*, which is crucial for learning and recall in a world where no two situations are ever exactly the same. In CMAC the extent of the neighborhood of generalization along each variable axis depends on the resolution of the CMAC quantizing functions. In the brain this corresponds to the width of the maximally active region of the mossy fibers.

Figure 8. A simple two variable CMAC with four quantizing functions on each variable. A detailed explanation is in the text.



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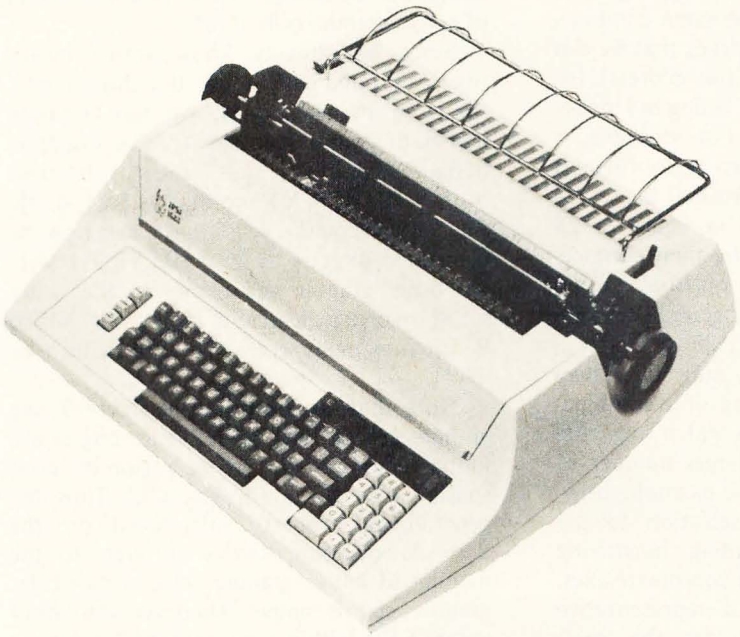

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The number of mossy fibers dedicated to a variable determines precision of its representation.

M → A Mapping

Just as we can identify (or name) mossy fibers by the input variables they encode, so we can identify granule cells by the mossy fibers which provide them with input. Each granule cell receives input from several different mossy fibers, and no two granule cells receive input from the same combination of mossy fibers. This means that we can compute a unique name (or address) for each granule cell by simply listing the mossy fibers which contact it. For example, a granule cell contacted by two mossy fibers B and c can be named (or addressed) Bc.

In the CMAC example in figure 8, 25 granule cells are identified by their contacts with mossy fibers from the quantizing functions ${}^1C_1$ and ${}^2C_1$. 25 other granule cells are identified by ${}^1C_2$ and ${}^2C_2$, 25 by ${}^1C_3$ and ${}^2C_3$, and 25 more by ${}^1C_4$ and ${}^2C_4$. There are, of course, many other possible combinations of mossy fiber names which might be used to identify a much larger number of granule cells. For this simple example, however, we will limit our selection to the permutation of corresponding quantizing functions along each of the coordinate axes. This provides a large and representative sample which uniformly spans the input space. Furthermore, this particular naming algorithm is simple to implement either in software or hardware.

We can define A to be the set of all granule cells identified by their mossy fiber inputs. Of course, all of the granule cells in A are not active at the same time. As was previously noted, most granule cells are inhibited from firing by Golgi cell gain control feedback. Only the small percentage of granule cells whose input mossy fibers are *all* maximally active can rise above threshold. We will define the set of active granule cells as A*.

Since we already know which mossy fibers are maximally active (ie: those mossy fibers in the sets m_i*), we can compute names of granule cells in A*. For example, in figures 8 and 10, if $s_1 = 7$ and $s_2 = 10$, then m_1* = {B, H, P, V} and m_2* = {c, j, q, v}. The active granule cells in A* can now be computed directly as A* = {Bc, Hj, Pq, Vv}. All other granule cell names in the larger set A involve at least one mossy fiber which is not maximally active (ie: not in m_1* or m_2*).

Note that, as illustrated in figure 9, the granule cell Bc will be active as long as the input vector remains in the region of input space $4 \leqslant s_1 \leqslant 7$ and $8 \leqslant s_2 \leqslant 11$. Thus, the generalizing property introduced by the S → M mapping carries through to the naming of active granule cells. A particular granule cell is active whenever the input vector S lies within some extended region, or neighborhood, of input space. Other granule cells are active over other neighborhoods. These neighborhoods overlap, but each is offset from the others so that for any particular input S, the neighborhoods in A* all overlap at only one point, namely the point defined by the input vector. This is illustrated in figure 10. If the input vector moves one resolution element in any direction, for example, from (7, 10) to (8, 10), one active granule cell (Bc) drops out of A* to be replaced by another (Cc).

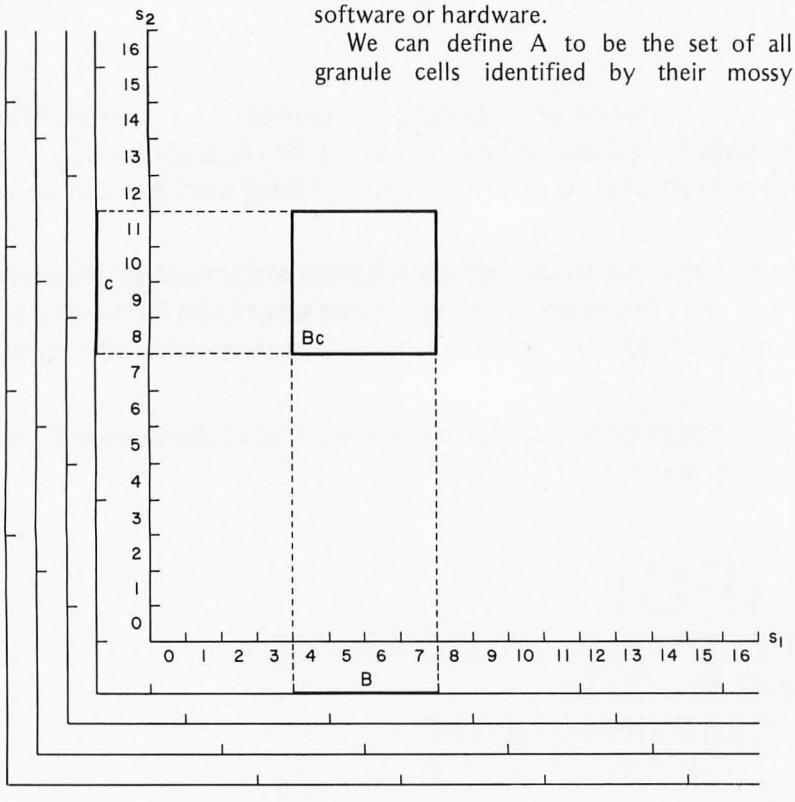

Figure 9. The weight Bc will be selected as long as the CMAC input vector lies in the region bounded by $4 \leqslant s_1 \leqslant 7$, $8 \leqslant s_2 \leqslant 11$.

A → p Mapping

Granule cells give rise to parallel fibers which act through weighted connections on the Purkinje output cell, varying its firing rate. Each cell in A is associated with a weight which may be positive or negative. Only the cells in A* have any effect on the Purkinje output cell. Thus, the Purkinje output sums only the weights selected (or addressed) by A*. This sum is the CMAC output scalar variable p. For example, in figure 8, S = (7, 10) maps into A* = {Bc, Hj, Pq, Vv} which selects the weights:

$$W_{Bc} = 1.0$$
$$W_{Hj} = 2.0$$
$$W_{Pq} = 1.0$$
$$W_{Vv} = 0.0.$$

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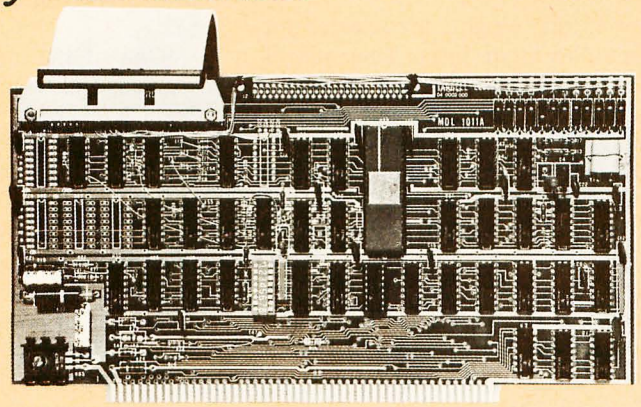

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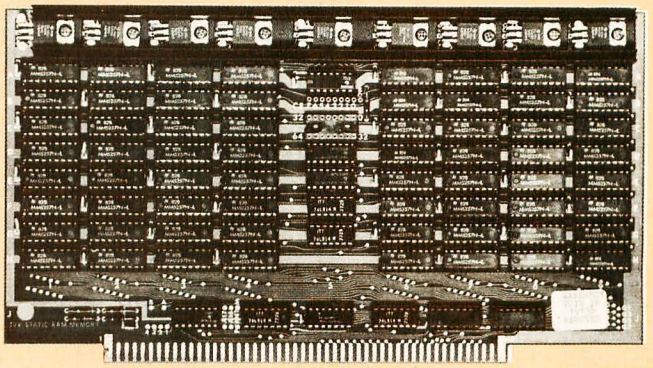

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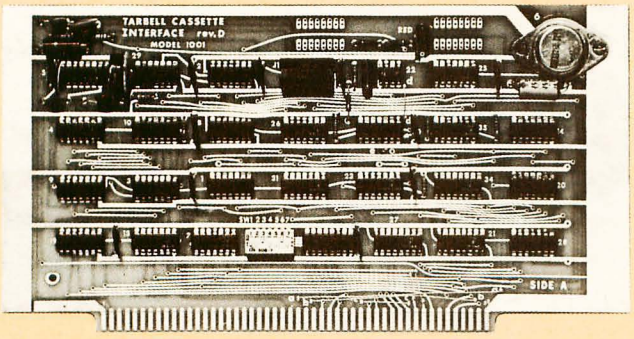

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These weights are summed to produce the output:

$$p = 4.0.$$

Thus the input **S** = (7, 10) produces the output h(**S**) = 4.

In figure 8 four weights are selected for every **S** vector in input space. Their sum is the value of the output p. As the input vector moves from any point in input space to an adjacent point one weight drops out to be replaced by another. The difference in value of the new weight minus the old is the difference in value of the output at the two adjacent points. Thus, the difference in adjacent weights is the partial derivative (or partial difference) of the function at that point. As the input vector **S** moves over the input space, a value p is output at each point. We can therefore say that the CMAC computes the function:

$$p = h(\mathbf{S}).$$

The particular function h computed depends on the particular set of values stored in the table of weights. For example, the set of weights shown in figure 8 computes the function shown in figure 11.

In the cerebellum there are many Purkinje cells which receive input from essentially the same mossy fibers. Thus, there are many CMACs all computing on the same input vector **S**. We can therefore say that a set of L CMACs computing on the same input vector produces a vector mapping:

$$\mathbf{P} = H(\mathbf{S}).$$

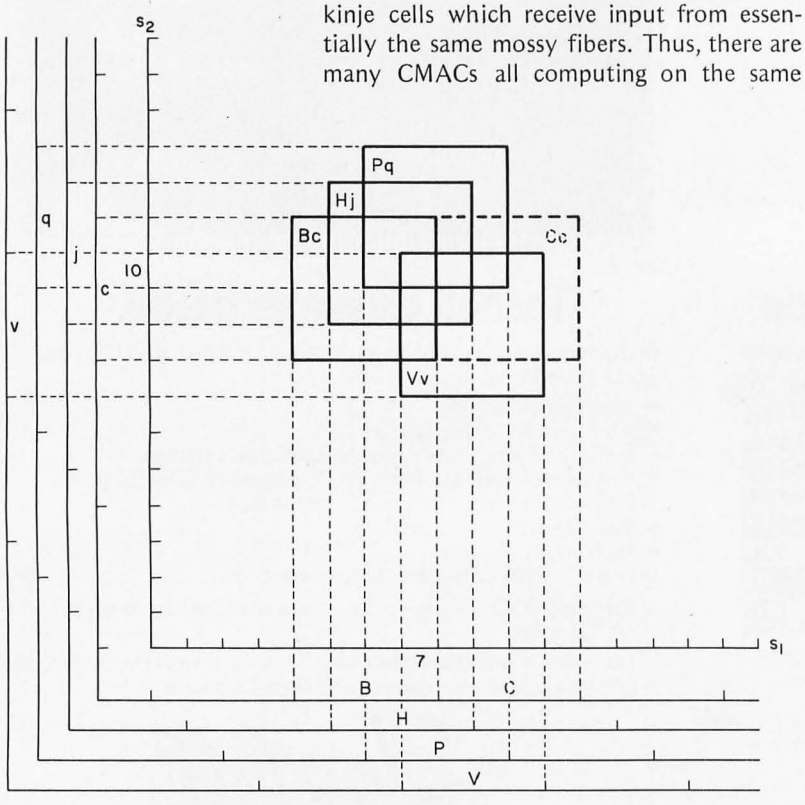


Figure 10. The input vector (s_1, s_2) = (7, 10) selects weights Bc, Hj, Pq, and Vv. These all overlap only at the point (7, 10). If the input vector (s_1, s_2) moves to (8, 10) the weight Bc will drop out to be replaced by Cc.

Data Storage in CMAC

One of the most fascinating, intensively studied, and least understood features of the brain is memory, and how data is stored in memory. In the cerebellum each Purkinje cell has a unique fiber, a climbing fiber, which is believed to be related to learning. Fibers from an area called the *locus coeruleous* have recently been discovered which appear to be related to learning. In addition, a number of hormones have been shown to have profound effects on learning and retention of learned experiences.

While the exact mechanism (or mechanisms) for memory storage are as yet unknown, the cerebellar model upon which CMAC is based hypothesizes that climbing fibers carry error correction information which "punishes" synapses that participate in erroneous firing of the Purkinje cell. The amount of error correction that occurs at any one experience may depend on factors such as the state of arousal or emotional importance attached by the brain's evaluation centers to the data being stored during the learning process.

Cerebellar learning is modeled in CMAC by the following procedure:

- Assume that $\hat{H}$ is the function we want CMAC to compute. Then $\hat{\mathbf{P}} = \hat{H}(\mathbf{S})$ is the desired value of the output vector for each point in the input space.
- Select a point **S** in input space where $\hat{\mathbf{P}}$ is to be stored. Compute the current value of the function at that point $\mathbf{P} = H(\mathbf{S})$.
- For every element in:

$$\mathbf{P} = (p_1, p_2, \ldots, p_L)$$

and in:

$$\hat{\mathbf{P}} = (\hat{p}_1, \hat{p}_2, \ldots, \hat{p}_L)$$

if:

$$|\hat{p}_i - p_i| \leqslant \xi_i$$

where ξ is an acceptable error, then do nothing; the desired value is already stored. ($|\hat{p}_i - p_i|$ is the absolute value of $\hat{p}_i - p_i$.)

However, if $|\hat{p}_i - p_i| > \xi_i$ then add $\triangle_i$

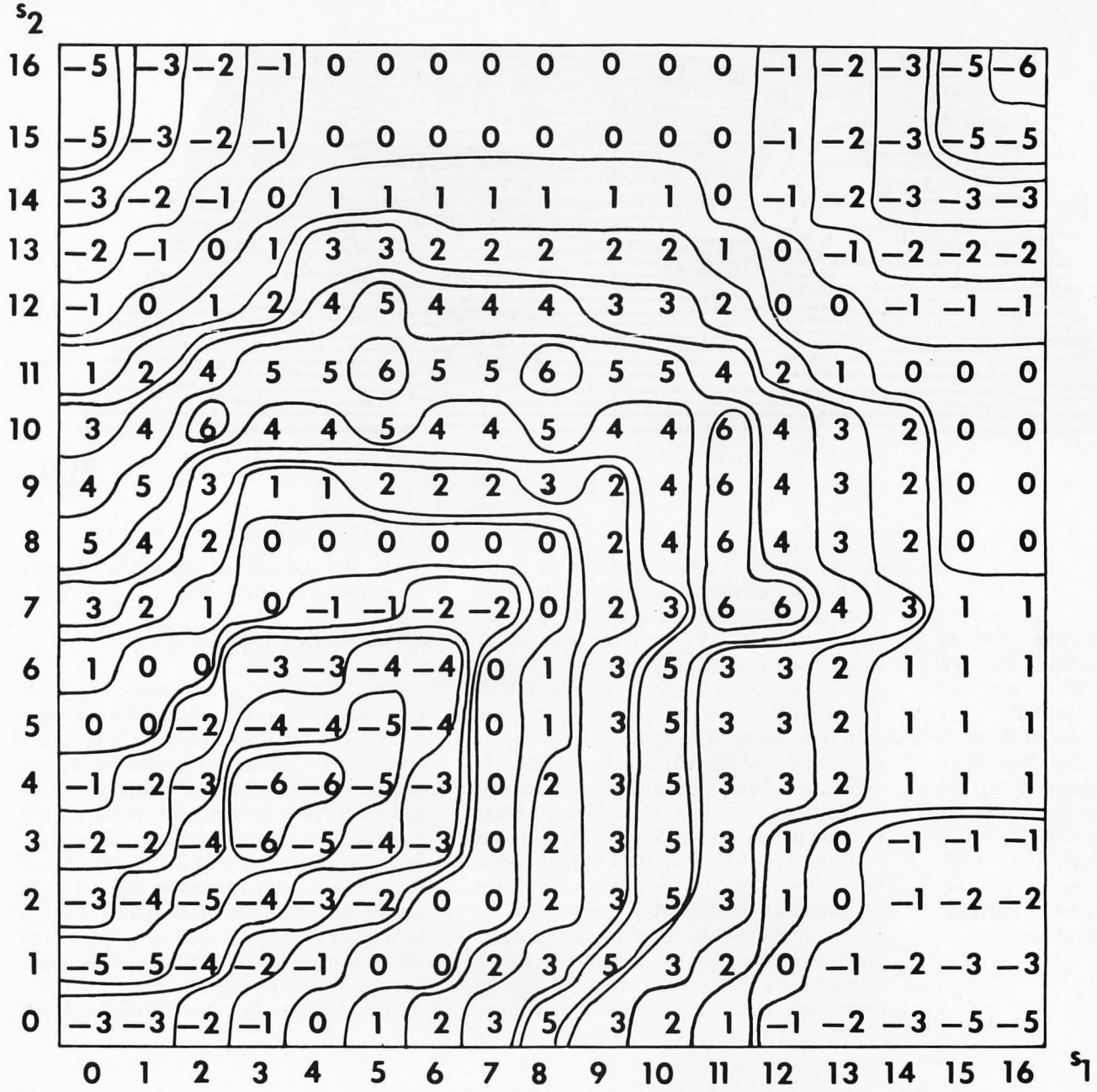


Figure 11. The particular set of weights shown in Figure 8 will compute the function shown here.

to every weight which was summed to produce p_i where:

$$\triangle_i = g\left(\frac{\hat{p}_i - p_i}{|A^*|}\right) \qquad (1)$$

$|A^*|$ is the number of weights in the set A* which contributed to p, and g is a gain factor which controls the amount of error correction produced by one learning experience.

If g = 1, then CMAC produces oneshot learning which fully corrects the observed error in one data storage operation. If $0 < g < 1$, then each learning experience moves the output p_i only in the direction of the desired value $\hat{p}_i$. More than one memory storage operation is then required to achieve correct performance.

An example of how an arbitrary function such as:

$$\hat{p} = (\sin x)(\sin y)$$

where:

$$x = 2\pi\, s_1/360$$

and:

$$y = 2\pi\, s_1/360$$

12a

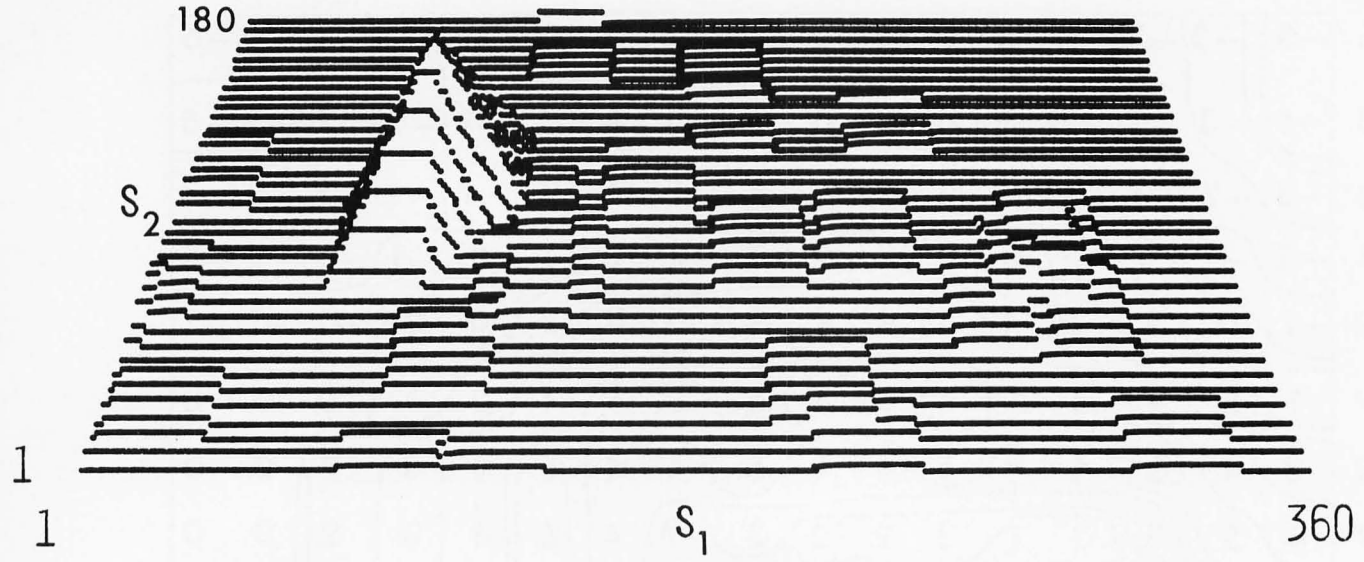


Figure 12. The effect of training CMAC on the function $\hat{p}$ = sin (2π s_1 /360) sin (2π s_2 / 360). (a) One training at (s_1, s_2) = (90, 90). (b) A second training at (s_1, s_2) = (270, 90). (c) Training at 16 points along a trajectory defined by s_1 = 90. (d) Training at 175 selected points scattered over the input space.

can be stored in CMAC is shown in figure 12. In this example the input is defined with unity resolution over the space $0 < s_1 \leqslant 360$ and $0 < s_2 \leqslant 180$, and the number of weights selected by each input is |A*| = 32.

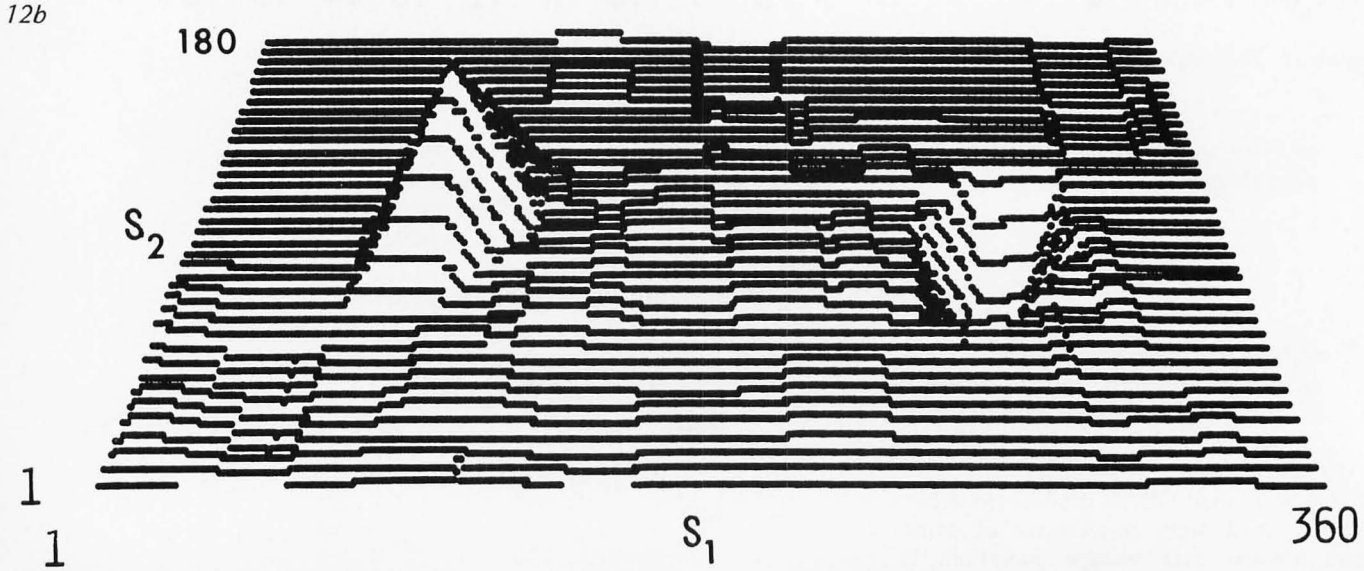
Initially all the weights were equal to 0. The point $\mathbf{S}_1$ = (90, 90) was chosen for the first data entry. The value of the desired function $\hat{p} = \hat{h}$ (90, 90) is 1. By formula (1) (where g = 1) each of the weights selected by **S** = (90, 90) is set to 1/32, causing the proper value to be stored at **S** = (90,90) as shown in figure 12a. After two data storage operations, one at (90, 90), the other at (270, 90), the contents of the CMAC memory are as shown in figure 12b. After 16 storage operations along the s_2 = 90 axis the results are as shown in figure 12c. After 175 storage operations scattered over the entire input space, the contents of the CMAC memory are as shown in figure 12d.

CMAC Memory Requirements

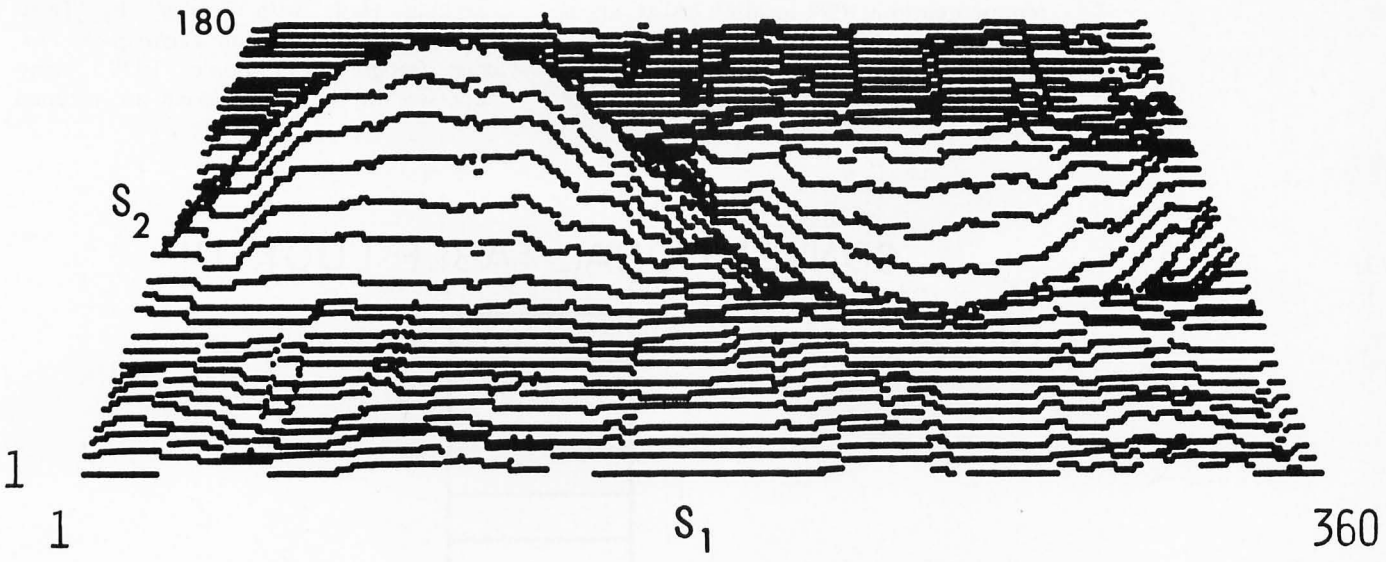
The CMAC **S** → A* mapping corresponds to an address decoder wherein **S** is the input address and the active granule cells in A* are select lines. These access weights whose sum can be interpreted as the contents of the address **S**. In a conventional memory, each possible input address selects a unique single location wherein is stored the contents of that address, as illustrated in figure 13a. In CMAC each possible input address selects a unique *set* of memory locations, the sum of whose contents is the contents of the input address, as shown in figure 13b.

This suggests that the Cerebellar Model

12b



12c



Arithmetic Computer might require considerably less memory than a conventional lookup table in storing certain functions. The reason is that the number of ways that x elements can be selected from a table of y entries always exceeds y and, in some cases, it does so by orders of magnitude.

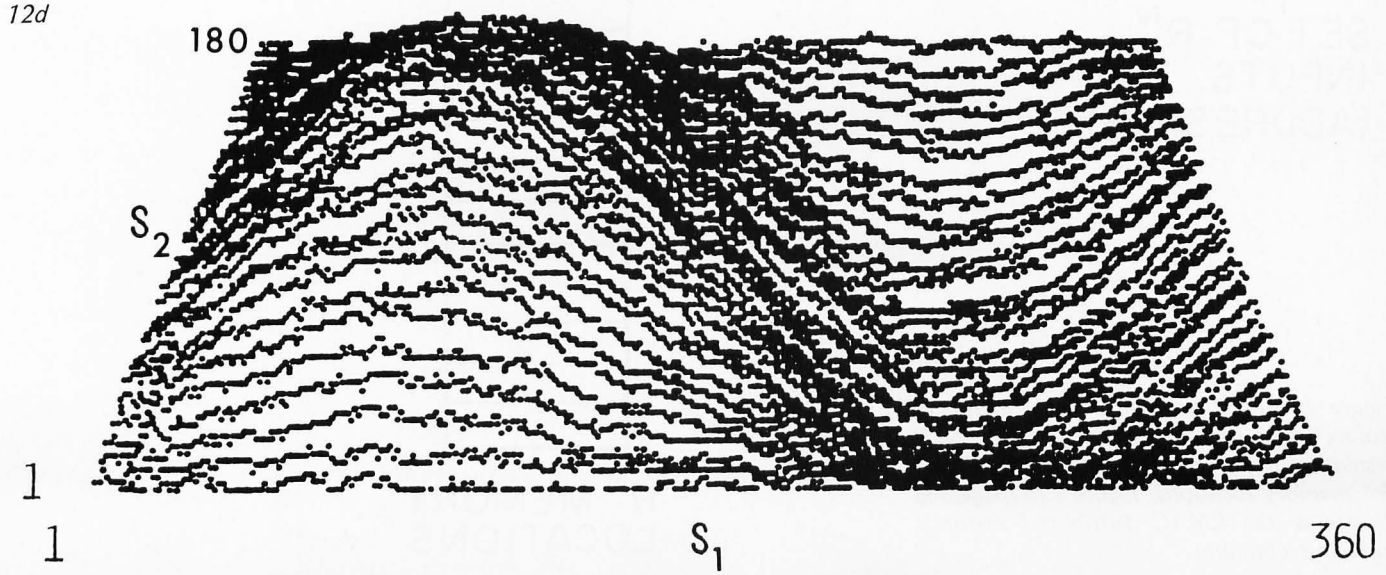
A conventional memory requires R^N memory locations to store a function of N variables, where R is the number of resolution elements on each variable. CMAC requires at most $K \times Q^N$ memory locations, when K is the number of quantizing functions and Q the number of resolution elements on each quantizing function.

A modest example of CMACs reduced memory requirements can be seen in figure 8 where N = 2 and R = 17. Here then are 17^2, or 289, possible input vectors. The CMAC shown has only 100 weights since K = 4 and Q = 5. Thus $K \times Q^N$ = 100. This savings in memory size becomes increasingly significant for large N. It allows CMAC to store a large class of low resolution functions of up to 12 variables over the entire input space with computer memory of practical size (less than 100 K bytes), whereas conventional table lookup becomes impractical for similar functions of more than four variables.

An even greater savings in memory requirements can be achieved by the use of hash coding techniques in the selection of addresses for the elements in A*. Hash coding allows CMAC to store functions of many variables, so long as the information content of the portion of the function stored does not exceed the number of bits in the CMAC

Hash coding, a memory addressing technique, compresses sparse address space.

12d



memory. For example in figure 12, the 360 by 180 (over 64,000) element input space is represented in a 1024 location CMAC memory by hash coding.

Hash coding is a commonly used memory addressing technique for compressing a large but sparsely populated address space into a smaller, more densely populated one. (See "Making Hash with Tables" by Terry Dolhoff in *Programming Techniques: Program Design,* BYTE Books, 1979.) Many addresses in the larger space are mapped

13a

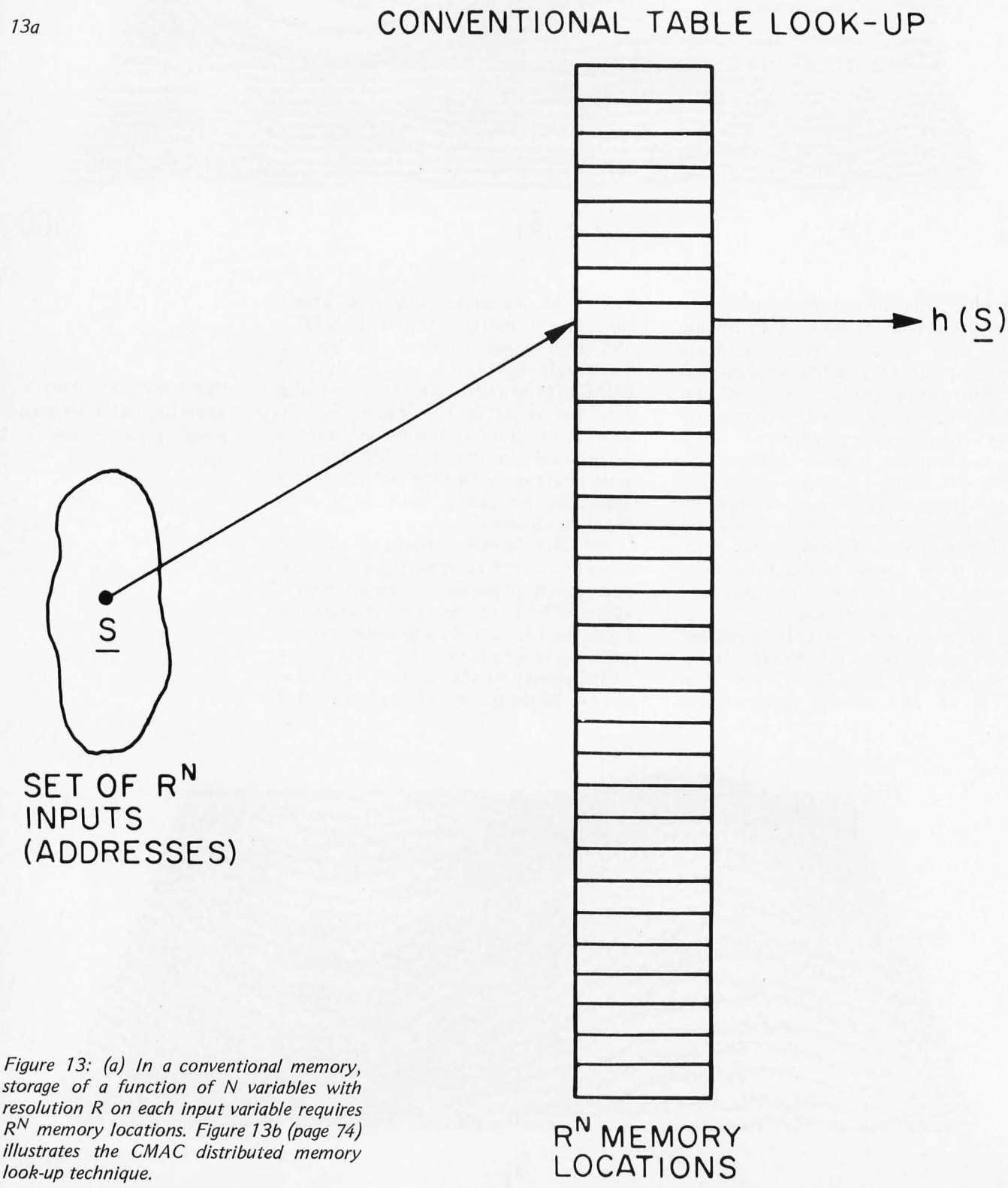


Figure 13: (a) In a conventional memory, storage of a function of N variables with resolution R on each input variable requires R^N memory locations. Figure 13b (page 74) illustrates the CMAC distributed memory look-up technique.

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- 1 p.m. Introduction to Small Business Systems
- 2 p.m. Selecting a Word Processing System
- 2 p.m. Distributed Data Processing
- 3 p.m. Accounts Receivable/General Ledger/Accounts Payable
- 3 p.m. Is There a Computer in Your Educational Future
- 4 p.m. Mailing Lists: Load, Time and Cost
- 4 p.m. Word Processing Systems in the Law Office
- 5 p.m. Basic BASIC
- 5 p.m. Achieving Quality Control in Word Processing

Friday, August 24

- 1 p.m. The Peril of Becoming a Machine-Oriented Business User
- 1 p.m. Introduction to Small Business Users
- 2 p.m. Selecting a Word Processing System
- 2 p.m. Distributed Data Processing
- 3 p.m. Unassigned at press time
- 3 p.m. How to Write a User-Oriented Program
- 4 p.m. Efficient Expansion of a Small System
- 4 p.m. Investment Analysis
- 5 p.m. Accounts Receivable/General Ledger/Accounts Payable
- 5 p.m. Exploiting the Apple/Dow Jones Computer Link

Saturday, August 25

- 11 a.m. Introduction to Personal Computing
- 11 a.m. Unassigned at press time
- 12 p.m. Computer Music Update
- 12 p.m. Unassigned at press time
- 1 p.m. Introduction to PASCAL
- 1 p.m. Computer Art Forms
- 2 p.m. Household Applications
- 2 p.m. Artificial Intelligence
- 3 p.m. How to Write a User-Oriented Program
- 3 p.m. Investment Analysis
- 4 p.m. Basic BASIC
- 4 p.m. Unassigned at press time

Sunday, August 26

- 11 a.m. Introduction to Personal Computing
- 11 a.m. Computer Music Update
- 12 p.m. Household Applications
- 12 p.m. Unassigned at press time
- 1 p.m. Efficient Expansion of a Small System
- 1 p.m. Computer Art Forms
- 2 p.m. Unassigned at press time
- 2 p.m. Unassigned at press time
- 3 p.m. Microcomputers for the Handicapped: Update
- 3 p.m. Exploiting the Apple/Dow Jones Computer Link
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13b

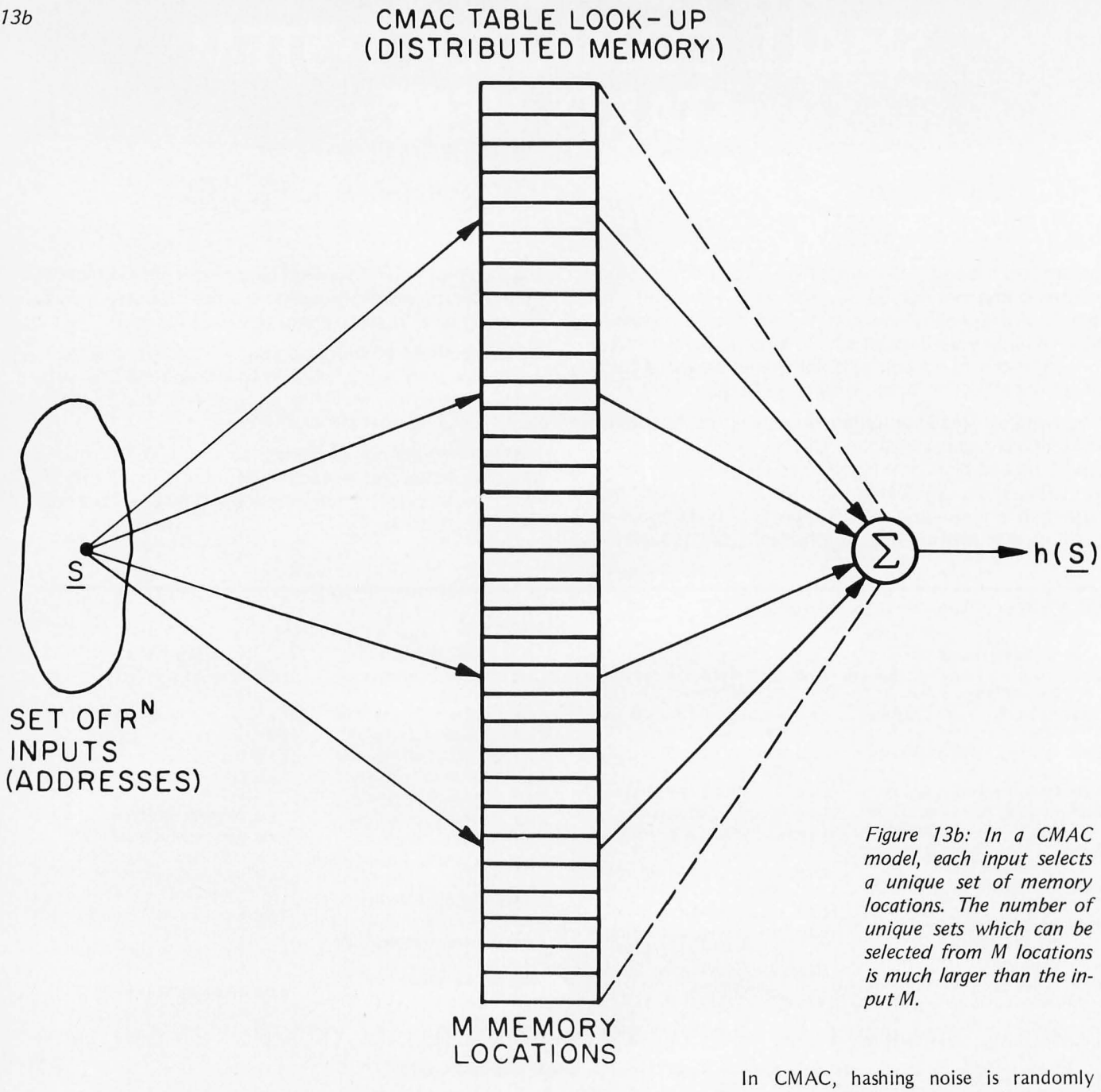

Figure 13b: In a CMAC model, each input selects a unique set of memory locations. The number of unique sets which can be selected from M locations is much larger than the input M.

onto each of the addresses in the smaller space. One method is simply to overlay pages. Hashing works when the probability of a collision (ie: more than one filled location in the large memory mapping into the same address in the small memory) is low.

CMAC can tolerate a fairly high incidence of collisions because of its distributed memory (ie: its output is the sum of many locations). Thus a collision (which in a conventional memory would make the output completely incorrect) in CMAC introduces only a small amount of noise into the output. Hash coding noise can be seen in the base plane in figure 12a, b, c.

In CMAC, hashing noise is randomly scattered over the input space each time new data is stored. Thus each new data storage operation degrades previously stored data somewhat. The effect is that the contents of a CMAC memory are most accurately defined in the regions where it is most recently stored. Old data tends to gradually fade, or be "forgotten", due to being hashed over.

CMAC Memory Generalization

The fact that each possible CMAC input vector selects a unique *set* of memory locations rather than a single location implies that any particular location may be selected by more than one input vector. In fact, the

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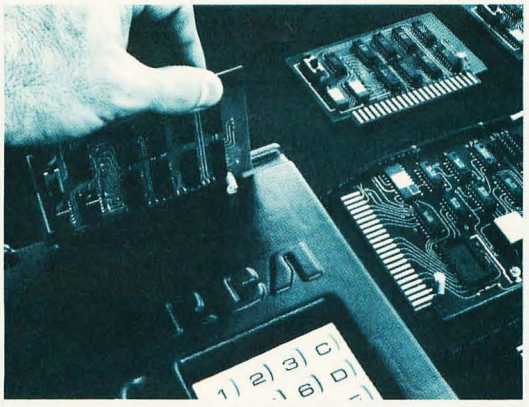

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(14a)

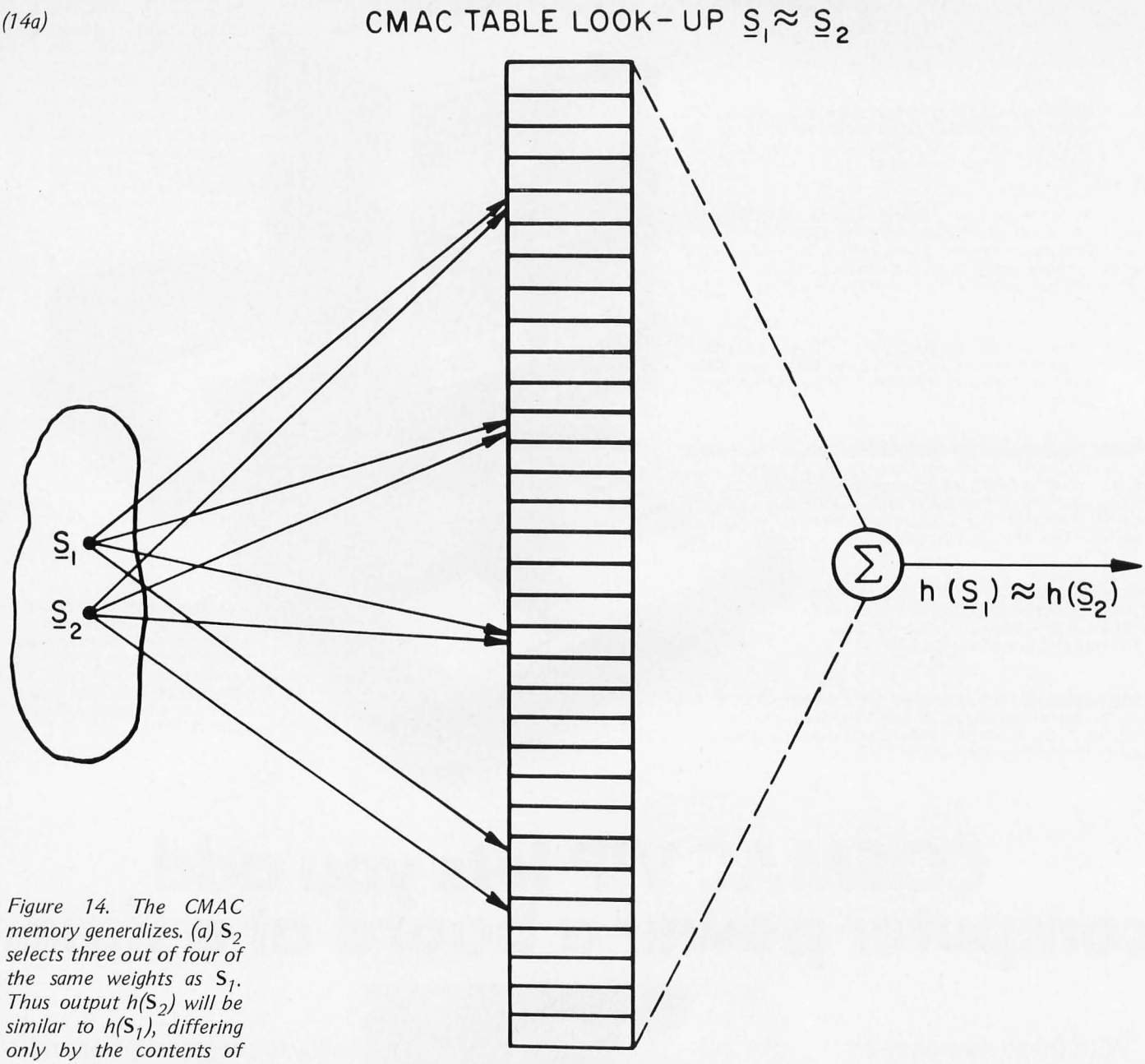


Figure 14. The CMAC memory generalizes. (a) S_2 selects three out of four of the same weights as S_1. Thus output $h(S_2)$ will be similar to $h(S_1)$, differing only by the contents of the location not in common. (b) When S_2 is outside of the neighborhood of generalization of S_1 the overlap goes to 0 (except for random hashing collisions).

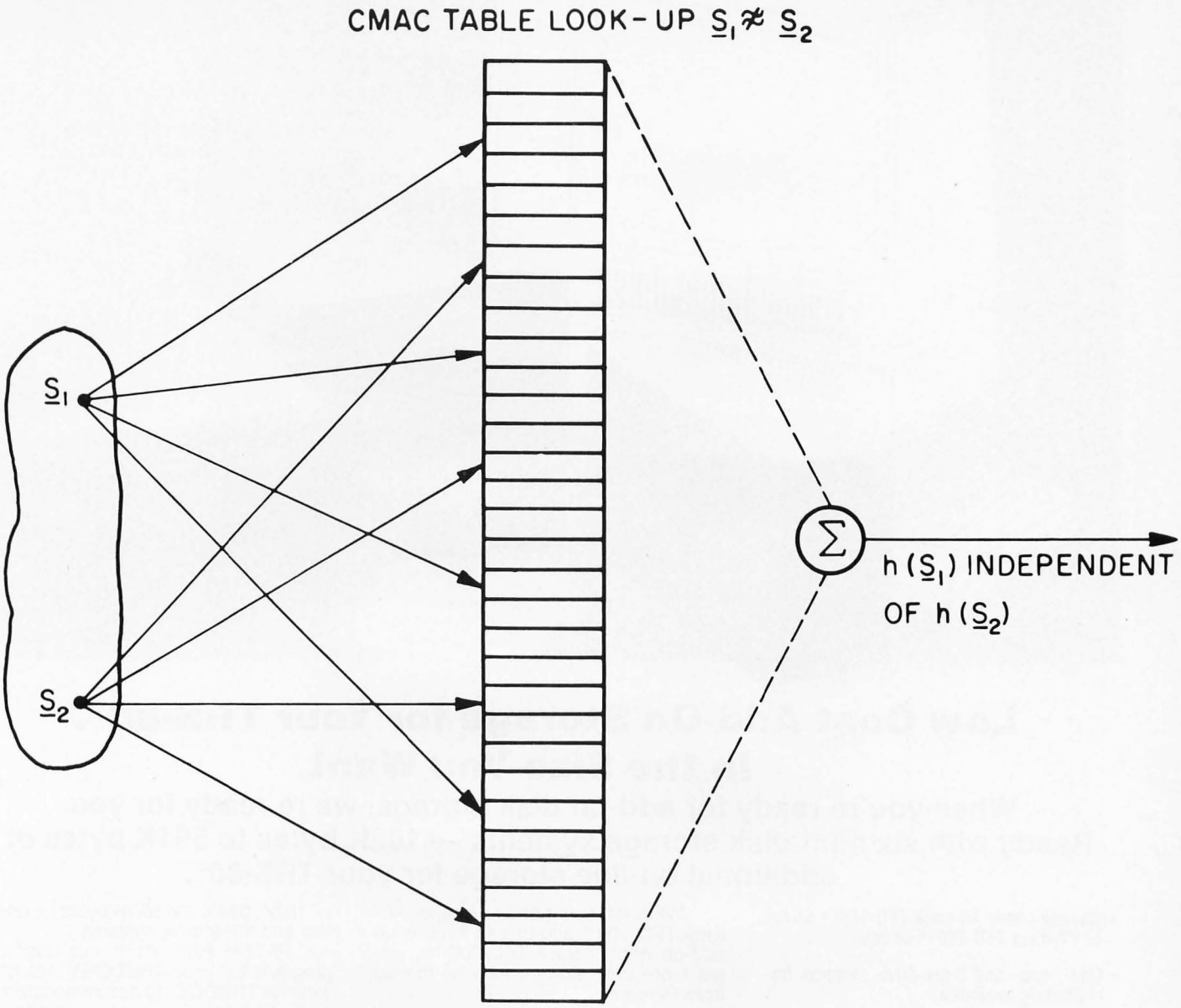
$S \rightarrow A^*$ mapping insures that any two input vectors which are similar (ie: close together in input space) will activate many of the same granule cells, and hence select many of the same weights. This is the property of CMAC which causes it to generalize.

In figure 14a the input vector S_2 selects three out of four of the same memory locations as S_1. Thus, the output $h(S_2)$ will be similar to $h(S_1)$, differing only by the contents of the single location which is not in common. The $S \rightarrow A^*$ mapping controls the amount of overlap between sets of selected memory locations such that, as the input space distance between two input vectors increases, the amount of overlap decreases. Finally, at some distance the overlap becomes 0 (except for random hashing collisions), as in figure 14b, and the sets of selected memory locations are disjoint. At that point input S_2 can be said to be outside the neighborhood of generalization of S_1. The value of the output $h(S_2)$ is thus independent of $h(S_1)$.

The extent of the neighborhood of generalization depends on both the number of elements in the set A^* and the resolution of the $s_i \rightarrow m_i^*$ mappings. It is possible in CMAC to make the neighborhood of generalization broad along some variable axes and limited along others by using different resolution quantizing functions for different input variables. This corresponds to the effect in the cerebellum where some input variables are resolved finely by many mossy fibers and others resolved more coarsely by fewer mossy fibers.

A good example of generalization can be

(14b)

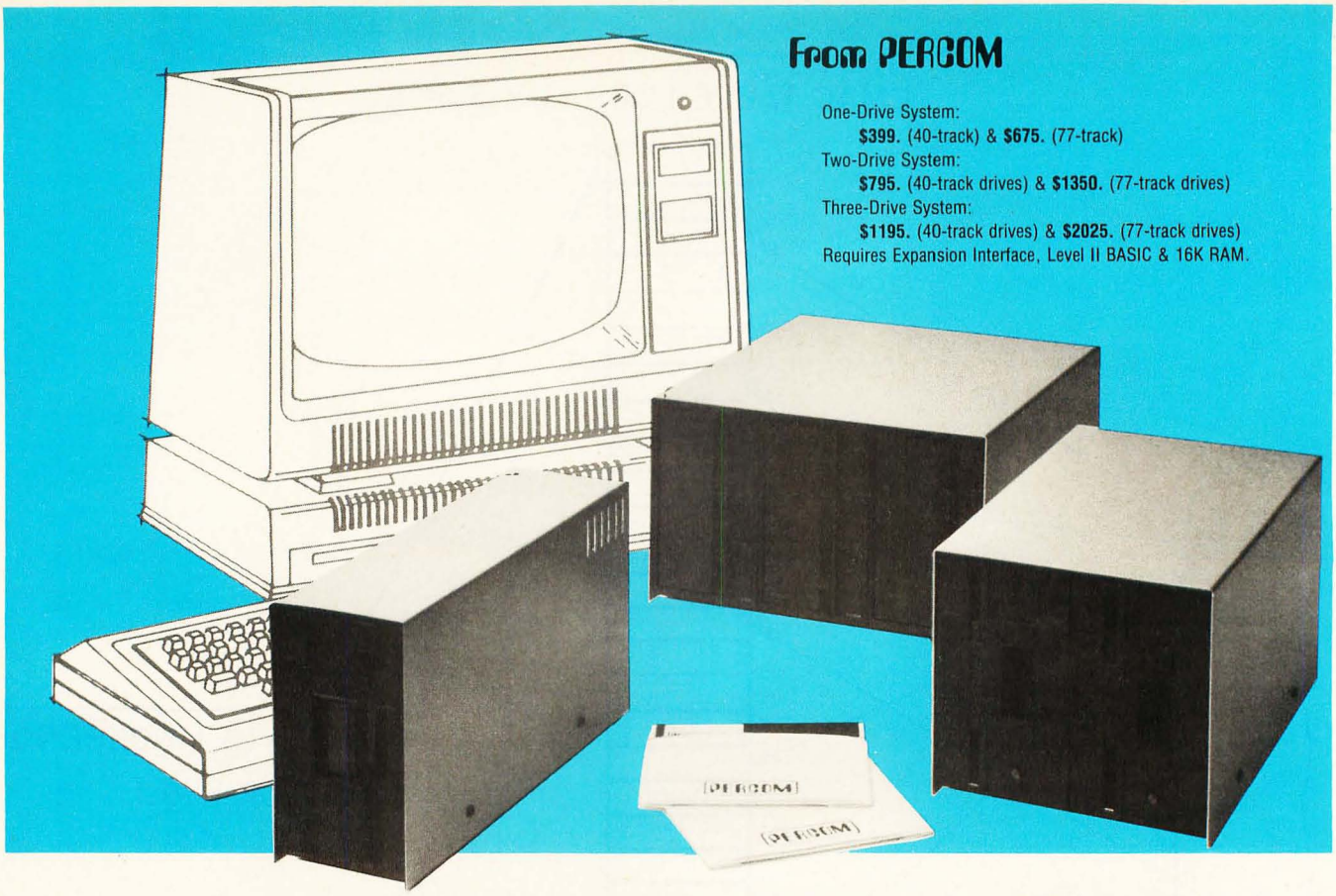


seen in figure 12a. Following a single data storage operation at S_1 = (90, 90) we find that an input vector S_2 = (91, 90) will produce the output p = 31/32 even though nothing had ever been explicitly stored at (91, 90). This occurs because S_2 selects 31 of the same weights as S_1. A third vector S_3 = (92, 90) or a fourth S_4 = (90, 92), will produce p = 30/32 because of sharing 30 weights with S_1. Not until two input vectors are more than 32 resolution elements apart do they map into disjoint sets of weights.

As a result of generalization, CMAC memory addresses in the same neighborhood are not independent. Data storage at any point alters the values stored at neighboring points. Pulling one point to a particular value as in figure 12a produces the effect of stretching a rubber sheet.

Generalization has the advantage that data storage (or training) is not required at every point in the input space in order for an approximately correct response to be obtained. This means that a good first approximation to the correct H function can be stored for a sizable envelope around a T_s trajectory by training at only a few points along that trajectory. For example, figure 12c demonstrates that training at only 16 points along the trajectory defined by s_2 = 90 generalizes to approximately the correct function for all 360 points along that trajectory plus a great many more points in an envelope around that trajectory. Further training at 175 points scattered over the entire space generalizes to approximately the correct response for all 360 by 180 (over 64,000) points in the input space as shown in figure 12d.

Generalization enables CMAC to predict



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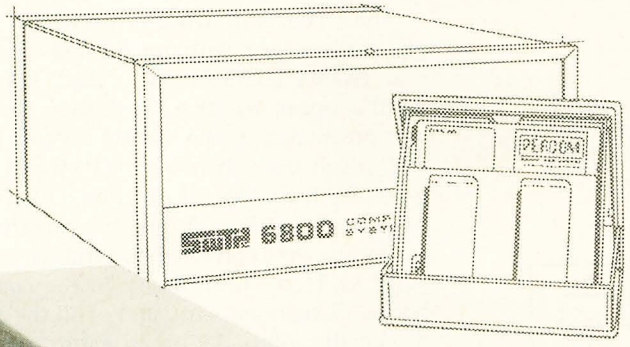

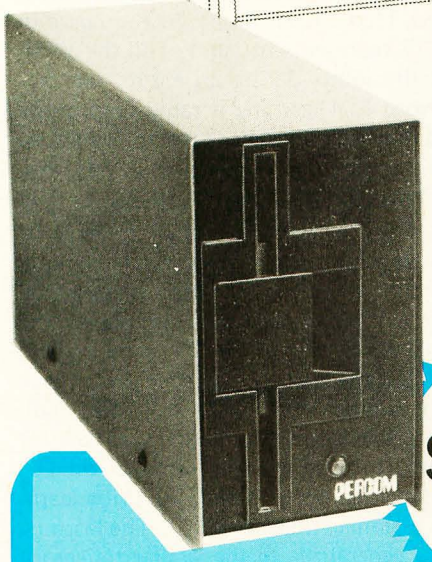

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ABOUT THE AUTHOR:

Dr James S Albus worked for NASA from 1957 to 1972 designing optical and electronic subsystems for over 15 spacecraft, and for one year managed the NASA Artificial Intelligence Program. Since 1973 he has been with the National Bureau of Standards where he has received several awards for his work in advanced computer control systems for industrial robots. He has written a survey article on robot systems for Scientific American *(February 1976) and his Cerebellar Model Arithmetic Computer won the* Industrial Research Magazine *IR-100 Award as one of the 100 most significant new products of 1975.*

on the basis of a few representative learning experiences what the appropriate behavioral response should be for similar situations. This is essential in order to cope with the complexities of real world environments where identical T_s trajectories seldom, if ever, reoccur.

An example of how CMAC uses generalization to learn trajectories in a high-dimensional space is shown in figure 15. A seven degree of freedom manipulator arm was controlled by seven CMACs, one for each joint actuator, such that the output vector $\mathbf{P} = H(\mathbf{S})$ had seven components. The input vector $\mathbf{S}$ to each CMAC contained 18 variables corresponding to position and velocity feedback from each of the seven joints of the arm, plus four binary bits defining the Elemental Move Command. The resolution on the feedback variables was different for each of the seven CMACs, being highest resolution from the joint driven by the output p_1 and lower for other joints in inverse proportion to their distance along the arm from the controlled joint.

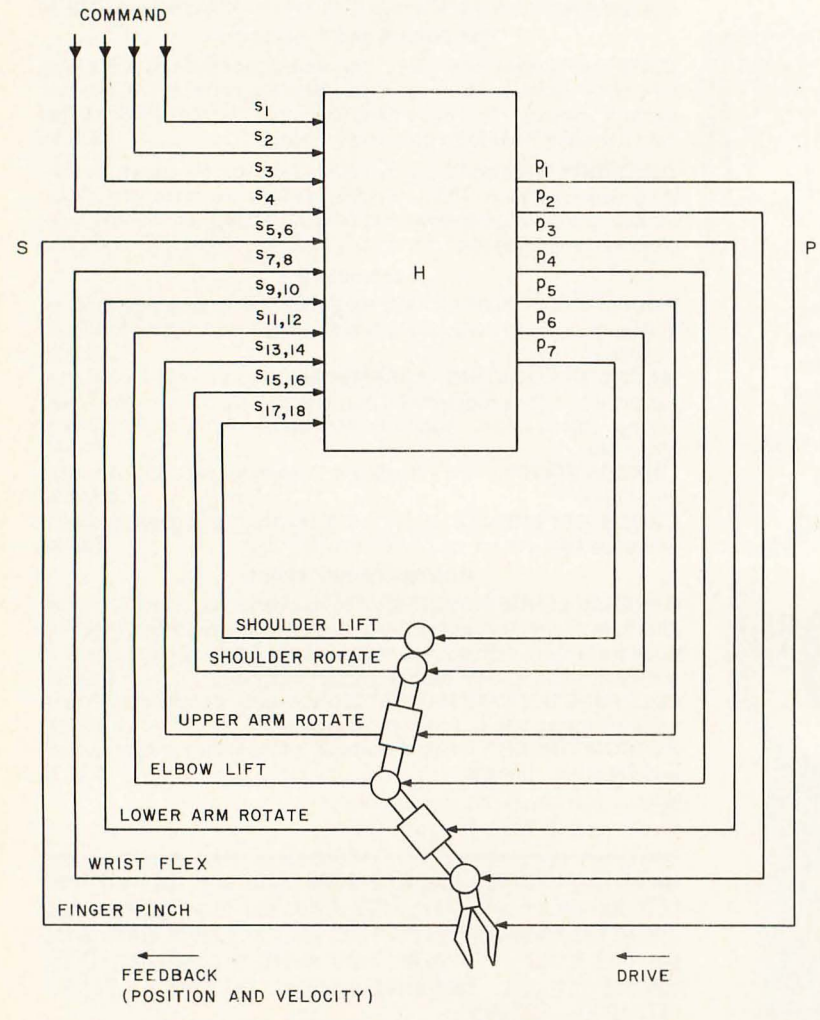

Figure 15. Information flow diagram for a robot arm controlled by seven CMACs.

The desired output trajectory $T\hat{p}_a$ is shown as the set of solid curves marked (a) in figure 16. This trajectory corresponds to the Elemental Movement <SLAP> which is a motion an arm might make in swatting a mosquito.

The (i) curve in figure 17 shows the learning performance with no previous learning over twenty complete $T\hat{p}_a$ "slap" motions. At the beginning of each motion the arm was positioned at the correct starting point and driven from there by the $\mathbf{P}$ output computed by the CMAC H function. Differences between $\mathbf{P}$ and $\hat{\mathbf{P}}$ at 20 points along the slap trajectory were corrected by formula 1 (with g set to 1/20). Each point on the curve in figure 17 represents the sum of all the errors for all the joints during an entire slap motion. Note that learning is rapid despite the high dimensional input space in which no two T_s trajectories were ever exactly the same. This is due to CMAC's ability to generalize from a relatively small number of specific teaching experiences to a large number of similar but not identical trajectories.

The (ii) curve in figure 17 shows the learning performance on the same twenty $T\hat{p}_a$ trajectories when preceded by twenty training sessions on the $T\hat{p}_b$ trajectory indicated by the dotted set of curves marked (b) in figure 16. Note that performance on $T\hat{p}_a$ is consistently better following prior learning on a similar trajectory $T\hat{p}_b$. The learning on $T\hat{p}_b$ generalizes to the similar trajectory $T\hat{p}_a$.

Needless to say, predictions based on generalization are not always correct and sometimes need to be refined by further learning. The ability of CMAC to discriminate (ie: to produce different outputs for different inputs, (S_1 and S_2) depends upon how many weights selected by S_1 are *not* also selected by S_2, and how different in value those weights are. If two inputs which are close together in input space are desired to produce significantly *different* outputs,

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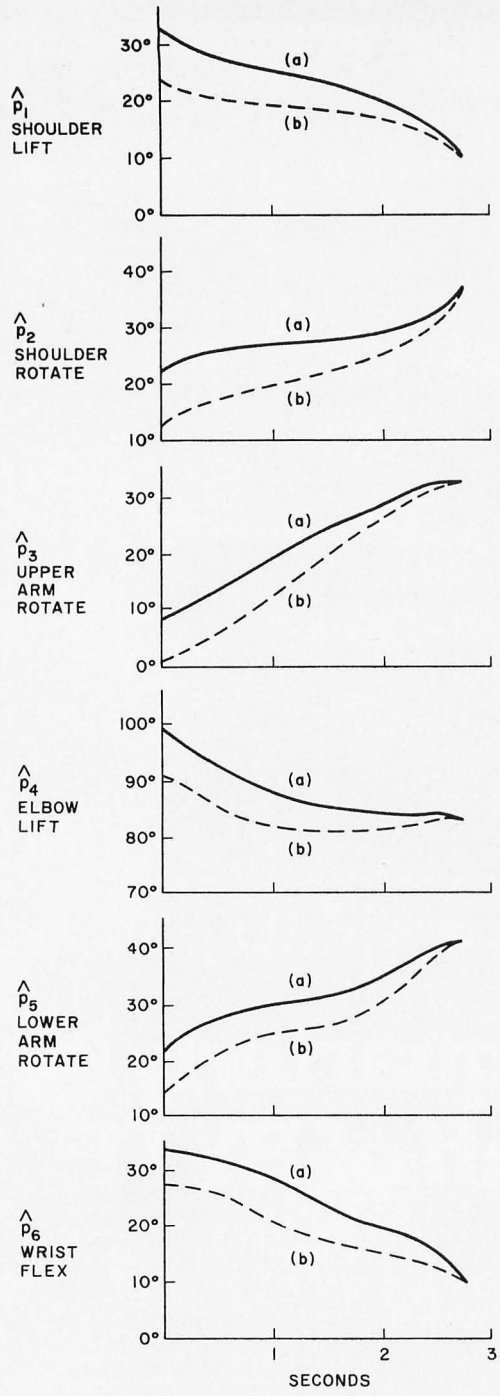

Figure 16. Two similar trajectories $T\hat{p}_a$ and $T\hat{p}_b$ which have different starting points but the same endpoint. Both trajectories define a version of an Elemental Movement (SLAP) which was taught to the CMACs of figure 15.

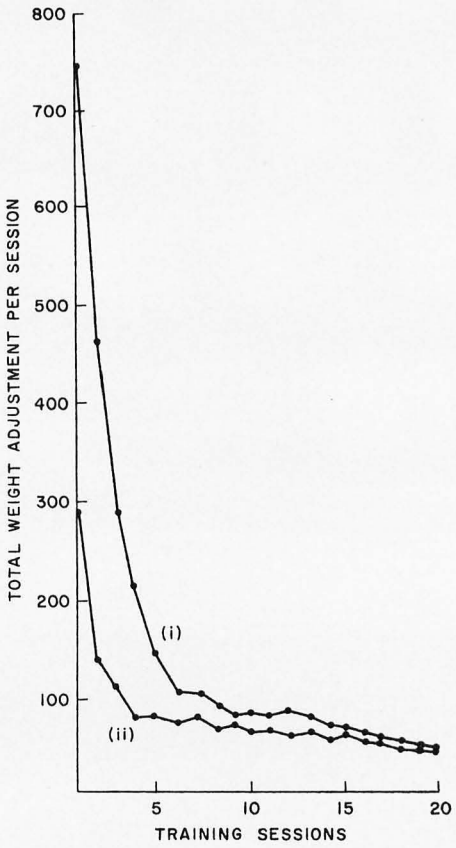

Figure 17. CMAC learning and generalization performance on the SLAP motion $T\hat{p}_a$. Curve i is with no previous training. Curve ii is after 20 training sessions on the similar trajectory $T\hat{p}_b$. The improvement of ii over i is due to generalization.

then repeated training may be required to overcome the (in this case erroneous) tendency of CMAC to generalize by building up large differences in the few weights which are not in common.

In most behavioral control situations, sharp discontinuities requiring radically different outputs for highly similar inputs do not occur. Indeed most servocontrol functions have simple S shaped characteristics along each variable axis. The complexity in control computation in multivarient servosystems typically derives from cross-products which affect the slope of the function, or produce skewness, and nonsymetrical hills and valleys in various corners of the N dimensional space. As can be seen from figure 11 these are the type of functions CMAC can readily store, and hence compute. Nevertheless, even on smooth functions generalization may sometimes introduce errors by altering values stored at neighboring locations which were already correct. This type of error corresponds to what psychologists call learning interference, or *retroactive inhibition.*

For example, in the learning of the two similar trajectories in figure 16, training on $T\hat{p}_a$ causes degradation or interference with what was previously learned on $T\hat{p}_b$. This can be seen in figure 18 where, after 20 training sessions on $T\hat{p}_b$, the CMAC is trained 20 sessions on $T\hat{p}_a$. Following this the performance on $T\hat{p}_b$ is degraded. However, the error rate on $T\hat{p}_b$ quickly improves

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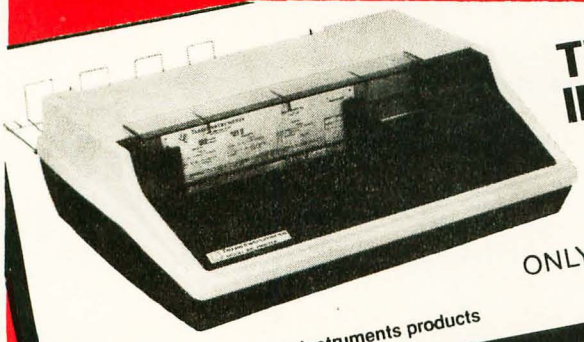

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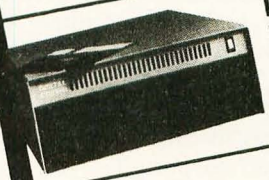

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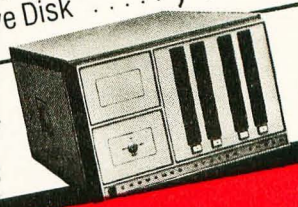

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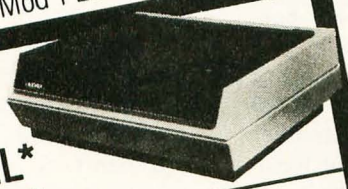

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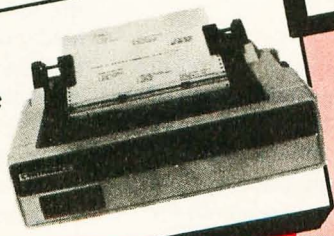

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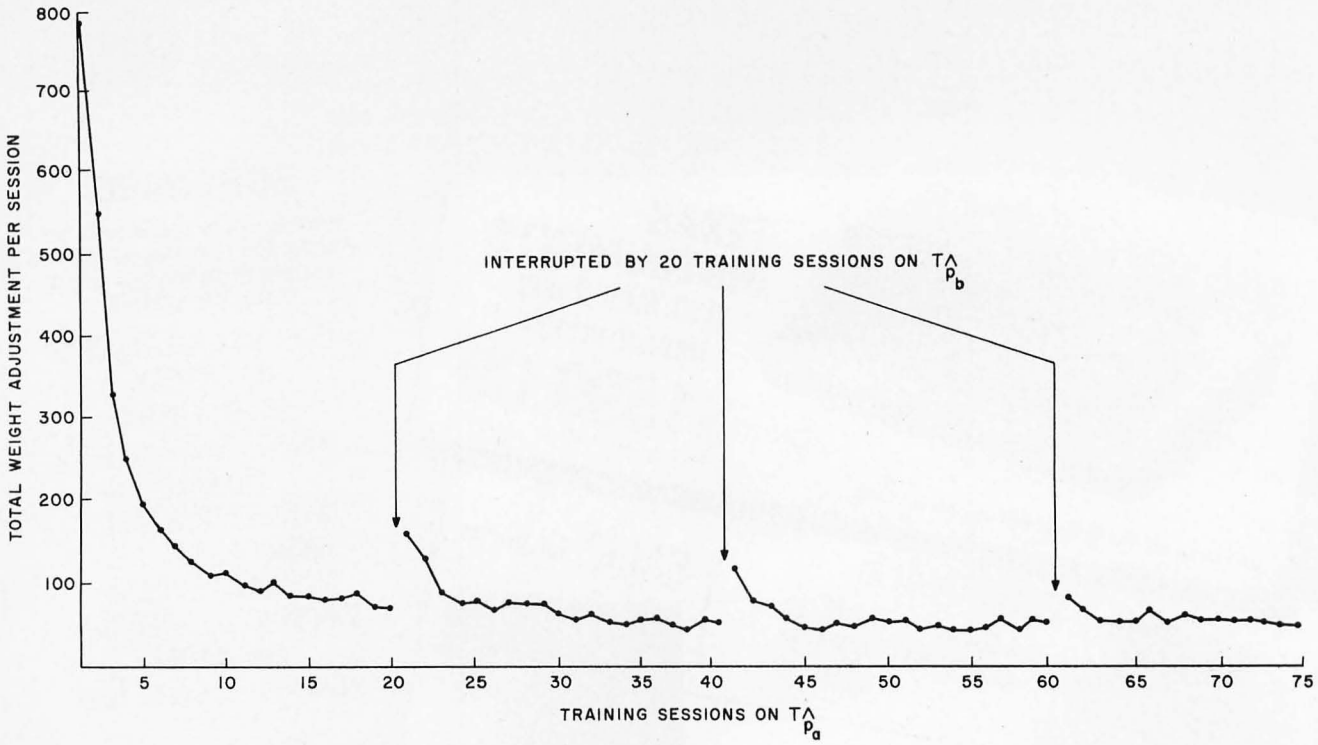

Figure 18. The effect of learning interference. If training on $T\hat{p}_a$ is interrupted by training on the similar trajectory $T\hat{p}_b$, a degradation in performance on $T\hat{p}_a$ is observed. Repeated iterations gradually overcome this learning interference.

over another 20 training sessions. Following this another 20 training sessions are conducted on $T\hat{P}_a$. Again degradation in $T\hat{P}_b$ due to learning interference occurs, but not as severely as before. Another set of 20 training sessions on $T\hat{P}_b$ followed by another 20 on $T\hat{P}_a$ shows that the amount of learning interference is declining due to the build-up of values in the few weights which are not common to both T_{S_a} and T_{S_b}. Thus, learning interference, or retroactive inhibition, is overcome by repetition of the learning process.

CMAC as a Computer

The ability of CMAC to store and recall (and hence compute) a general class of multivarient mathematical functions of the form **P** = H(**S**) demonstrates how a relatively small cluster of neurons can calculate the type of mathematical functions required for multivarient servomechanisms, coordinate transformations, conditional branches, task decomposition operators, and IF/THEN production rules. These are the types of functions that we showed in part 1. They are required for generating goal-directed behavior (ie: the purposive strings of behavior patterns such as running, jumping, flying, hunting, fleeing, fighting, and mating, which are routinely accomplished with apparent ease by the tiniest rodents, birds, and even insects).

In the case of multivarient servomechanisms the **S** vector corresponds to commands plus feedback (ie: **S** = **C** + **F**). For coordinate transformations the **S** vector contains the arguments as well as the variables in the transformation matrix.

In the case of conditional branches, one or more of the input variables in **S** can be used to select different regions in input space where entirely different functions are stored. Assume, for example, that in figure 12 a third variable s_3 had been included in the function being stored. Assume that s_3 is held constant at $s_3 = 0$ while storing the function $p = (\sin x)(\sin y)$. Following that, an entirely different function, say $p = 3x + 5y^2$, could be stored with s_3 held constant at $s_3 = 50$. Since every point in the input space for $s_3 = 0$ is outside the neighborhood of generalization of the input space for $s_3 = 50$, there would be no interference except for random hashing collisions. The stored function would then be:

$$p = (\sin x)(\sin y) \quad \text{if } s_3 = 0$$
$$p = 3x + 5y^2 \quad \text{if } s_3 = 50 \quad .$$

In the interval $0 < s_3 < 50$ the function would change smoothly from $p = (\sin x)(\sin y)$ to $p = 3x + 5Y^2$. Additional func-

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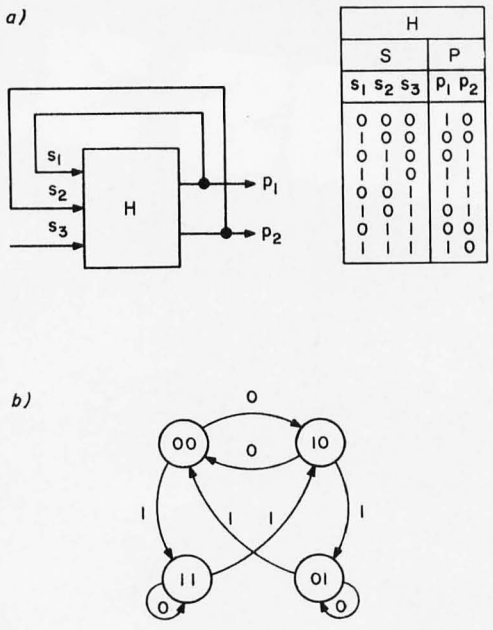


Figure 19. A CMAC with feedback directly from output to input behaves like a finite state automaton for binary inputs and outputs. It behaves like a "fuzzy state automaton" for nonbinary s and p variables.

tions could be stored for other values of s_3, or other conditional variables s_4, s_5, and so on might be used for additional branching capabilities. If these conditional variables are part of a command vector, then each different input command can select a different subgoal generator. If they are part of the feedback, then different environmental conditions can trigger different behavioral patterns for accomplishing the subgoals.

It is possible to construct a CMAC equivalent of any finite state automaton.

If some of the variables in the P output vector loop directly back to become part of the S input vector (as frequently happens in the cerebellum as well as in other parts of the brain), then CMAC becomes a type of finite state automaton, string generator, or task decomposition operator. For example, the CMAC in figure 19a behaves like the finite state automaton in 19b. The loopback inputs s_1 and s_2 define the state of the machine, and s_3 is the input. The H function defines the state transition table. In general it is possible to construct a CMAC equivalent of any finite state automaton. Of course, CMAC can accept inputs and produce outputs which are nonbinary. Furthermore, the outputs generalize. Thus, CMAC is a sort of "fuzzy state automaton."

A Cerebellar Model Arithmetic Computer with direct feedback from output to input demonstrates how a neural cluster can generate a string of outputs (subgoals) in response to a single input, or unchanging string of inputs. Additional variables added to F from an external source increase the dimensionality of the input space and can thus alter the output string (task decomposition) in response to environmental conditions.

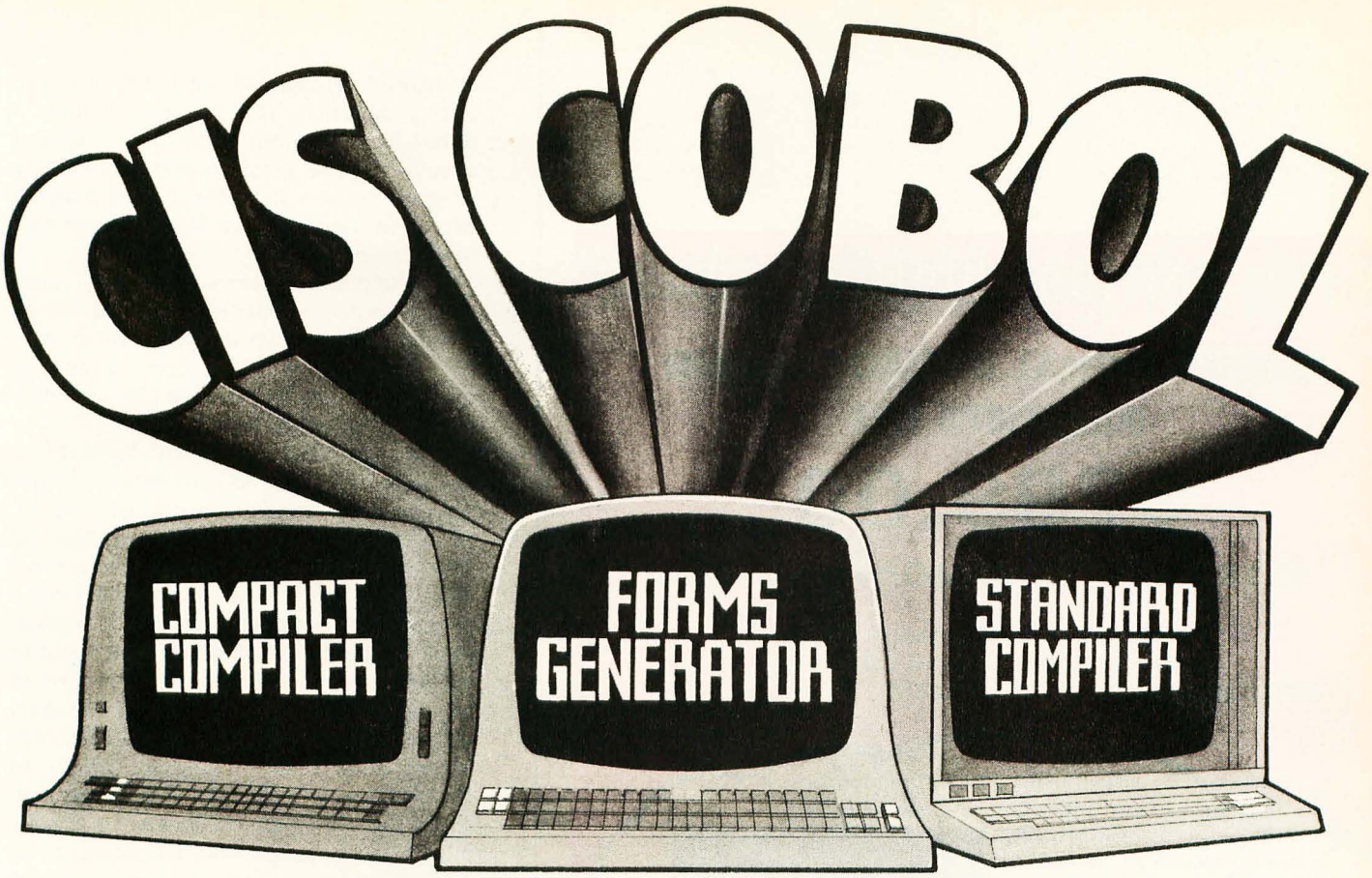
The different possible feedback pathways to a CMAC control module cast light on a long standing controversy in neurophysiology regarding whether behavior patterns are generated by "stimulus-response chaining" (ie: a sequence of actions in which feedback from sensory organs is required to step from one action to the next) or by "central-patterning" (ie: a sequence which is generated by internal means alone). A CMAC hierarchy may include tight feedback loops from the output of one level back to its own input to generate central patterns, longer internal loops from one level to another to cycle through a sequence of central patterns, as well as feedback from the environment to select or modify central patterns or their sequence in accordance with environmental conditions.

The above discussion makes it obvious that CMAC can also implement IF/THEN production rules by the simple mechanism of making the S vector (or the T_s trajectory) correspond to an IF premise. The P vector output (or T_p trajectory) becomes the THEN consequent.

The capability of CMAC to simulate a finite state automaton, to execute the equivalent of a conditional branch, and to compute a broad class of multivarient functions makes it possible to construct the CMAC equivalent of a computer program. Conversely it is possible to construct a hierarchy of computing modules, perhaps implemented on a network of microprocessors, which is the equivalent of a CMAC hierarchy. This has profound implications regarding the type of computing architecture which might be used to build a model of the brain for robot control.

Note in this regard that CMAC produces nothing comparable to a DO loop or an interrupt. Each CMAC is a state machine which samples (or polls) a set of input variables and computes a set of output variables. There is no way that it can be instructed to DO something N times. CMAC can, of course, perform a DO-UNTIL in the sense that if the input is constant, the output will remain constant until the input changes. Thus for a constant input S_1, CMAC will DO $P_1 = H(S_1)$ UNTIL S_1 changes to S_2. But this is not a DO loop in the customary sense.

Similarly, one or more of the CMAC input variables can be used to "interrupt" an ongoing trajectory by causing a branch to a new trajectory. A hierarchy of CMACs can return to the interrupt trajectory after a deviation, if the higher level goals remain



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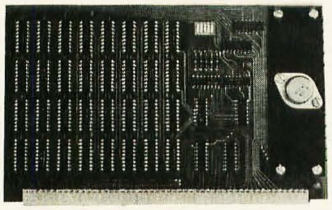

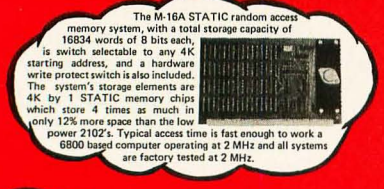

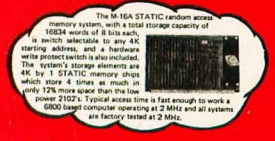

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unchanged throughout the lower level trajectory deviation. This, however, is quite a different mechanism from the interrupt circuitry in the normal computer where a program counter is stored so that program execution can continue after the interrupt has been serviced.

The implication here is that a set of robot control programs modeled after a CMAC hierarchy will include *no* DO-loops and will *not* be interrupt driven. Every computing module will implement a simple state mapping function of the form P = H(S).

Note also that in a CMAC hierarchy, a deviation in a higher level trajectory changes the command string, and hence the program, of all the levels below it. This implies real time modification of program statements and thus makes the use of a compiler based programming language somewhat cumbersome. A robot control system modeled after a CMAC hierarchy should use some form of an interpretive language where program statements are translated into machine code at execution time. A language similar to FORTH seems ideal. (An interpretive language can, of course, be written in a compiler based language. Also, languages can be devised which are partially compiled and partially interpreted.) We will return to these and other practical issues of computing architecture for robot control at a later time.

CMAC as a Pattern Recognizer

As was discussed in part 1, any spatial pattern can be represented as a vector. For example, a picture can be represented as an array, or ordered list, of brightness or color values. A symbolic character can be represented as an ordered list of features (or arbitrary numbers, as in the ASCII convention). Any temporal pattern can be represented as a trajectory through an N-dimensional space. For example, an audio pattern is a sequence of pressure or voltage values (ie: a one-dimensional trajectory). A moving picture or television scene corresponds to a sequence of picture vectors (ie: an N-dimensional trajectory where N is the number of picture resolution elements or pixels).

The fundamental problem of pattern recognition is to name the patterns. All the patterns with the same name are in the same class. When a pattern has been given a name we say it has been recognized. For example, when the image of a familiar face falls on my retina and I say to myself "That's George," I have recognized the visual pattern by naming it.

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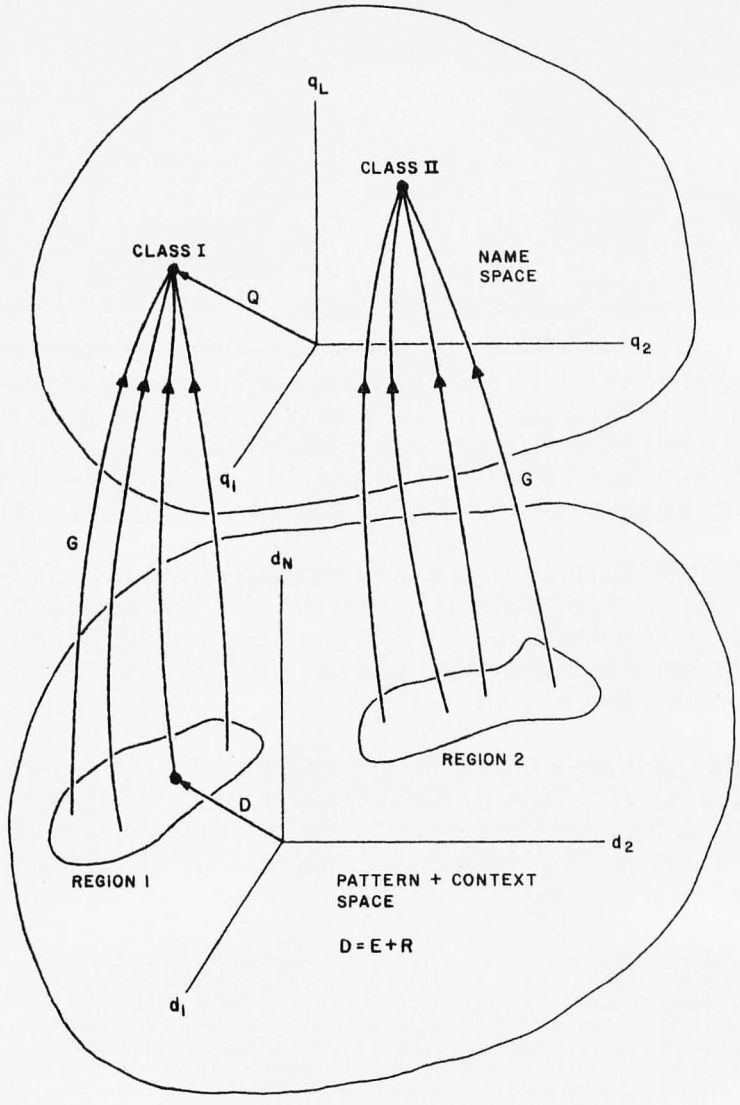

Figure 20. The **D** *vector is composed of sensory variables* E *and context variables* **R**. *The function G recognizes the existence of a* D *vector in a particular region of pattern plus context space by outputting a* **Q** *vector which is the name of that region.*

vectors in the sensory processing hierarchy and those in the behavior-generating hierarchy. Thus we will define the input vector to a CMAC pattern recognizer as:

$$D = E + R$$

where:

$$E = (d_1, d_2, \ldots, d_i)$$

is a vector, or list, of data variables derived from sensory input from the external environment, and:

$$R = (d_{i+1}, \ldots, d_N)$$

is a vector of data variables derived from recalled experiences, or internal context. The CMAC mapping operator in the sensory processing hierarchy will be denoted G and the output **Q** such that:

$$Q = G(D)$$

We can now define a CMAC **D** vector to represent a sensory pattern plus context such that each component d_i represents a data point or feature of the pattern plus context. The existence of the **D** vector within a particular region of space therefore corresponds to the occurrence of a particular set of features or a particular pattern in a particular context. The recognition problem is then to find a set of CMAC weights such that the G function computes an output vector:

$$Q = G(D)$$

such that **Q** is the name of the pattern plus context **D** as shown in figure 20.

In other words G can recognize the existence of a particular pattern and context (ie: the existence of **D** in a particular region of input space) by outputting the name **Q**. For example,

Q = Class I whenever **D** is in Region 1
Q = Class II whenever **D** is in Region 2
.
.
.
etc.

The **D** → A mapping in the sensory processing CMAC can be chosen so as to define the size of the neighborhood of generalization on the input space. This means that, as long as the regions of input space corresponding to pattern classes are reasonably well separated, the G function can reliably distinquish one region of input space from another and hence classify the corresponding sensory patterns correctly.

In the case where the **D** vector is time dependent, an extended portion of a trajectory T_D may map into a single name **Q** as shown in figure 21. It then is possible by integrating **Q** over time and thresholding the integral to detect, or recognize, a temporal pattern T_D such as a sound or a visual movement.

Note that the recognition, or naming, of a temporal pattern (as illustrated in figure 21) is the inverse of the decomposition of a task as illustrated in figures 14 thru 17 in the previous article in this series. In task decomposition a slowly varying command C is decomposed into a rapidly changing output P. In pattern recognition a rapidly changing sensory experience **E** is recognized by a slowly varying name **Q**.

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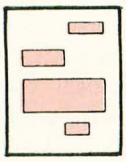

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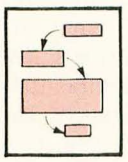

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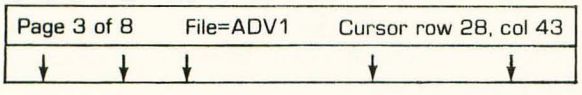

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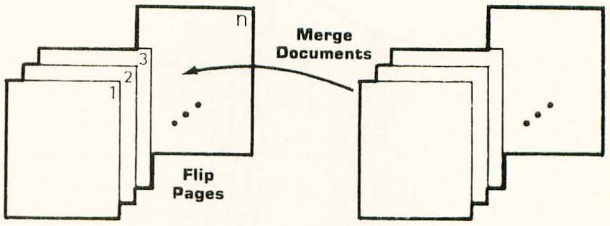

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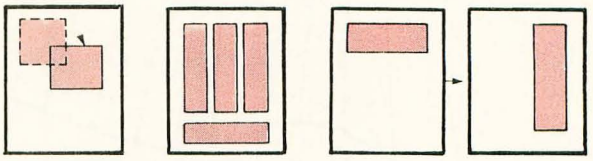

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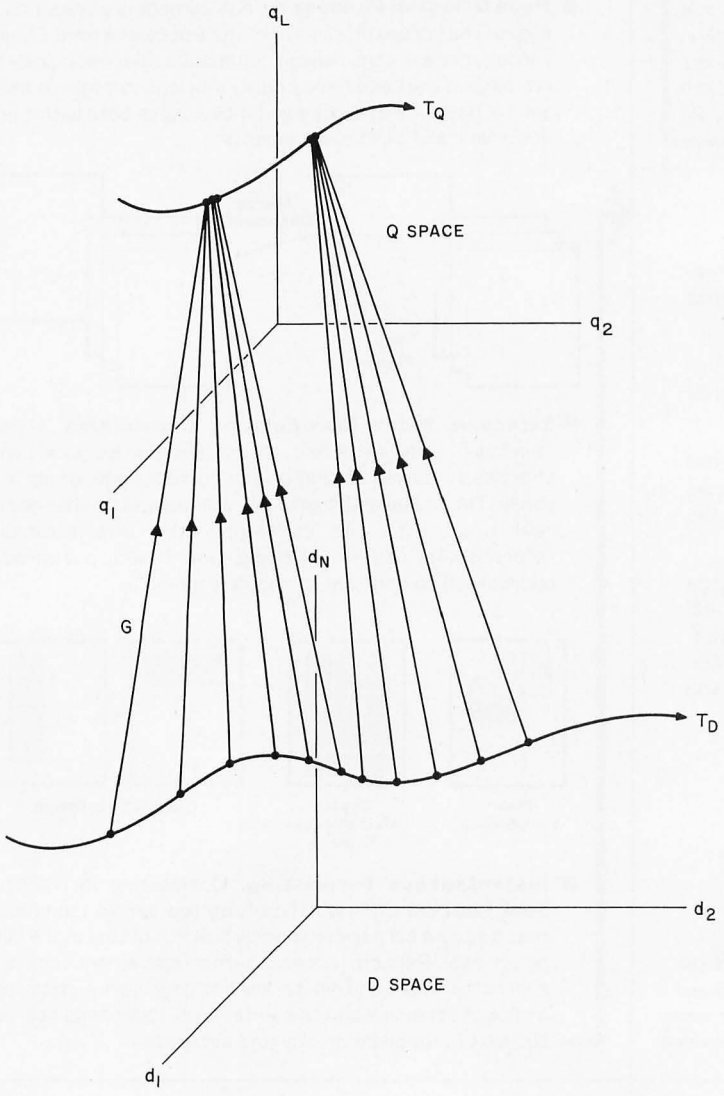

Figure 21. A time varying **D** *vector traces out a trajectory T_D which represents a sensory experience T_E taking place in the context T_R. A section of a T_D trajectory which maps into a small region of Q space corresponds to the recognition of an extended temporal pattern as a single event.*

The Use of Context

It frequently occurs in pattern recognition or signal detection that the instantaneous value of the sensory input vector **E** is ambiguous or misleading. This is particularly true in noisy environments or in situations where data dropouts are likely to occur. In such cases the ambiguity can often be resolved or the missing data filled in if the context can be taken into account, or if the classification decision can make use of some additional knowledge or well founded prediction regarding what patterns are expected.

In CMAC the addition of context or prediction variables **R** to the sensory input **E** such that **D** = **E** + **R** increases the dimensionality of the pattern input space. The context variables thus can shift the total input (pattern) vector **D** to different parts of input space depending on the context. Thus, as shown in figure 22, the ambiguous patterns E_1 and E_2, which are too similar to be reliably recognized as being in separate classes, can easily be distinguished when accompanied by context R_1 and R_2.

In the brain, many variables can serve as context variables. In fact, any fiber carrying information about anything occurring simultaneously with the input pattern can be regarded as context. Thus context can be data from other sensory modalities as well as information regarding what is happening in the behavior-generating hierarchy. In many cases, data from this latter source is particularly relevant to the pattern recognition task, because the sensory input at any instant of time depends heavily upon what action is currently being executed. For example, information from the behavior-generating hierarchy provides contextual information necessary for the visual processing hierarchy to distinguish between motion *of* the eyes and motion of the room *about* the eyes.

In a classic experiment, von Holst and Mittelstaedt demonstrated that this kind of contextual data pathway actually exists in insects. They observed that a fly placed in a chamber with rotating walls will tend to turn in the direction of rotation so as to null the visual motion. They then rotated the fly's head 180° around its body axis (a procedure which for some reason is not fatal to the fly) and observed that the fly now circled endlessly. By attempting to null the visual motion it was now actually increasing it.

Later experiments with motion perception in humans showed that the perception of a stationary environment despite motion of the retinal image caused by moving the eyes is dependent on contextual information derived from the behavior-generating hierarchy. The fact that the context is actually derived from the behavior-generating hierarchy rather than from sensory feedback can be demonstrated by anesthetizing the eye muscles and observing that the effect depends on the *intent* to move the eyes, and not the physical act of movement. The perceptual correction occurs even when the eye muscles are paralyzed so that no motion actually results from the conscious intent to move.

CMAC as a Predictive Memory

Contextual information can also provide predictions of what sensory data to expect. This allows the sensory processing modules

to do predictive filtering, to compare incoming data with predicted data, and to "flywheel" through noisy data or data dropouts.

The mechanism by which such predictions, or expectations, can be generated is illustrated in figure 23. Here contextual input for the sensory processing hierarchy is shown as being processed through a CMAC M module before being presented to the sensory pattern recognition G modules at each level. Inputs to the M modules derive from the P vector of the corresponding behavior-generating hierarchy at the same level, as well as an X vector which includes context derived from other areas of the brain, such as other sensory modalities or other behavior-generating hierarchies. These M modules compute $R = M(P + X)$. Their position in the links from the behavior-generating to the sensory processing hierarchies allows them to function as a predictive memory.

They are in a position to store and recall (or remember) sensory experiences (E vector trajectories) which occur simultaneously with P and X vector trajectories in the behavior-generating hierarchy and other locations within the brain. For example, data may be stored in each M_i module by setting the desired output $\hat{R}_i$ equal to the sensory experience vector E_i. At each instant of time $t = k$, sensory data represented by E_i^k will then be stored on the set of weights selected by the $P_i^k + X_i^k$ vector. The result will be that the sensory experience represented by the sensory data trajectory T_{E_i} will be stored in association with the context trajectory $T_{P_i}+X_i$.

Any time afterwards, $t = k + j$, a reoccurrence of the same context vector $P_i^{k+j} + X_i^{k+j} = P_i^k + X_i^k$ will produce an output R_i^{k+j} equal to the E_i^k stored at time $t = k$. Thus a reoccurrence of the same context trajectory $T_{P_i} + X_i$ will produce a recall trajectory T_{R_i} equal to the earlier sensory

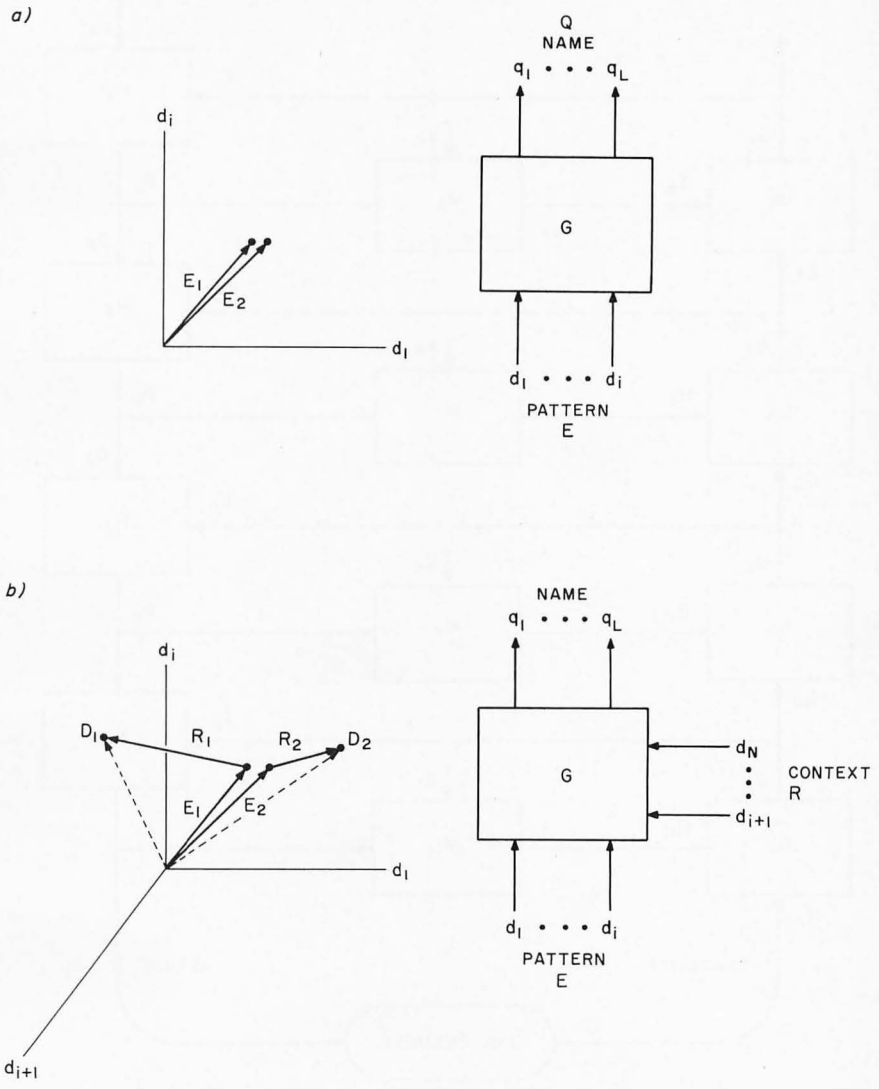

Figure 22. In (a) the two pattern vectors E_1 and E_2 are too close together in pattern space to be reliably recognized (ie: named) as being in different classes. In (b) the addition of context R_1 to E_1 and R_2 to E_2 makes the vectors D_1 and D_2 far enough apart in pattern plus context space to be easily recognized as in separate classes.

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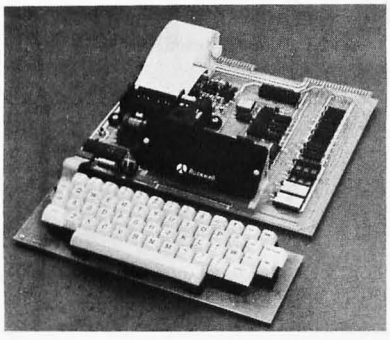

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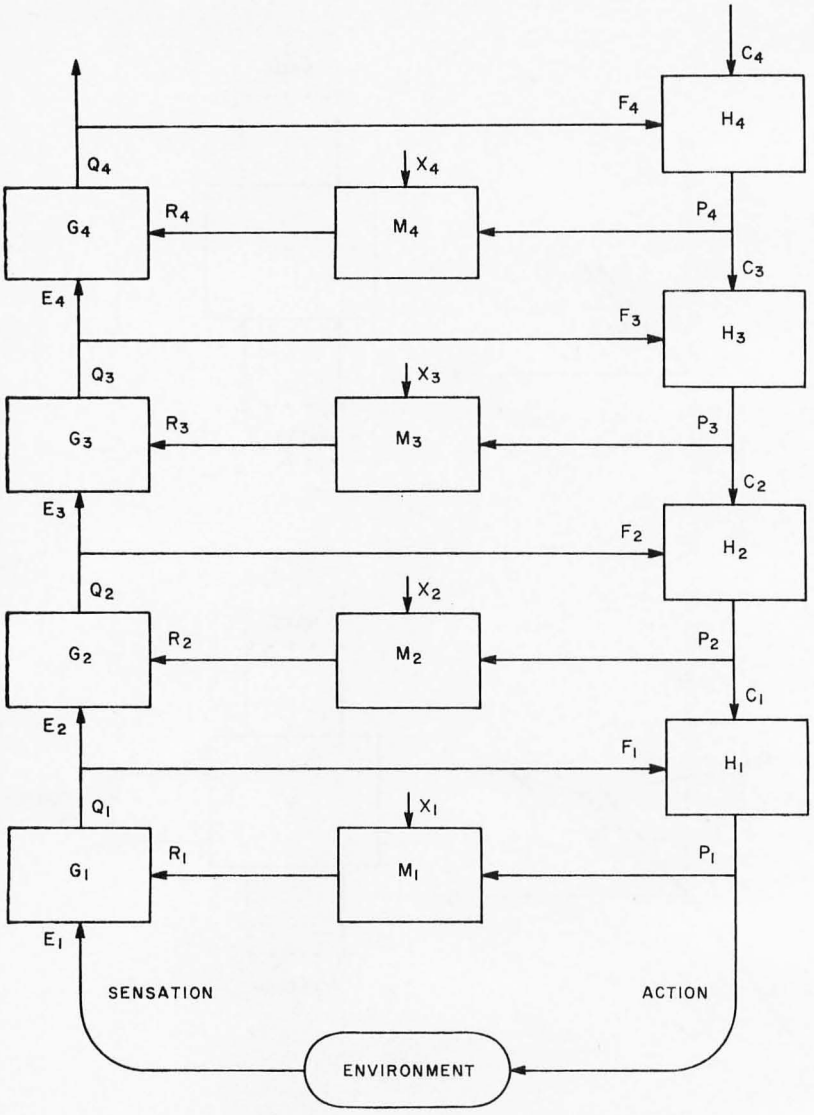

Figure 23. A cross-coupled, processing-generating hierarchy. The M_i modules remember sensory experiences which occur in association with specific activity in the generating hierarchy (P_i) and other sensory modalities (X_i). The M_i modules thus learn a set of internal expectations (ie: a predictive model) of the external world as seen through the sensory input channels.

experience T_{E_i}. These predictive memory modules thus provide the sensory processing hierarchy with a memory trace of what sensory data occurred on previous occasions when the motor generating hierarchy (and other parts of the brain) were in similar states along similar trajectories. This provides the sensory processing system with a prediction of what sensory data to expect. What is expected is whatever was experienced during similar activities in the past.

In the ideal case, the predictive memory modules M_i will generate an expected sensory data stream T_{R_i} which exactly duplicates the observed sensory data stream T_{E_i}. To the extent that this occurs in practice it enables the G_i modules to apply very powerful mathematical techniques to the sensory data. For example, the G_i modules can use the expected data T_{R_i} to:

- Perform cross-correlation or convolution algorithms to detect sync patterns and information bearing sequences buried in noise.
- Flywheel through data dropouts and noise bursts.
- Detect (or recognize) deviations or even omissions from an expected pattern as well as the occurrence of the pattern in its expected form.

If we assume, as shown in figure 23, that predictive recall modules exist at all levels of the processing-generating hierarchy, then it is clear that the memory trace itself is multileveled. In order to recall an experience precisely at all levels, it is necessary to generate the same context (ie: $P_i + X_i$ address) at all levels as existed when the experience was recorded.

Internal World Model

We can say that the predictive memory

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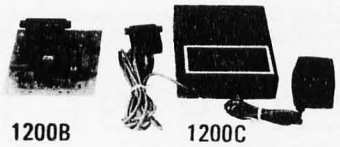

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modules M_i define the brain's internal model of the external world. They provide answers to the question, "If I do this and that, what will happen?" The answer is that whatever happened before when this and that was done will probably happen again. In short, IF I do Y, THEN Z will happen when Z is whatever was stored in predictive memory the last time (or some statistical average over N last times) that I did Y, and Y is some action such as performing a task or pursuing a goal in a particular environment or situation, which is represented internally by the **P** vectors at the various different levels of the behavior-generating hierarchy and the **X** vectors describing the states of various other sensory processing behavior-generating hierarchies.

The M_i modules (as all CMAC modules) can be thought of as storing knowledge in the form of IF/THEN rules. The CMAC property of generalization produces a recall vector R_i (a THEN consequent) which is similar to the stored experience so long as the context vector $P_i + X_i$ (the IF premise) is within some neighborhood of the context vector during storage.

Much of the best and most exciting work now going on in the field of artificial intelligence revolves around IF/THEN production rules, and how to represent knowledge in large computer programs based on production rules. Practically any kind of knowledge, or set of beliefs, or rules of behavior can be represented as a set of production rules. The CMAC hierarchy shown in figure 23 illustrates how such computational mechanisms can arise in the neurological structure of the brain.

Conclusion

We have now completed the second step in our development. I have described a neurological model which can store and recall (and hence compute) a broad class of mathematical functions. I have shown how a hierarchical network of such models can execute tasks, seek goals, recognize patterns, remember experiences, and generate expectations. The final part of this series will include a brief overview of evidence that such networks actually exist in the brain. Also, this part will describe how a CMAC hierarchy can create plans, solve problems, and produce language. Finally I will discuss the design of robot control systems incorporating these properties and offer some suggestions as to how brain-like computing networks might be constructed and trained.■

Practically any kind of knowledge can be represented as a set of production rules.

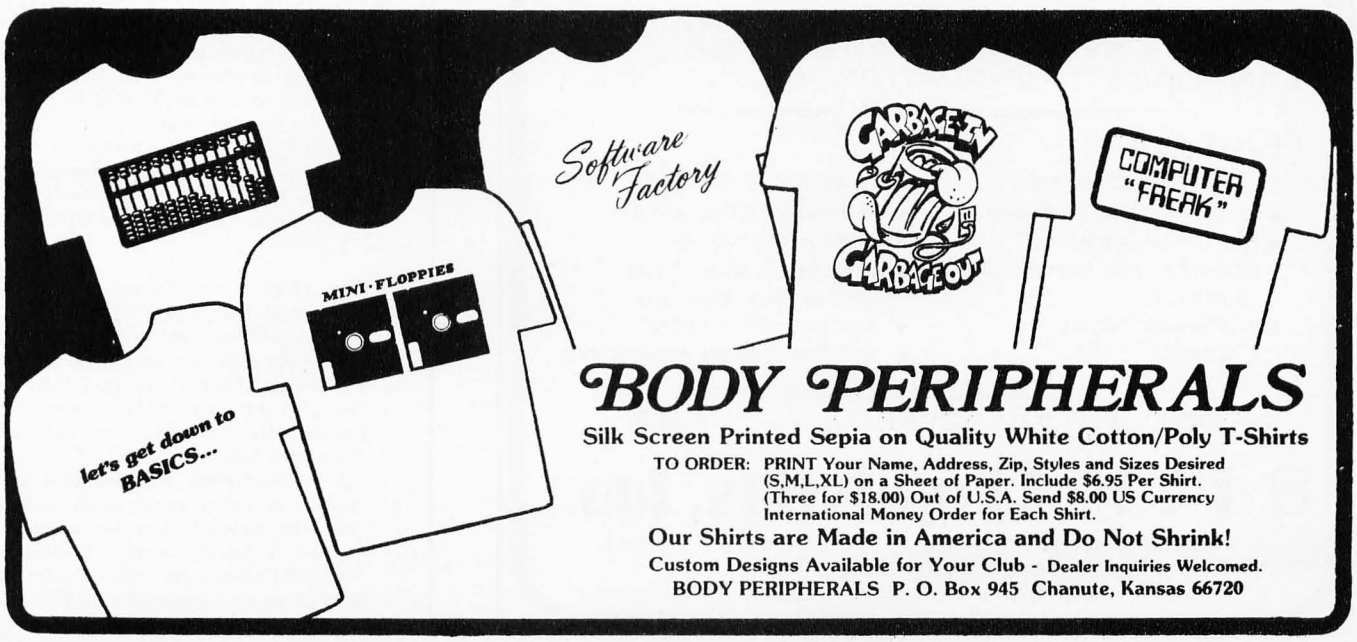
ADDITIONAL READING

1. Albus, J S, "A New Approach to Manipulator Control: The Cerebellar Model Articulation Controller (CMAC)," *Journal of Dynamic Systems, Measurement, and Control*, September 1975, pages 220 thru 233.

2. Albus, J S, "A Theory of Cerebellar Function," *Mathematical Biosciences*, 10, 1971, pages 25 thru 61.

3. Eccles, J C, M. Ito, and J. Szentagothai, *The Cerebellum as a Neuronal Machine*, Springer, Berlin, 1967.

4. Stelmach, G E, (editor) *Motor Control: Issues and Trends*, Academic Press, New York, 1976.



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July 16-27, Introduction to Digital Electronics and Microcomputer Interfacing, Lexington VA. This hands-on laboratory course is for academic and industrial personnel. There will be approximately 60 hours of laboratory instruction with one microcomputer laboratory station for each two participants. Contact Prof Philip Peters, Dept of Physics, Virginia Military Institute, Lexington VA 24450.

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August 6-8, Pattern Recognition and Image Processing, Hyatt Regency Chicago O'Hare, Chicago IL. This conference is sponsored by the Machine Intelligence and Pattern Analysis Committee of the IEEE Computer Society. The program will consist of submitted and invited papers and a large trade show of graphics and image processing equipment. Contact PRIP 79, POB 639, Silver Spring MD 20901.

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August 6-10, Modern Communication Systems: Analysis and Design, University of Southern California, Los Angeles CA. This course is devoted to the analysis and design of modern communication systems, with emphasis on the derivation of practical design equations useful for trade-off studies and overall synthesis. Contact University of Southern California, Continuing Engineering Education, Los Angeles CA 90007.

August 6-10, Advanced Microcomputer System Development: High Level Languages, Technology Trends, and Hands-On Experience, University of Southern California, Los Angeles CA. This course is intended to present the participants with a clear picture of the microcomputer revolution, provide hands-on programming experience using Extended BASIC and FORTRAN, analyze technology trends in the microcomputer field, and assess the impact of VHSI/VLSI. Contact University of Southern California, Continuing Engineering Education, Los Angeles CA 90007.

August 8-10, SIGPLAN Symposium on Compiler Construction, Boulder CO. This symposium will consider methods of, and experience with, constructing compilers. The emphasis will be less on theoretical methods, and more on techniques applied to real compilers. Contact Professor Leon Osterweil, Dept of Computer Science, University of Colorado, Boulder CO 80309.

August 8-10, First Annual Conference on Research and Development in Personal Computing, Hyatt Regency O'Hare, Chicago IL. This conference is sponsored by the Association for Computing Machinery (ACM) Special Interest Group on Personal Computing (SIGPC). A large trade show of personal computer and graphics equipment is planned to accompany an assortment of papers, panels, user group meetings, workshops, and person-to-person poster booths. Contact Bob Gammill, Computer Science Division, Dept of Mathematical Sciences, 300 Minard Hall, North Dakota State University, Fargo ND 58102.

August 13-15, Conference on Simulation, Measurement and Modeling of Computer Systems, Boulder CO. This conference will feature performance prediction techniques employed during the design, procurement and maintenance of computer systems. It will provide a forum for both applied and theoretical work in the disciplines of performance monitoring, modeling, and simulation of computer systems. Contact Gary Nutt, Xerox PARC, 3333 Coyote Hill Rd, Palo Alto CA 94304.

August 13-16, Q-GERT Network Modeling and Analysis, Ramada Inn, Lafayette IN 47905. This course will provide the attendee with the information necessary to model complex systems using Q-GERT. Emphasis will be on the procedures for modeling and analysis. Contact Pritsker and Associates Inc, POB 2413, W Lafayette IN 47906.

August 13-17, High Speed Computation: Vector Processing, The University of Michigan, Ann Arbor MI. In this course, the architectural, software, and algorithmic issues of vector architecture are coordinated by the discussion of concepts in computer architecture, and by detailed study of current vector processors and their use. Contact Engineering Summer Conferences, 400 Chrysler Ctr, North Campus, The University of Michigan, Ann Arbor MI 48109.

August 19-22, International Conference on Computing in the Humanities, Dartmouth College, Hanover NH. This conference is intended to foster computer research and technique in all areas of humanistic study; to promote international cooperation in the development of programs, data banks, and equipment; and to make the results of research available. The program will include a plenary session each evening and shorter sessions during the day. Contact Stephen V F Waite, Kiewit Computation Ctr, Dartmouth College, Hanover NH 03755.

August 19-24, 1979 Symposium for Innovation in Measurement Science, Hobart and William Smith Colleges, Geneva NY. Sponsored by the Scientific Instrumentation and Research Division of the Instrument Society of America, scheduled sessions at this symposium

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include innovation in computers and electronics, mass flow measurement, chemical analysis, applied analysis in instrument control, physical analysis, medical instrumentation, and advances in industrial measurement. Contact Instrument Society of America, 400 Stanwix St, Pittsburgh, PA 15222.

August 23-26, National Small Computer Show, New York Coliseum, New York NY. Exhibitions will include those of major manufacturers, distributors, and publications in the small computer field. A lecture series will include topics of interest to business and professional people, hobbyists and the general public. Contact National Small Computer Show, 74 E 56th St, New York NY 10022.

September 4-6, International Conference and Exhibition on Engineering Software, University of Southampton, England. The aim of this conference is to provide a forum for the presentation and discussion of recent advances in engineering software and the state-of-the-art in this field. The exhibition, held in conjunction with the conference, will cover all software products, services and equipment related to engineering software. Contact Dr R Adey, Engsoft, 6 Cranbury Place, Southampton SO2 OLG, ENGLAND.

September 4-7, Compcon Fall '79, Capital Hilton Hotel, Washington DC. This 18th IEEE Computer Society International conference will present the latest developments in microprocessor architecture, support software, operating systems, and peripheral devices. Contact IEEE Computer Society, POB 639, Silver Spring MD 20901.

September 5-8, Info/Asia, Ryutsu Center, Tokyo. This exposition will be devoted to information management, computers, word processing and advanced business equipment. The exposition will be accompanied by a four day conference. Contact Clapp and Poliak Inc, 245 Park Av, New York NY 10017.

September 18-20, Wescon/79, St Francis Hotel, San Francisco CA. Contact Electronic Conventions Inc, 999 N Sepulveda Blvd, El Segundo CA 90245.

September 25-27, WPOE '79, San Jose Convention Ctr, San Jose CA. This show will be dedicated to word processing and office/business equipment, services and materials. Complementing the exhibit will be a three day executive conference program that focuses on emerging technologies and their applications in the office. Contact Cartlidge and Associates Inc, 491 Macara Av, Suite 1014, Sunnyvale CA 94086.

September 26-29, MIMI '79, Queen Elizabeth Hotel, Montreal, Canada. This symposium is intended as a forum for the presentation and discussion of recent advances in mini and microcomputers and their applications. Special emphasis will be given to the theme of the conference, "The Evolving Role of Minis and Micros Within Distributed Processing." Contact The Secretary, MIMI '79 Montreal, POB 2481, Anaheim CA 92804.

September 28-30, Northeast Personal and Business Computer Show, Hynes Auditorium, Boston MA. Displays and exhibits will showcase microcomputers and small computer systems of interest to businesspeople, hobbyists, professionals, etc. Lectures and seminars will be presented for all categories and levels of enthusiasts, including introductory classes for novices. Contact Northeast Exposition, POB 678, Brookline MA 02147. ■

Letters

Text continued from page 6:

written) would only perform garbage collection.

There are more facilities which could be added to this simple data base structure, but it would probably be better to stop at this point.

Jack L Warner
Bell Laboratories
600 Mountain Ave
Murray Hill NJ 07974

HAMMING ERROR CORRECTING CODE HAS PROBLEMS?

Michael Wimble recently described a method for storing coded data using a Hamming error correcting code which will correct a single bit error and detect double bit errors (February 1979 BYTE, page 180). It is very similar to a scheme I have used successfully for several years and recently published (*Computer Design*, September 1978).

Mr Wimble's scheme, however, will cause havoc with some data recording devices as some of his coded bytes are exactly the same as some of the common control characters, ie: his data 3, coded as a hexadecimal 93, is identical to the ASCII Device Control 3 character, and data E, coded as a hexadecimal 1E, is the ASCII Record Separator. The latter should not cause trouble, but the former will automatically activate or deactivate some kinds of papertape terminals.

If this is likely to be a problem on the equipment you are using, one simple way to overcome it is to omit the P4 parity bit altogether and use strictly 7 bit codes. The media channel on which the omitted bit would have been stored is then placed so that no objectionable control characters are ever generated (except, of course, by error). Programs to generate and decode such schemes are presented in the *Computer Design* paper cited above.

You are not able to detect double errors using only 7 bits, but if your equipment is that bad it's probably time to pack it in anyway.

George White
Institut de Recherche
d'Informatique et d'Automatique
Domaine de Voluceau
Rocquencourt BP 105
78150 Le Chesnay FRANCE

COMMENTS FROM A CHESS MASTER

I was most flattered to read the story about my chess match with CHESS 4.7 ("Chess 4.7 versus David Levy" December 1978 BYTE, page 84) and I am delighted that you have been giving chess such excellent coverage in the pages of your magazine.

Since your article appeared I have been plagued by people writing to ask whether I have collected the $2,500 that I won in the bet. Professors Donald Michie (Edinburgh University), John McCarthy (Stanford University) and Seymour Papert (MIT) paid promptly and with great sportsmanship, just as I would have done had I lost the bet. Edward Kozdrowicki (Aerospace Corporation, El Segundo CA) has refused all attempts to persuade him to pay.

I hope that this will answer any further readers who might be curious about the bet.

David N L Levy
104 Hamilton Terrace
London NW8 9UP
ENGLAND ■

BYTE's Bugs

Community Bulletin Board Correction

In the BYTE News for April 1979 (page 195) we mentioned that there was a PCNET run by the Chicago Area Computer Hobbyist Exchange. We should have said that a Community Bulletin Board is privately run by Ward Christensen and Randy Suess.

Correction

In May's "What's New" on page 254 we listed Semionics Associates' REM S-100 board as having a capacity of 8 K bytes and priced at $525. This *should* have read "The REM S-100 add-in recognition memory board has a capacity of 4 K bytes and is priced at $345."

Trap Door Trap

For shame! The National Bureau of Standards standard data encryption algorithm is *not* a trap-door algorithm. That term refers to one-way or public key systems.

Don McClimans
Computer Systems Consultant
41 Washburn Pk
Rochester NY 14620

Oops! You, along with several other people, caught us with that one. [RGAC] ■

BYTE News . . . .

FCC TRYING TO CRACK DOWN ON TV INTERFERENCE. The Federal Communications Commission (FCC) has asked Atari, Apple, Commodore, Heath, Southwest Technical Products, and Radio Shack to submit their personal computer systems for TV interference testing. The systems made by these companies are presently exempted from FCC regulations since they are not directly connected to a TV set. However, there have been complaints regarding radio frequency (RF) interference from personal computer systems, and the FCC has decided to develop regulations regarding permissible RF radiation levels.

The computer manufacturers involved have indicated a willingness to cooperate with the FCC's effort. The regulations could fine noncomplying manufacturers and permit the issuance of cease and desist orders. Some industry experts feel that a few manufacturers' computer systems would not pass the FCC regulations.

INTEL ENHANCES 8086 FAMILY WITH I/O PROCESSOR. Intel continues to lead the way in microprocessor and microcomputer systems. Recently they announced the 8089, an I/O (input/output) processor to work with the 8086 16 bit microprocessor. This processor can more than double the performance of the 8086 by relieving it of I/O operations, much like the communications channel on an IBM 370.

$200 DISK SYSTEM EXPECTED BY YEAR END. Shugart and Matsushita Electric of Japan have signed an agreement whereby Matsushita will manufacture a low cost version of Shugart's popular minifloppy disk drive. The drive is expected to sell for $50 in large OEM quantities and retail at about $125. Add to this the interface/controller circuitry, and the total retail cost should work out to a little over $200. This is less than a third of the price of current minifloppy systems. Matsushita expects to be making 100 drives per hour by year end.

The drive will store 70 K bytes, use a new head design, and be housed in sheet metal rather than cast aluminum. It will be only 2 inches high, half the height of the current drive. An industrial version with heavy duty components will be sold at $65 OEM.

Nippon Electric (NEC) is also rumored to be developing a low cost 5 inch disk drive.

14 MILLION MICROPROCESSORS SOLD LAST YEAR. That's right, 14 million microprocessors were manufactured in 1978. One million 8 bit microprocessors and 13 million 4 bit microprocessors were made. If you didn't realize it already, most were used in games. The most manufactured microprocessors were the 8 bit 6502 and the 4 bit TMS-1000. However, sales of electronic games using microprocessors have recently taken a sharp drop. Hence, the probability exists that there may be a slight decrease in microprocessor production in 1979.

16 BIT MICROPROCESSOR PICTURE STILL FUZZY. It is beginning to look as if Intel may have taken the right approach with the 8086 by designing a part which could be placed in production far ahead of the Zilog Z-8000 or Motorola 68000. They have over a year's head start compared to the Z-8000 and possibly another half year's lead over the 68000.

The 8086 part is far simpler than the Z-8000 or 68000 parts, and as a result it is closer to the earlier generations of microprocessors. Support parts for the 8086 such as the new 8087 floating point coprocessor also give the 8086 a commanding availability lead over the other two contenders at this time. All three machines are aimed at the high end of microcomputer application, providing significant computational power equivalent to traditional mini and main frame computers.

In the meantime, the traditional minicomputer manufacturers are not sitting still. Digital Equipment Corp (DEC), the largest of the "old-time" minimakers, has created an integrated circuit manufacturing facility to make its own 16 bit microprocessor (the LSI-11). This fall they will be making a super-micro mainframe, called the LSI-11/23, that will have almost all the power of a standard minicomputer at a fraction of the price ($6,800 compared to $12,000).

THE JAPANESE ARE COMING. Although last year a few Japanese electronics manufacturers introduced personal computer systems on their own home ground, none, so far, has ventured into the US market. This is probably due to the competition that already exists and the lack of sufficient price markup on personal computer systems. If the Japanese enter the personal computer market, it will probably be in the peripherals area.

However, the first major Japanese manufacturer has entered the small business computer market. NEC has introduced its ASTRA series of 16 bit microcomputer systems that start at $13,000 and range up to $130,000. The video terminal employs a Z-80 processor.

NEW BUBBLE MEMORY TECHNOLOGY. In a paper delivered by a Bell Laboratory researcher at a recent conference, it was disclosed that Bell Labs has made a major breakthrough in bubble memory technology. This breakthrough will mean a four times increase in storage size, a substantial decrease in cost and ten times faster operating speed. Although Texas Instruments and Rockwell have been in production on bubble memory devices for nearly a year, their high cost and small storage capability have prohibited their wide use. This new development, which will still take a few years to reach the market, should have a large impact on the mass storage area, particularly floppy disks.

The new device replaces the drive coils used in present bubble memories with wafer-thin conductive layers of gold or aluminum overlaid on the garnet structure. A current flows through these layers forming tiny magnetic fields around holes etched into the surface. The polarity of these fields controls the bubble movements.

By eliminating the costly and bulky coil structure, a new pathway design became available which provides a fourfold increase in storage capacity, is easier and less costly to produce, and reduces integrated circuit size, thereby reducing travel time.

IBM also announced that it has fabricated bubble memory devices that are 1 square inch in size and contain 25 M bits. These devices were made at the IBM Research Center in Yorktown Heights NY.

In the meantime, TI and Rockwell are currently sending out samples of their 256 K bit bubble devices and expect to be in production on these units by the end of the year. They expect to be sampling 1 M bit devices by the end of 1980, with production beginning in 1981.

On the whole, it does not appear that bubbles will provide any meaningful competition to floppies until the mid 1980s.

PERSONAL COMPUTER/CABLE TELEVISION SYSTEM PLANNED. Six Star Cablevision, a Los Angeles cable television outfit, will soon begin test marketing a personal computer system designed for use with a closed circuit TV system. Six Star will allocate 3 of 42 available channels to transmit data from data banks to subscribers. They claim to have 50 applications programs already prepared, which would be regenerated every 7 seconds. They plan to use a Mattel personal computer system with a printer, and charge $4 to $6 above the regular $7.50 monthly fee.

Sol Libes
ACGNJ
1776 Raritan Rd
Scotch Plains NJ 07076

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THE BYTE BOOK OF COMPUTER MUSIC combines the best computer music articles from past issues of BYTE Magazine with exciting new material—all written for the computer experimenter interested in this fascinating field.

You will enjoy Hal Chamberlin's "A Sampling of Techniques for Computer Performance of Music", which shows how you can create four-part melodies on your computer. For the budget minded, "A $19 Music Interface" contains practical tutorial information—and organ fans will enjoy reading "Electronic Organ Chips For Use in Computer Music Synthesis".

New material includes "Polyphony Made Easy" and "A Terrain Reader". The first describes a handy circuit that allows you to enter more than one note at a time into your computer from a musical keyboard. The "Terrain Reader" is a remarkable program that creates random music based on land terrain maps.

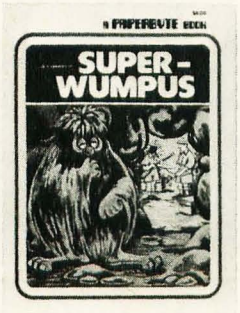
Other articles range from flights of fancy about the reproductive systems of pianos to Fast Fourier transform programs written in BASIC and 6800 machine language, multi-computer music systems, Walsh Functions, and much more.

For the first time, material difficult to obtain has been collected into one convenient, easy to read book. An ardent do-it-yourselfer or armchair musicologist will find this book to be a useful addition to the library.

NEW

ISBN 0-931718-11-2
Editor: Christopher P. Morgan
Pages: approx. 128
Price: **$10.00**

SUPERWUMPUS is an exciting computer game incorporating the original structure of the WUMPUS game along with added features to make it even more fascinating. The original game was described in the book **What To Do After You Hit Return,** published by the People's Computer Company. Programmed in both 6800 assembly language and BASIC, SUPERWUMPUS is not only addictively fun, but also provides a splendid tutorial on setting up unusual data structures (the tunnel and cave system of SUPERWUMPUS forms a dodecahedron). This is a **PAPERBYTE™** book.



ISBN 0-931718-03-1
Author: Jack Emmerichs
Pages: 56
Price: **$6.00**

TINY ASSEMBLER 6800, Version 3.1 is an enhancement of Jack Emmerichs' successful Tiny Assembler. The original version (3.0) was described first in the April and May 1977 issues of BYTE magazine, and later in the **PAPERBYTE™** book **TINY ASSEMBLER 6800 Version 3.0.**

In September 1977, BYTE magazine published an article entitled, "Expanding The Tiny Assembler". This provided a detailed description of the enhancements incorporated into Version 3.1, such as the addition of a "begin" statement, a "virtual symbol table", and a larger subset of the Motorola 6800 assembly language.

All the above articles, plus an updated version of the user's guide, the source, object and PAPERBYTE™ bar code formats of both Version 3.0 and 3.1 make this book the most complete documentation possible for Jack Emmerichs' Tiny Assembler.

ISBN 0-931718-08-2
Author: Jack Emmerichs
Pages: 80
Price: **$9.00**

A walk through this book brings you into **Ciarcia's Circuit Cellar** for a detailed look at the marvelous projects which let you do useful things with your microcomputer. A collection of more than a year's worth of the popular series in BYTE magazine, **Ciarcia's Circuit Cellar** includes the six winners of BYTE's On-going Monitor Box (BOMB) award, voted by the readers themselves as the best articles of the month: **Control the World** (September 1977), **Memory Mapped IO** (November 1977), **Program Your Next EROM in BASIC** (March 1978), **Tune In and Turn On** (April 1978), **Talk To Me** (June 1978), and **Let Your Fingers Do the Talking** (August 1978).

Each article is a complete tutorial giving all the details needed to construct each project. Using amusing anecdotes to introduce the articles and an easy-going style, Steve presents each project so that even a neophyte need not be afraid to try it.

NEW

ISBN 0-931718-07-4
Author: Steve Ciarcia
Pages: approx. 128
Price: **$8.00**

is right now!

BASEX, a new compact, compiled language for microcomputers, has many of the best features of BASIC and the 8080 assembly language—and it can be run on any of the 8080 style microprocessors: 8080, Z-80, or 8085. This is a **PAPERBYTE™** book.

Subroutines in the **BASEX** operating system typically execute programs up to five times faster than equivalent programs in a BASIC interpreter—while requiring about half the memory space. In addition, **BASEX** has most of the powerful features of good BASIC interpreters including array variables. text strings, arithmetic operations on signed 16 bit integers, and versatile IO communication functions. And since the two languages, BASEX and BASIC, are so similar, it is possible to easily translate programs using integer arithmetic data from BASIC into BASEX.

The author, Paul Warme, has also included a BASEX Loader program which is capable of relocating programs anywhere in memory.

NEW

ISBN 0-931718-05-8
Author: Paul Warme
Pages: 88
Price: **$8.00**

PROGRAMMING TECHNIQUES is a series of **BYTE BOOKS** concerned with the art and science of computer programming. It is a collection of the best articles from BYTE magazine and new material collected just for this series. Each volume of the series provides the personal computer user with background information to write and maintain programs effectively.

The first volume in the Programming Techniques series is entitled **PROGRAM DESIGN.** It discusses in detail the theory of program design. The purpose of the book is to provide the personal computer user with the techniques needed to design efficient, effective, maintainable programs. Included is information concerning structured program design, modular programming techniques, program logic design, and examples of some of the more common traps the casual as well as the experienced programmer may fall into. In addition, details on various aspects of the actual program functions, such as hashed tables and binary tree processing, are included.

ISBN 0-931718-12-0
Editor: Blaise W. Liffick
Pages: 96
Price: **$6.00**

SIMULATION is the second volume in the Programming Techniques series. The chapters deal with various aspects of specific types of simulation. Both theoretical and practical applications are included. Particularly stressed is simulation of motion, including wave motion and flying objects. The realm of artificial intelligence is explored, along with simulating robot motion with the microcomputer. Finally, tips on how to simulate electronic circuits on the computer are detailed.

ISBN 0-931718-13-9
Editor: Blaise W. Liffick
Pages: approx. 80
Price: **$6.00**
Publication: Winter 1979

RA6800ML: AN M6800 RELOCATABLE MACRO ASSEMBLER is a two pass assembler for the Motorola 6800 microprocessor. It is designed to run on a minimum system of 16 K bytes of memory, a system console (such as a Teletype terminal), a system monitor (such as Motorola MIKBUG read only memory program or the ICOM Floppy Disk Operating System), and some form of mass file storage (dual cassette recorders or a floppy disk).

The Assembler can produce a program listing, a sorted Symbol Table listing and relocatable object code. The object code is loaded and linked with other assembled modules using the **Linking Loader LINK68.** (Refer to **PAPERBYTE™** publication **LINK68: AN M6800 LINKING LOADER** for details.)

There is a complete description of the 6800 Assembly language and its components, including outlines of the instruction and address formats, pseudo instructions and macro facilities. Each major routine of the Assembler is described in detail, complete with flow charts and a cross reference showing all calling and called-by routines, pointers, flags, and temporary variables.

In addition, details on interfacing and using the Assembler, error messages generated by the Assembler, the Assembler and sample IO driver source code listings, and **PAPERBYTE™** bar code representation of the Assembler's relocatable object file are all included.

This book provides the necessary background for coding programs in the 6800 assembly language, and for understanding the innermost operations of the Assembler.

ISBN 0-931718-10-4
Author: Jack E. Hemenway
Pages: 184
Price: **$25.00**

to order books see next page . . . . .

LINK68: AN M6800 LINKING LOADER is a one pass linking loader which allows separately translated relocatable object modules to be loaded and linked together to form a single executable load module, and to relocate modules in memory. It produces a load map and a load module in Motorola MIKBUG loader format. The Linking Loader requires 2 K bytes of memory, a system console (such as a Teletype terminal), a system monitor (for instance, Motorola MIKBUG read only memory program or the ICOM Floppy Disk Operating System), and some form of mass file storage (dual cassette recorders or a floppy disk).

It was the express purpose of the authors of this book to provide everything necessary for the user to easily learn about the system. In addition to the source code and **PAPERBYTE™** bar code listings, there is a detailed description of the major routines of the Linking Loader, including flow charts. While implementing the system, the user has an opportunity to learn about the nature of linking loader design as well as simply acquiring a useful software tool.

ISBN 0-931718-09-0
Authors: Robert D. Grappel & Jack E. Hemenway
Pages: 72
Price: **$8.00**
Winter 1979

TRACER: A 6800 DEBUGGING PROGRAM is for the programmer looking for good debugging software. TRACER features single step execution using dynamic break points, register examination and modification, and memory examination and modification. This book includes a reprint of "Jack and the Machine Debug" (from the December 1977 issue of BYTE magazine), **TRACER** program notes, complete assembly and source listing in 6800 assembly language, object program listing, and machine readable **PAPERBYTE™** bar codes of the object code.

ISBN 0-931718-02-3
Authors: Robert D. Grappel & Jack E. Hemenway
Pages: 24
Price: **$6.00**

MONDEB: AN ADVANCED M6800 MONITOR-DEBUGGER has all the general features of Motorola's MIKBUG monitor as well as numerous other capabilities. Ease of use was a prime design consideration. The other goal was to achieve minimum memory requirements while retaining maximum versatility. The result is an extremely versatile program. The size of the entire MONDEB is less than 3 K.

Some of the command capabilities of MONDEB include displaying and setting the contents of registers, setting interrupts for debugging, testing a programmable memory range for bad memory locations, changing the display and input base of numbers, displaying the contents of memory, searching for a specified string, copying a range of bytes from one location in memory to another, and defining the location to which control will transfer upon receipt of an interrupt. This is a **PAPERBYTE™** book.

ISBN 0-931718-06-6
Author: Don Peters
Pages: 88
Price: **$5.00**

BAR CODE LOADER. The purpose of this pamphlet is to present the decoding algorithm which was designed by Ken Budnick of Micro-Scan Associates at the request of BYTE Publications, Inc., for the **PAPERBYTE™** bar code representation of executable code. The text of this pamphlet was written by Ken, and contains the general algorithm description in flow chart form plus detailed assemblies of program code for 6800, 6502 and 8080 processors. Individuals with computers based on these processors can use the software directly. Individuals with other processors can use the provided functional specifications and detail examples to create equivalent programs.

ISBN 0-931718-01-5
Author: Ken Budnick
Pages: 32
Price: **$2.00**

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The Mathematics of Computer Art

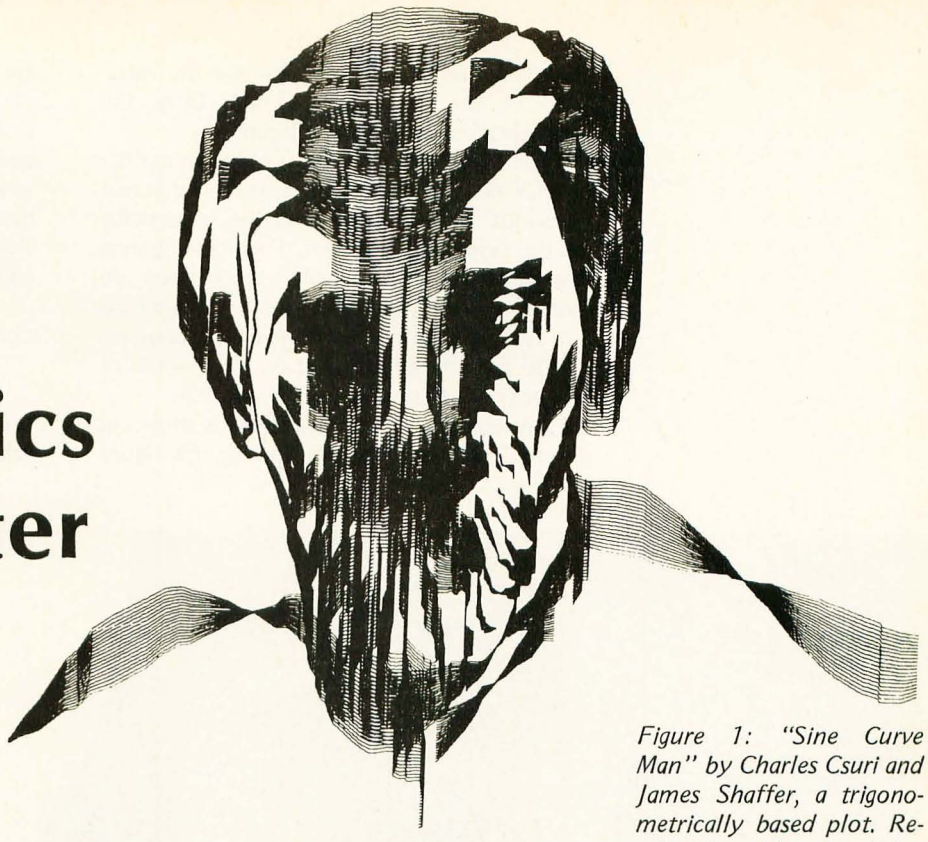

Figure 1: "Sine Curve Man" by Charles Csuri and James Shaffer, a trigonometrically based plot. Reprinted with permission from Computers and Automation, *August 1967, Copyright 1967 and published by Berkeley Enterprises Inc, 815 Washington St, Newtonville MA 02160.*

Introduction

Computer scientists and personal computer enthusiasts have a great appreciation of the beauty and form of art. They often use the tools of their trade, the computer and its associated peripheral devices, to create works of art. These works express particular, somewhat algorithmic and mathematical tastes in art forms. Since the late 1960s the use of computers and computer controlled devices for the generation of this artwork (often in three dimensions) has been firmly established. (See references 3, 4, 8, 9, and 14.) A great portion of this artwork has relied heavily on the computer's ability to precisely manipulate numerical quantities to produce drawings or sculptures that express complex mathematical relationships. Drawings in this category include figures which show the relationships between the phase, amplitude, and periods of different trigonometric functions; graphs of functions of two or more variables; and moiré patterns that can express complex relationships by interaction between families of similar simple curves (see reference 13).

This is not to say that all or even the majority of computer art is inherently mathematical. Two of the latest crazes in computer art, the recreation of natural scenes and the randomly drawn picture (called "controlled serendipity" by one artist in reference 11), are in essence nonmathematical. This article, however, will be concerned only with those figures which have mathematics as their basis.

Among figures which rely heavily on mathematics, two classes can easily be separated. One class is distinguished by the fact that it is precisely the equations themselves which give the figures beauty and appeal. While even the mathematically uninitiated can perceive the beauty of these forms, only those who understand the underlying mathematics can fully appreciate the plots. Some examples of this class are the endless varieties of lissajous figures (see references 2 and 6), and two other famous trigonometrically based plots, "Sine Curve Man" (shown in figure 1; see reference 15) and "Christmas Wreath" (see reference 1). The beauty of "Sine Curve Man" is in part due to the undulating sine curves, differences in the phase

About the Author

Kurt J Schmucker has been employed as a mathematician at the Department of Defense in Washington DC since 1974. He has masters degrees from both Michigan State University and Johns Hopkins University. He is now an advanced special student in the Computer Science Department at the University of Maryland and an assistant professorial lecturer in computer science at George Washington University. Mr Schmucker's current interests are in natural language processing and computer graphics.

Mr Schmucker is the author of "The Computers of Star Trek," which appeared in the December 1977 BYTE.

between the different curves, and the variation in the amplitudes. These form the mathematical base for the figure.

The other class of figures relies on mathematics not for the positioning of the actual lines but for the meaning or the importance of the resulting total plot. For these figures, the actual equations which are plotted are not as important as the relationships which are revealed. Some examples of this class are moiré patterns and projection plots of multi-dimensional figures (see reference 12).

An example of a moiré figure is shown in figure 2. Notice that the lines in this figure are nothing more than regularly spaced radii of two circles — lines whose equations are easily determined. What *is* fascinating is the complex interference pattern, a pattern which can express complex relationships between those lines. In this article, these two classes of figures will be discussed by examining in detail one example of each.

Crest

An example of a computer generated figure which relies on complex mathematical relationships for its beauty is the crest,

Figure 2: Moiré figure, an interference pattern between regularly spaced radii of two circles.

shown in figure 3 (see reference 5). While the beauty of this figure can be appreciated without examining its mathematics, a more complete understanding is necessary in order to reproduce it on a different computer or to fully comprehend the complexity of the figure. One can easily examine figure 3 and determine by its symmetry the decomposition which is shown in figure 4.

The basic unit of figure 3 is shown in figure 5. If the equations which generate the basic unit can be found, then the entire figure can be generated by appropriately manipulating these equations. In an analysis of the unit in figure 5, one can see that the equation of the outer envelope of lines is the only portion of real importance. An examination of this curve brings to mind the spirals studied when one first encounters the use of polar coordinates. There are a number of different kinds of such spirals, most notably the spiral of Archimedes, the parabolic spiral, and the logarithmic spiral. By comparing the graphs of these spirals to figure 5 it can be seen that the logarithmic spiral closely approximates the desired curve. Recall that a logarithmic spiral (shown in figure 6) has an equation of the form $r = ae^{-\theta/b}$, where a and b are positive real numbers. By a suitable choice of the constants a and b, along with some transformations applied to the equations of two such spirals, we will be able to obtain the equation of the desired envelope.

To find the equation of this envelope, the graph of the logarithmic spiral must be rotated, translated, and reflected. The fact that the curve is usually expressed in polar form simplifies this task considerably. All three of these transformations can be expressed much more easily in that system than in Cartesian coordinates. Figure 7 shows the resulting graphs and their equations as the graph of the spiral is progressively reflected about the y axis, rotated clockwise by 60°, and translated.

Superimposing the graph of:

$$x = -ae^{-\theta/b}\cos(\theta - \pi/3) + a\cos\pi/3$$

$$y = ae^{-\theta/b}\sin(\theta - \pi/3) + a\sin\pi/3$$

upon the last portion of figure 7, the graph in figure 8 is obtained, which is precisely the desired envelope.

Text continued on page 110

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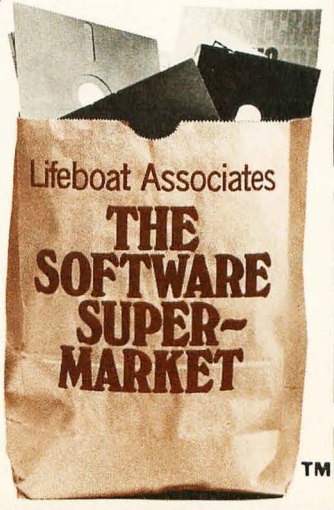

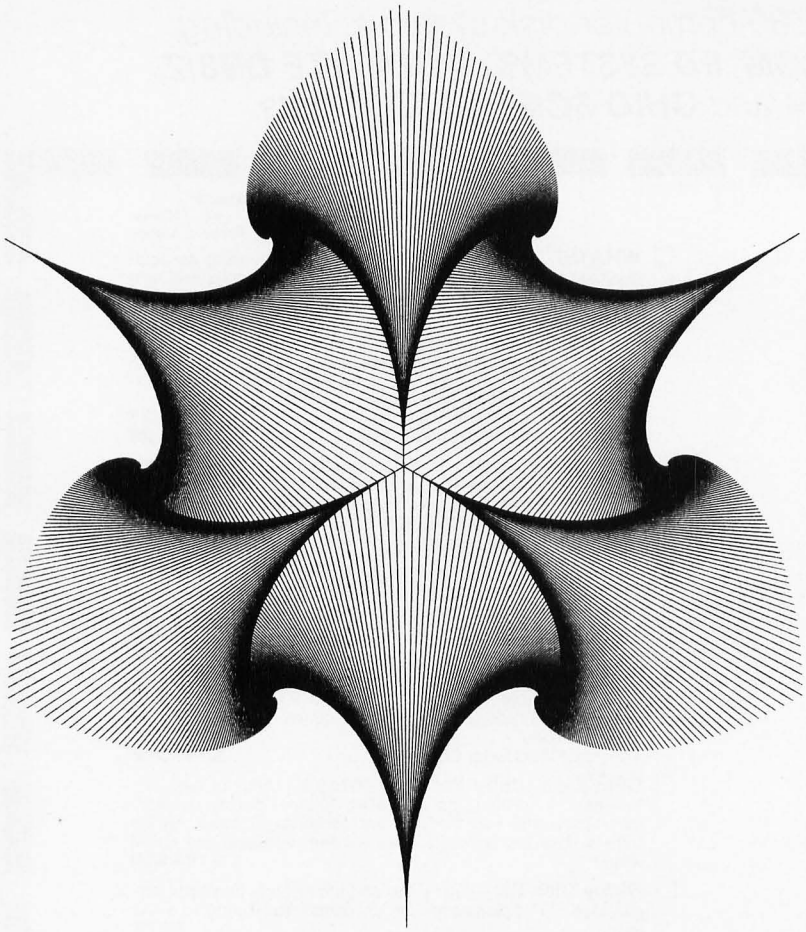

Figure 3: "Crest." This figure is composed of fundamental units shown in figure 5, and the author's algorithm is explained in the text.

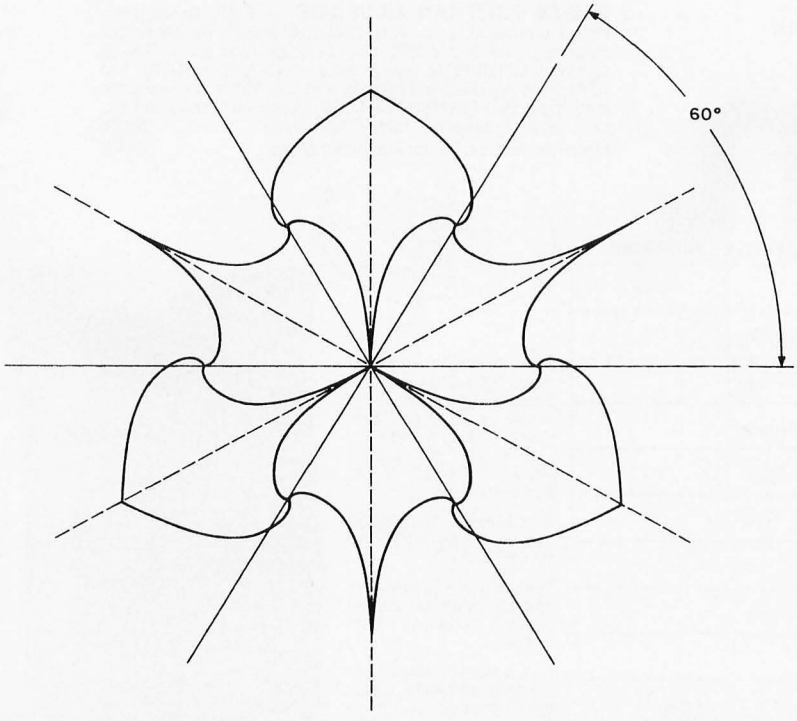

Figure 4: Decomposition of crest in figure 3.

Text continued from page 107:

By redoing this work in rectangular coordinates, we can see how much easier it is to manipulate these equations in the polar coordinate system. The reflected, rotated, and translated coordinates of a point (X,Y) can be calculated with the matrix equation which is called *a* in table 1.

Substituting the specific values needed to repeat the previous work and multiplying the three 3 by 3 matrices together, we obtain equation *b* in table 1. This is the same result obtained earlier.

It is now a trivial matter to obtain the lines in figure 5 by drawing chords between points selected equiangularly along each of the two curves. One can extend this by similar modifications to the equation $r = ae^{-\theta/b}$ to obtain the crest in figure 3. The constants *a* and *b* determine the size of the resulting plot and the curvature of each of the six "leaves" respectively.

The Dissected Square

The plot in figure 9 is not too difficult to understand at first glance (see reference 7). In essence it is a set of concentric squares with the area between the squares divided into smaller squares. Postponing the detailed discussion until later, the figure can be constructed in the following manner: given a square with a side of length X, construct a concentric square with a smaller side of length Y. The value of Y is determined by X in a manner to be explained later, but note that $Y < X$. Extend the sides of the smaller square until they meet the edges of the square of side X. The intermediate result is shown in figure 10. Divide the shaded regions into squares. (It will be shown that this is always possible when X and Y are chosen carefully.) At this point, consider the square of side Y to be the outer square and

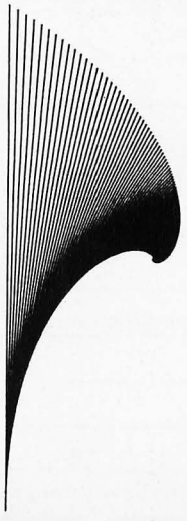

Figure 5: Fundamental building block of the crest figure. The form of the curves resembles a logarithmic spiral.

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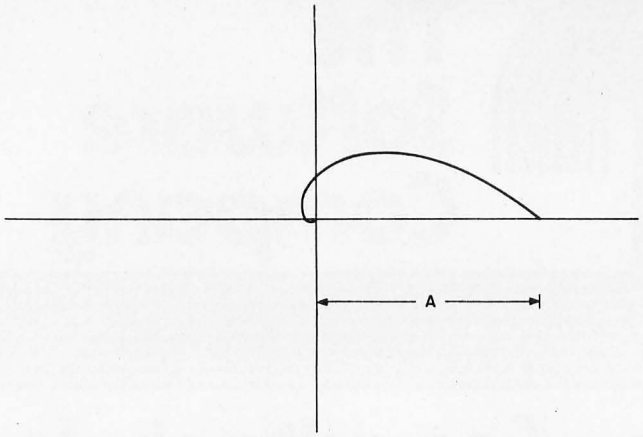

Figure 6: Logarithmic spiral with equation of form $r = ae^{-\theta/b}$ using polar coordinates.

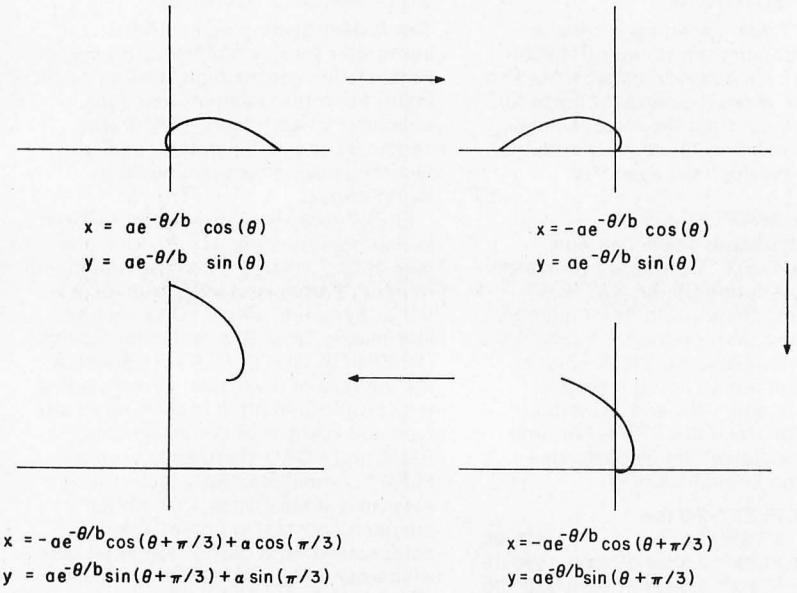

Figure 7: Graphs and equations of a logarithmic spiral as it is reflected about the y axis, rotated clockwise by 60°, and translated.

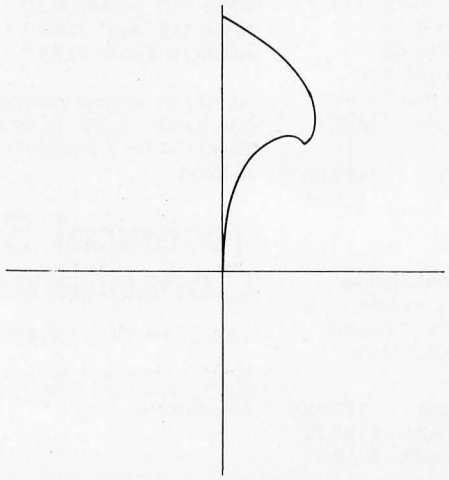

Figure 8: Superimposition of graph of: $x = -ae^{-\theta/b} \cos(\theta - \pi/3) + a \cos \pi/3$; and $y = ae^{-\theta/b} \sin(\theta - \pi/3) + a \sin \pi/3$; which yields the desired envelope shape.

begin again by choosing a suitable Y′ where Y′ < Y. This process is terminated when Y′ assumes a certain specified value. What is significant about this plot, however, is the mathematics that it represents. This figure proves the following theorem:

$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} i^3 = \left(\sum_{i=1}^{n} i \right)^2$$

for all positive integers, *n* (an offshoot of the theorem of Nicomachus) for the case *n* = 26.

To see this, it is easier to examine the associated figure for a smaller *n* than 26, say *n* = 6 (see figure 11). If the smallest squares in the center of the figure are taken as unit squares, then the area of the large square can be calculated in two different ways. In the first way, the lengths of two sides can be multiplied. Since we are dealing with squares, any two sides can be used. The left side is of length 6(6 + 1) or in general *n*(*n* + 1), as can be seen by considering the shaded squares which lie along the left side. The length of the opposite side can be calculated by considering the shaded squares which extend diagonally from the center to the right side to obtain:

$$b = 2(6 + 5 + 4 + 3 + 2 + 1)$$

or in general:

$$b = 2 \sum_{i=1}^{n} i$$

Therefore the area of the square is:

$$ab = 6(6 + 1) \times 2(6 + 5 + 4 + 3 + 2 + 1)$$

or in general:

$$ab = n(n + 1) \times 2 \sum_{i=1}^{n} i = 4 \left(\sum_{i=1}^{n} i \right)^2$$

However, the area of the square can also be calculated by summing the areas of all the component squares. There are four squares of area 1, eight squares of area 4, twelve of area 9, etc. Therefore the area of the large square is:

$$4 \times 1 \times 1^2 + 4 \times 2 \times 2^2 + 4 \times 3 \times 3^2 + 4 \times 4 \times 4^2 + 4 \times 5 \times 5^2 + 4 \times 6 \times 6^2$$

or in general:

$$4 \sum_{i=1}^{n} i^3$$

By equating these computations of area, the desired theorem is obtained.

In drawing this figure, one need only choose an X of the form $n(n+1)$ for the side of the largest square, where n is an integer greater than 3. The sides of the inner squares

$$a \quad [x'\ y'\ 1] = [x\ y\ 1] \begin{bmatrix} -1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \cos\gamma & -\sin\gamma & 0 \\ \sin\gamma & \cos\gamma & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ T_x & T_y & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

new point — old point — reflection — rotation by γ — translation

$$b \quad [x'\ y'\ 1] = [r\cos\theta\ \ r\sin\theta\ \ 1] \begin{bmatrix} -\cos\pi/3 & \sin\pi/3 & 0 \\ \sin\pi/3 & \cos\pi/3 & 0 \\ a\cos\pi/3 & a\sin\pi/3 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$= [-r\cos(\theta+\pi/3) + a\cos\pi/3 \quad r\sin(\theta+\pi/3) + a\sin\pi/3 \quad 1]$$

$$= [-ae^{-\theta/b}\cos(\theta+\pi/3) + a\cos\pi/3 \quad ae^{-\theta/b}\sin(\theta+\pi/3) + a\sin\pi/3 \quad 1]$$

Table 1: Matrix equation a reflects, rotates, and translates coordinates of a point (X, Y). Matrix equation b has substituted in it the specific values needed to repeat the earlier equations. We obtain the same result.

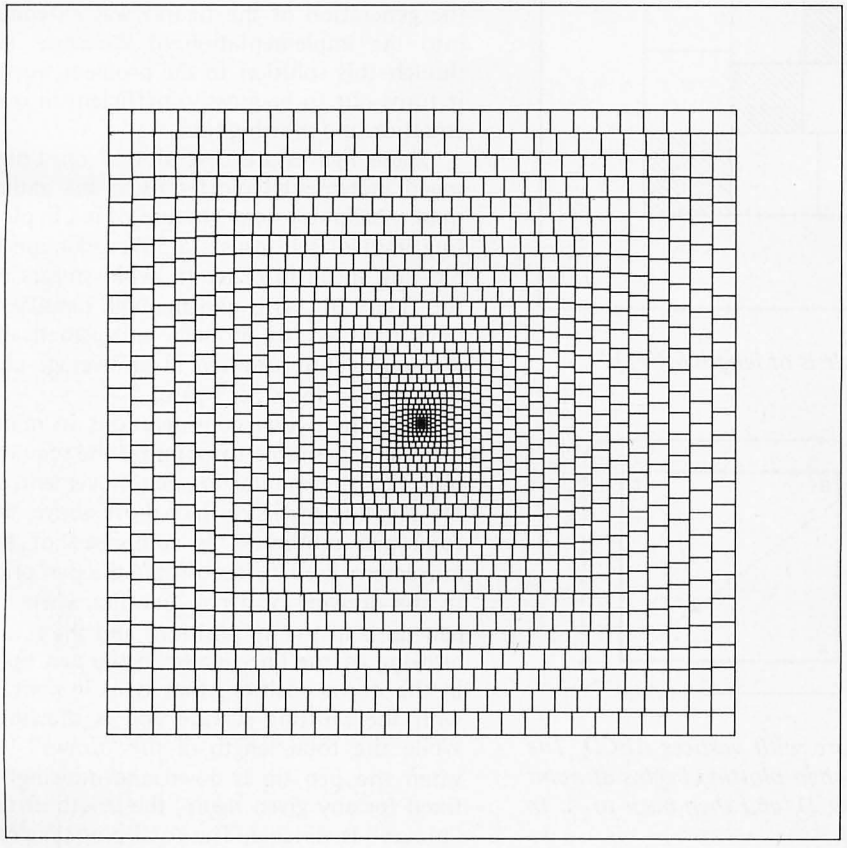

Figure 9: Dissected square, a set of concentric squares with the area between the squares divided into smaller squares.

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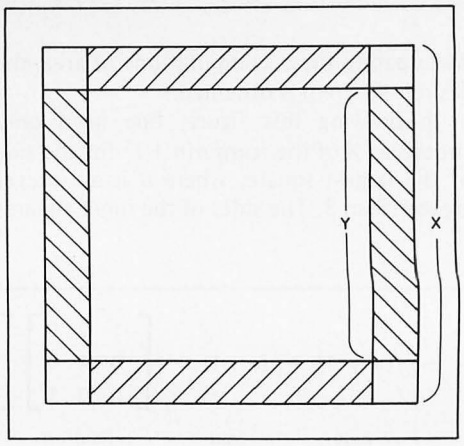

Figure 10: A square with sides of length X has constructed within it a concentric square with sides of length Y. The sides of the smaller square are extended until they meet the edges of the square of side X. The shaded regions are next divided into squares.

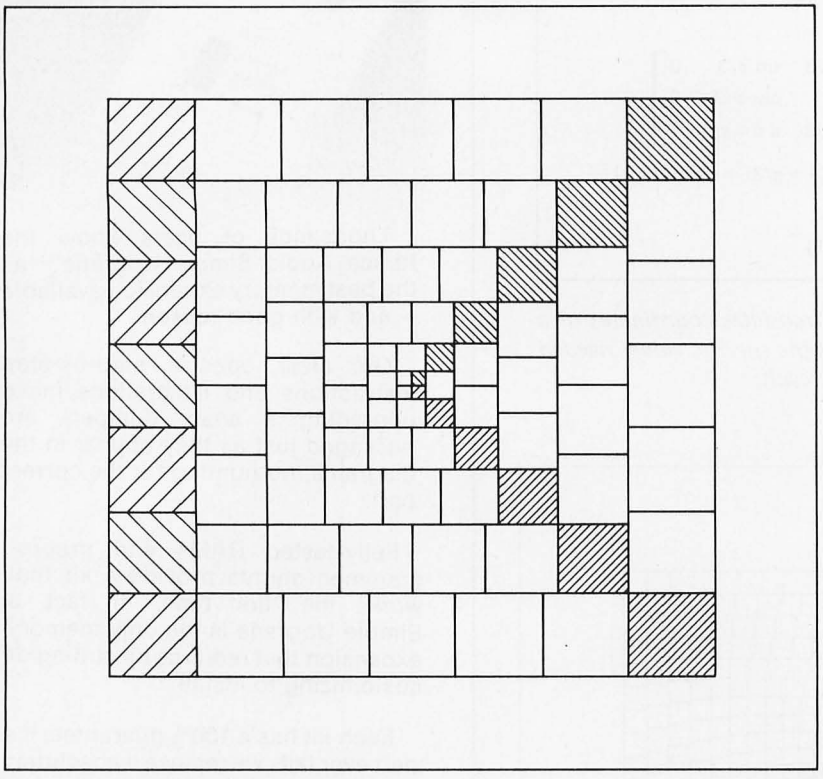

Figure 11: Dissected square for n = 6. *The left side is of length 6(6+1).*

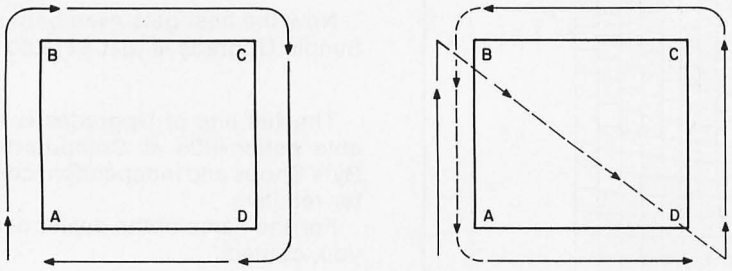

Figure 12: Two plotting procedures for a square with vertices ABCD. The smallest amount of pen motion occurs at left when plotting begins at point A with consecutive drawing movements to B, C, D, and then back to A. In this method the length of nondrawing moves is 0.

At right is seen a nonoptimal plotting scheme. Starting at A, the pen draws to B, a nondrawing move is made to point D, the pen draws from D to C and then to B, a move is made to A, and then pen draws from A to D.

are also numbers of this form, obtained by decrementing n by 1 for each successive new square. When $Y' = 2$, the last two lines are drawn, completing the figure. This choice of X and Y always allows the shaded areas of figure 10 to be decomposed into squares, as they are all rectangles with one side of length n and the other of $n(n-1)$. A rectangle with these proportions is dissectible into $(n-1)$ squares of side n.

Plotting Considerations and Implementation

In developing the software to produce these drawings, the logic used to understand the generation of the figures was extended into the implementation of the code. Although this solution to the problem works, it turns out to be grossly inefficient in construction and plotting time.

These figures are best plotted on a high speed incremental plotter using ink rather than a ballpoint pen. The use of ink in plotting immediately causes a 50% reduction in plotting speed in order to avoid smears on the final plot. This and the high density of lines required to produce an aesthetically pleasing picture resulted in an average plot time of two hours per figure.

With these two considerations in mind, it became desirable to optimize the required plot time by minimizing pen movement. In the plotting of figures like those above, the total pen movement is comprised of the movement used to reposition the pen prior to the drawing of a new line (ie: when the pen tip is in the up position) and the actual drawing of the line (ie: when the pen tip is in the down position, that is, is in contact with the plotting surface and is drawing). While the total length of the "draws" (ie: when the pen tip is down and drawing) is fixed for any given figure, the length of the "moves" is variable. The total plot time can be diminished by minimizing these moves.

Consider the plotting of a square whose vertices are ABCD (see figure 12). Let us

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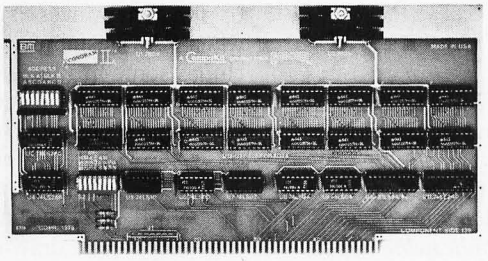

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assume that vertex A is the origin of the plot. Clearly, the smallest amount of pen movement possible is $4s$, where s is the length of the side of the square. The value of $4s$ is obtained when the plotting begins at point A (ie: the origin) with consecutive draws to B, C, D, and then a final draw to A. In this case the length of the moves is 0. A nonoptimal plotting scheme for this figure would be to start at A, and then draw to B, move to D and draw to C and then to B, move to A and then draw to D. The total pen movement for this scheme is $5s + \sqrt{2}s$, where again s is the length of the square. It should be clear that there is no upper limit on the total pen movement, as the moves have no effect on the resulting plot and can be increased without bound.

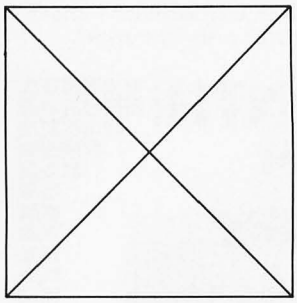

Figure 13: A simple plot for which the best possible plotting scheme includes some nondrawing pen moves.

Unfortunately, it is not always possible to find a plotting scheme in which the length of the pen moves is 0. A simple plot for which the best possible plotting scheme includes some moves is shown in figure 13. If s is the side of the square, the best possible plotting scheme has a total pen movement of $5s + 2\sqrt{2}s$ (see reference 10).

Of the two figures discussed in detail, the crest and the dissected square, only the crest can be drawn with zero moves. The plotting scheme which obtains this optimal solution is shown in figure 14. Using this strategy resulted in a substantial savings in total plotting time.

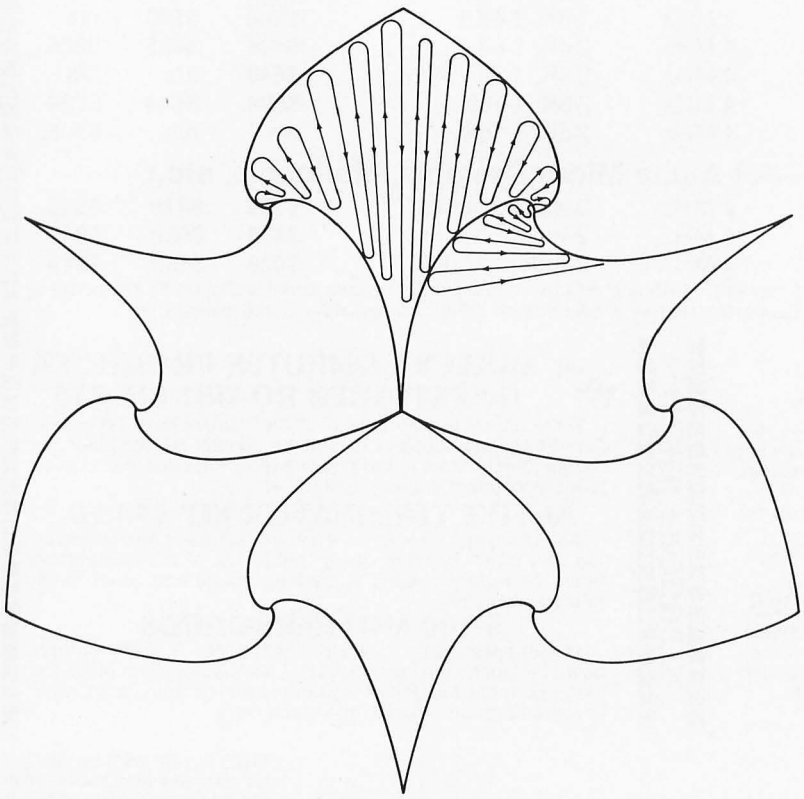

Figure 14: Optimal plotting scheme for drawing the crest with no wasted pen movement.

Unfortunately, no plotting scheme for the dissected square which has zero moves is possible. In fact, no scheme was found which significantly reduced the total plot time from that obtained by using the notions explained in detail above. It is felt that this is because all the plotting schemes we tried involved decomposing long line segments into a number of smaller such segments which were not drawn consecutively. With an on line incremental plotter this requires the processor controlling the pen to issue a much larger number of plot commands. In a multiprocessing environment, any advantage gained in the total length of the moves was completely eliminated by the increased processing time with its associated overhead.■

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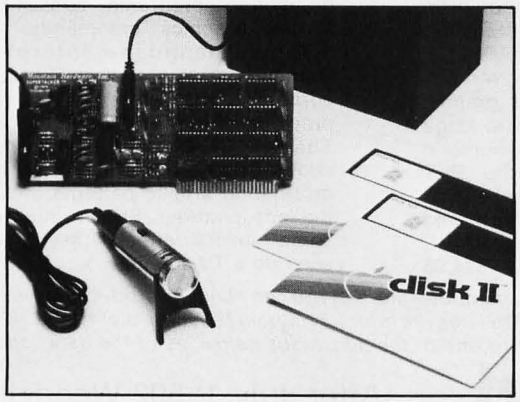

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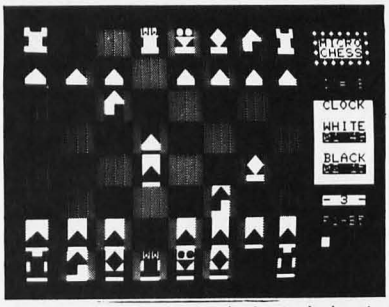

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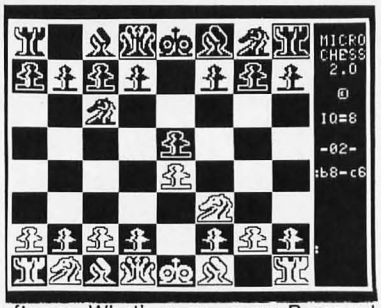

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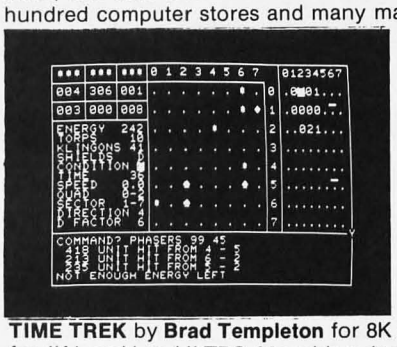

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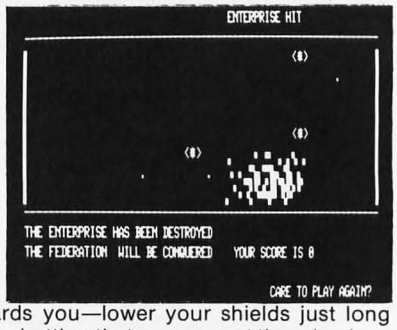

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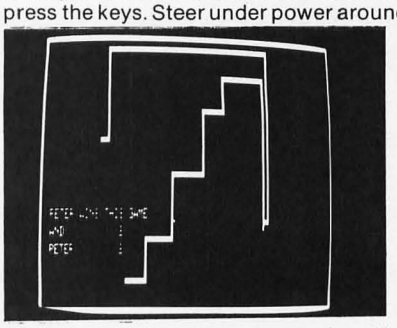

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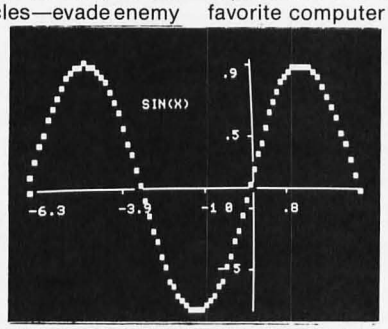

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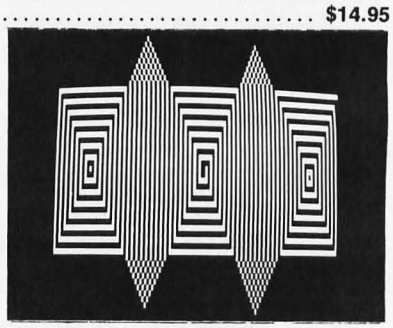

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Sonic Anemometry for the Hobbyist

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Meteorological measurement generally concerns itself with five variables: air pressure, humidity, temperature, wind speed, and wind direction. A single *sonic anemometer* can sense each of the last three variables. Accuracy and linearity are excellent. Additionally, the actual air temperature is detected in a manner which is insensitive to solar radiation, which can easily heat up conventional thermometers.

In a sonic anemometer, wind vane and rotating cups are replaced with transducers which measure the speed of sound as a function of wind velocity and temperature. Commercially available research grade instruments cost upwards of $10,000, and until recently employed analog computational circuitry.

The arrival of the microcomputer and its associated display techniques makes such a scientific instrument economically feasible as an experimenter's project. As a bonus, data can be logged into memory over time, averaged, and displayed as desired. A tantalizing option involves the attachment of a fast but inexpensive 4 bit analog to digital converter which enables the instrument to double as an ultrasonic echo radar device. At this time, however, such investigations have progressed only to echoing observations on the time base of a triggered oscilloscope.

In operation the instrument uses a pair of pulse travel times in the North-South direction and a corresponding pair for the East-West direction. These vector components are easily processed into a resultant wind vector with magnitude and direction. Physically, two sets of ultrasonic transducers face each other at opposite ends of a path. Simultaneous sound fronts and eventual reception yield two travel times whose difference is a measure of wind speed along the path.

Fundamental Relationships

The following derivation yields wind speed:

$$\Delta t = t_2 - t_1 = \frac{D}{C-W} - \frac{D}{C+W}$$

$$= \frac{2DW}{C^2-W^2} \approx \frac{2DW}{C^2} \quad . \quad (1)$$

$$\text{Therefore } W = \left(\frac{C^2}{2D}\right)\left(\Delta t\right) \quad , \quad (2)$$

where C = speed of sound
D = path length
W = wind speed
t = difference of travel times.

The resultant wind speed, W_r, being the sum of two orthogonal vectors, is simply expressed as:

$$W_r = \sqrt{W_{NS}^2 + W_{EW}^2} \quad . \quad (3)$$

Temperature is found by adding a pair of travel times:

$$t_1 + t_2 = \frac{D}{C+W} + \frac{D}{C-W} = \frac{2DC}{C^2-W^2}$$

$$\approx \frac{2DC}{C^2} = \frac{2D}{C} \quad . \quad (4)$$

If $C = 20\sqrt{T_k}$ is substituted in the above relationship:

$$T_k = \left[\frac{2D}{20\,(t_1 + t_2)}\right]^2 \quad , \quad (5)$$

where T_k is degrees Kelvin.

Since the velocity calibration of the instrument varies about 3.5% over a 0°C to 30°C range, the temperature measurement can be used to correct the velocity readings. Using equations (2) and (4) above:

$$W = \frac{2D\,(t_1 - t_2)}{(t_1 + t_2)^2} \quad . \quad (6)$$

Wind speed measuring resolution can be determined if the computer's input cycle time and anemometer path length are known. Recall that:

$$W = \Delta t\left(\frac{C^2}{2D}\right)$$

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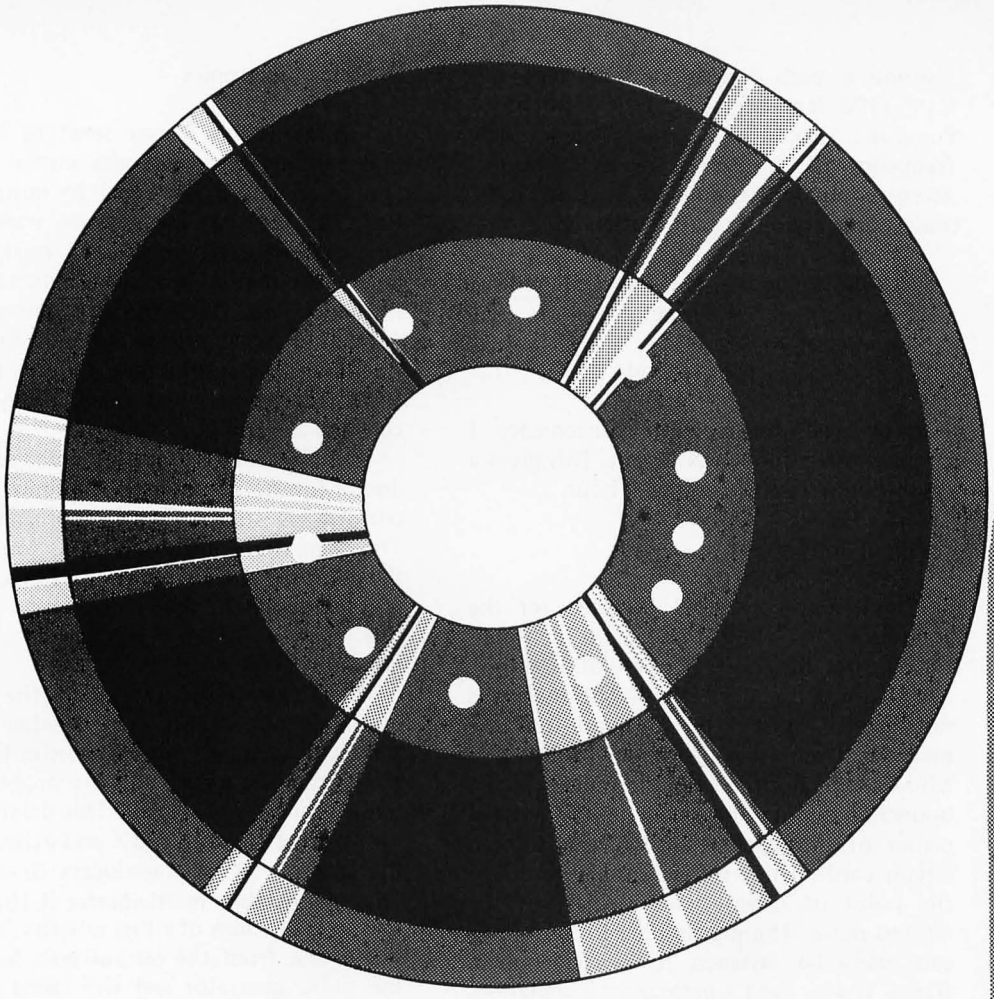

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Circle 237 on inquiry card.

Assume a path length of 4.84 feet and C = 1100 feet per second. A Z-80 based computer operating at a system clock frequency of 2.5 MHz, for example, can accept input no faster than 8 μs per byte. Under these conditions, resolution is:

$$\frac{8 \times 10^{-6} \text{ seconds} \times (1100 \text{ feet/second})^2}{2 \times 4.84 \text{ feet}}$$

$$= 1 \text{ foot/second.}$$

For physical construction convenience I chose a three foot path length. This gives a resolution of nearly 1 mile per hour.

Construction Details

Rigid support should be used for the transducer mounting. I chose 3/4 inch plastic pipe for low cost and ease of assembly. See figure 3 for more detail. The angle α is not critical. Just keep in mind that the height (H) must be high enough to prevent off-axis energy from the transducers from bouncing off any hardware in the bottom center of the assembly (such as a printed circuit card). These reflections can return to the point of origin before arrival of the desired pulse. The plastic pipe for both axes can easily be fastened to a wooden base frame. If you need a permanent installation, you can investigate better support arrangements.

The ultrasonic transducers (Model MK-109) range from one to two dollars apiece on the surplus market, and they can be conveniently supported by pieces of 3/4 inch thin wall plastic pipe. Use shielded wire between the transducers and the interface electronics. The electronic circuit card should be sheltered from the elements. (A plastic sandwich bag will work for the short term.) Unshielded wire, such as a ribbon cable, can be used between the computer and the interface.

Mechanical adjustment, besides the obvious line-of-sight alignment, consists of physically moving one or more transducers in their holders so that both *component vectors* are zero in still air. A program such as the demonstrator routine in listing 1 should be used for this adjustment.

In wiring the preamplifier section of the receiver, note that all the 74C04 integrated circuits are connected to a separate 5 V zener regulated supply. The shields of the receiver-transducer coaxial cables connect to the negative side of this zener diode. This preamplifier common connects to ordinary digital ground at only *one* location — a lead from the negative side of the zener to supply ground.

Interface Electronics

Figures 1 and 2 may seem to indicate that considerable effort was wasted on obtaining an enormous signal to noise ratio. Not so. The barium titanate transducers (commonly used in intrusion alarms), having inherently high Q (ratio of inductance to resistance) and self resonance, are efficient only after many oscillations have built up. As impulse generators they are only marginally acceptable; I used them for their low cost and availability.

Complementary metal oxide semiconductor inverters, biased in their linear region, perform as stable high gain preamplifiers. The logic state edge detectors, formed by the comparator and type D flip flop combination, respond to the first negative or positive cycle received that exceeds a preset noise threshold.

The triacs are used to switch the output of the step-up transformer to either pair of transmitting transducers. Exclusive OR gate IC7c generates a delayed start strobe to the pulse generating circuitry. This delay allows the steering triacs to settle and permits only the desired set of transducers to activate. The monostable multivibrator IC10a, sensitive to transitions of either polarity, allows a single line from the output port to strobe the pulse generator and also select the desired wind direction to be measured.

The trigger threshold of all receiver circuitry is determined by a single resistor, R_t, in a simple voltage divider string. R_t sets the difference between the comparator trip point levels, V_H and V_L. The receiver must be sensitive enough to trigger on the second, third, or fourth incoming half cycle, but it must not be so sensitive as to latch up on extraneous noise. Increasing the value shown in the schematic, for example, decreases output sensitivity. Such action may be necessary if different path lengths or transducers are used.

Transformer T should have a turns ratio of approximately 10:1. A small 120 V to 12 V filament transformer will work here as a step up device, even at 40 kHz.

A precautionary note: when testing the pulse generating circuitry, do not run it continuously with transducers connected because the 200 V peak to peak signal could result in a burn-out of these devices.

Software

Listing 1 contains a program written for the Z-80 microprocessor which displays data from the anemometer. It sends data to one bit of an output port and accepts data from

Text continued on page 132

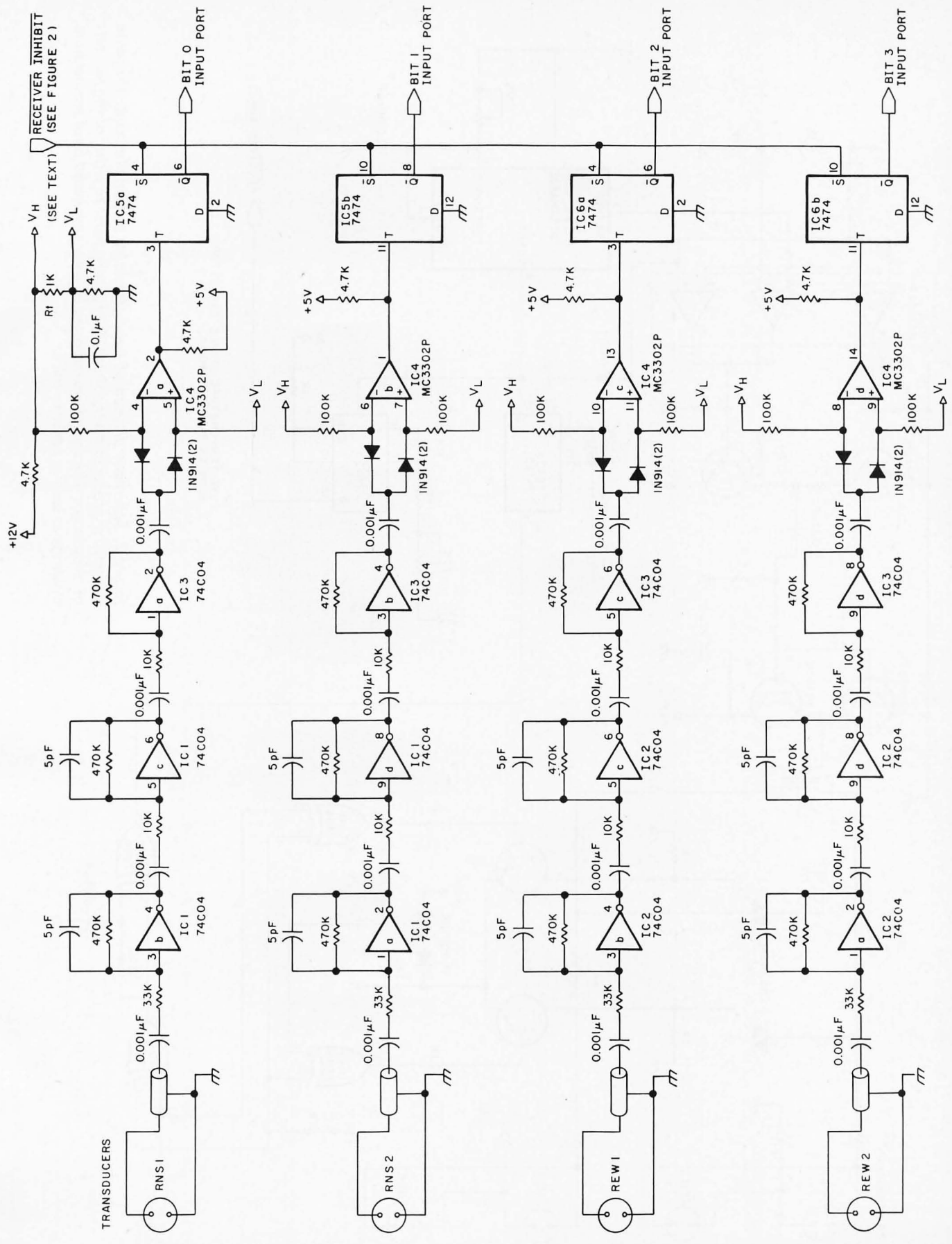


Figure 1: Schematic diagram of receiver section of circuit. The arrival time of a pulse is perceived by the receiver as the first negative or positive half cycle to exceed a noise threshold.

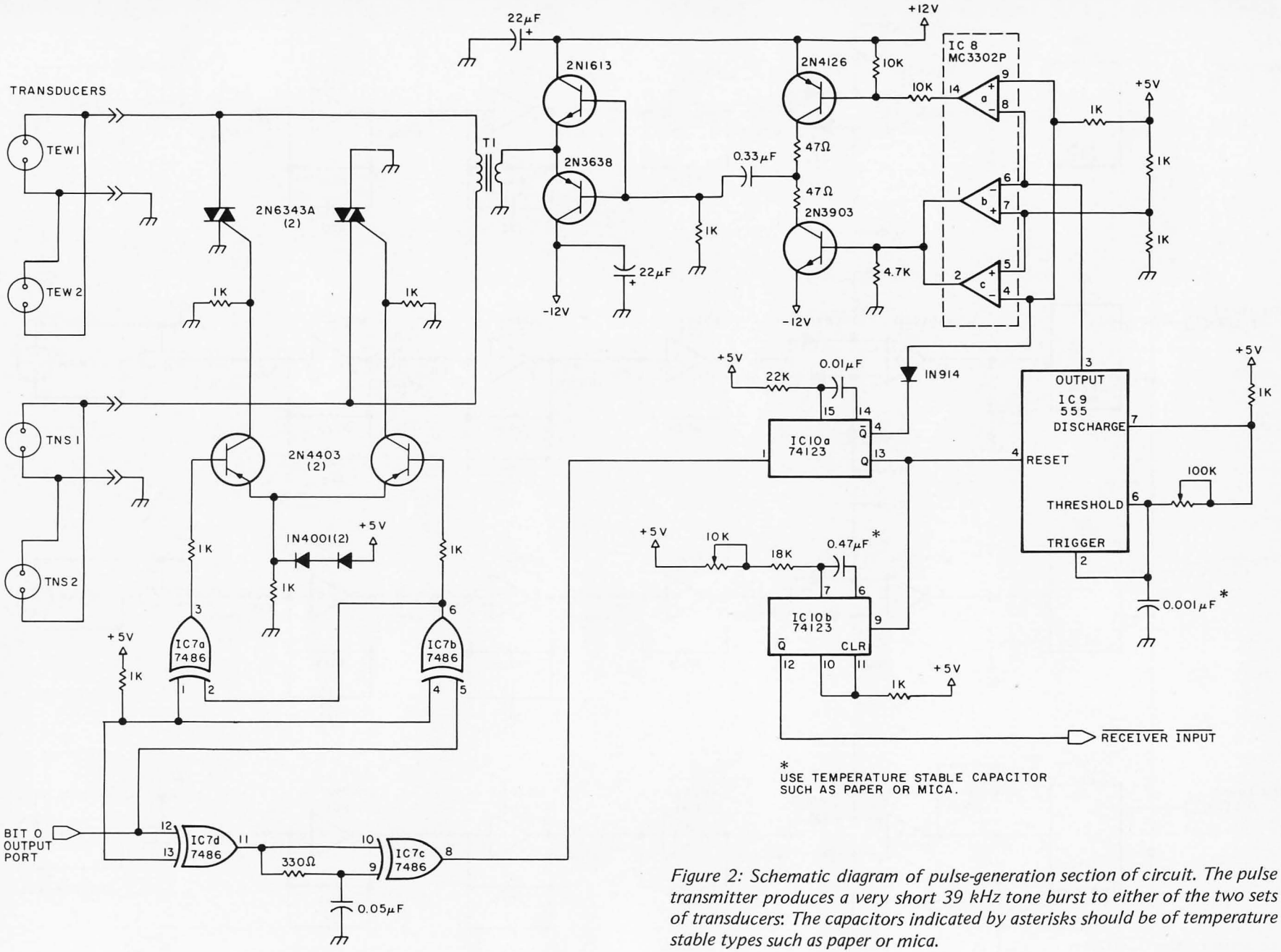
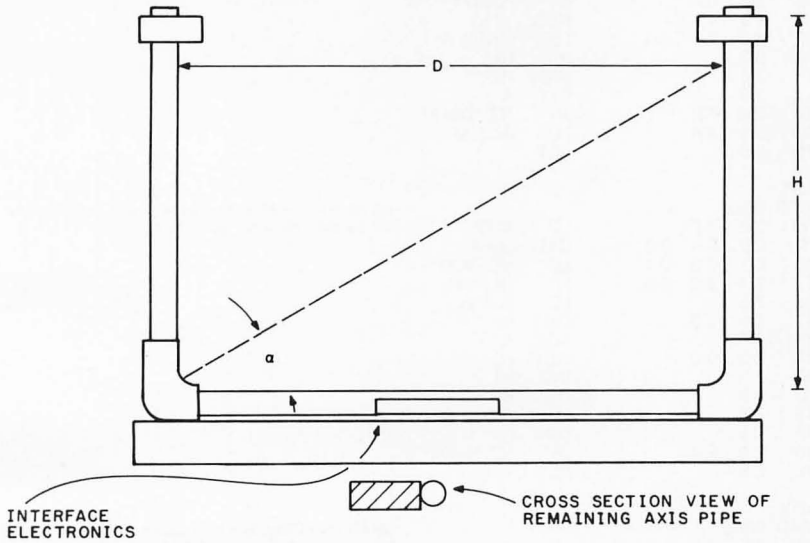


Figure 2: Schematic diagram of pulse-generation section of circuit. The pulse transmitter produces a very short 39 kHz tone burst to either of the two sets of transducers. The capacitors indicated by asterisks should be of temperature stable types such as paper or mica.

Table 1: Power table for the integrated circuits used in figures 1 and 2.

Number	Type	+5 V	GND	−12 V	+12 V
IC1	74C04	14	7	—	—
IC2	74C04	14	7	—	—
IC3	74C04	14	7	—	—
IC4	MC3302P	—	12	—	3
IC5	7474	14	7	—	—
IC6	7474	14	7	—	—
IC7	7486	14	7	—	—
IC8	MC3302P	—	—	12	3
IC9	555	8	1	—	—
IC10	74123	16	8	—	—

Figure 3: Structural diagram of the sonic anemometer transducer apparatus. Shown are the two transducers for one axis; only a cross section of the other axis is seen. The electronic circuit card is seen near the center of the assembly. The measuring resolution is a function of the distance D between the transducers. The angle α should not be less than 30 degrees.



Listing 1: Program in Z-80 assembler code to gather data from the sonic anemometer and display wind direction on a video monitor.

0600 thru 063B triggers the pulse generator and calls all the support routines in their proper sequence.

```
S 0600 063B :
0600   00              NOP   :
0601   00              NOP   :
0602   00              NOP   :
0603   CD  40  07      CALL  0740 :
0606   00              NOP   :
0607   00              NOP   :
0608   00              NOP   :
0609   00              NOP   :
060A   00              NOP   :
060B   00              NOP   :
060C   00              NOP   :
060D   00              NOP   :
060E   00              NOP   :
060F   00              NOP   :
0610   3E  00          LD    A,00 :
0612   D3  02          OUT   02 :
0614   CD  60  07      CALL  0760 :
0617   CD  34  07      CALL  0734 :
061A   CD  00  07      CALL  0700 :
061D   CD  BD  08      CALL  08BD :
0620   3E  01          LD    A,01 :
0622   D3  02          OUT   02 :
0624   CD  65  07      CALL  0765 :
0627   CD  10  07      CALL  0710 :
062A   CD  34  07      CALL  0734 :
```

Listing 1 continued on page 126

Circle 35 on inquiry card.

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Peoria, Illinois 61614

Listing 1 continued from page 125:

```
062D  CD 00 07     CALL 0700 :
0630  CD D4 08     CALL 08D4 :
0633  CD 0A 08     CALL 080A :
0636  CD 7B 08     CALL 087B :
0639  C3 00 06     JP   0600 :

READY :
S 080A 0849 :                                  080A thru 0849 positions an ASCII asterisk in
080A  21 DF 0A     LD   HL,0ADF :              the video memory buffer.
080D  3A F3 06     LD   A,(06F3) :
0810  47           LD   B,A :
0811  3A F2 06     LD   A,(06F2) :
0814  98           SBC  B :
0815  38 08        JR   C,*081F* :
0817  32 F1 06     LD   (06F1),A :
081A  CD 4D 08     CALL 084D :
081D  18 08        JR   *0827* :
081F  ED 44        NEG  :
0821  32 F1 06     LD   (06F1),A :
0824  CD 51 08     CALL 0851 :
0827  3A F5 06     LD   A,(06F5) :
082A  47           LD   B,A :
082B  3A F4 06     LD   A,(06F4) :
082E  98           SBC  B :
082F  38 0C        JR   C,*083D* :
0831  32 F6 06     LD   (06F6),A :
0834  28 05        JR   Z,*083B* :
0836  CD A0 08     CALL 08A0 :
0839  00           NOP  :
083A  00           NOP  :
083B  18 0A        JR   *0847* :
083D  ED 44        NEG  :
083F  32 F6 06     LD   (06F6),A :
0842  23           INC  HL :
0843  23           INC  HL :
0844  3D           DEC  A :
0845  20 FB        JR   NZ,*0842* :
0847  36 AA        LD   (HL),AA :
0849  C9           RET  :

READY :
S 087B 0892 :                                  087B thru 0892 outputs the video buffer to the
087B  3E 7F        LD   A,7F :                 16 by 64 character generator.
087D  CD FA 00     CALL 00FA :
0880  01 00 04     LD   BC,0400 :
0883  21 00 09     LD   HL,0900 :
0886  7E           LD   A,(HL) :
0887  D3 00        OUT  00 :
0889  AF           XOR  A :
088A  D3 00        OUT  00 :
088C  23           INC  HL :
088D  0B           DEC  BC :
088E  78           LD   A,B :
088F  B1           OR   C :
0890  20 F4        JR   NZ,*0886* :
0892  C9           RET  :

READY :
S 084D 086E :                                  084D thru 086E is a subroutine to raise or lower
084D  3E 42        LD   A,42 :                 the asterisk for routine 080A.
084F  18 02        JR   *0853* :
0851  3E 4A        LD   A,4A :
0853  32 6A 08     LD   (086A),A :
0856  3A F1 06     LD   A,(06F1) :
0859  57           LD   D,A :
085A  FE 00        CP   00 :
085C  C8           RET  Z :
085D  DE 07        SBC  07 :
085F  38 04        JR   C,*0865* :
0861  3E 07        LD   A,07 :
0863  18 01        JR   *0866* :
0865  7A           LD   A,D :
0866  01 40 00     LD   BC,0040 :
0869  ED 42        SBC  HL,BC :
086B  3D           DEC  A :
086C  20 FB        JR   NZ,*0869* :
086E  C9           RET  :

READY :
S 08BD 08D2 :                                  08BD thru 08D2 extracts and stores vertical
08BD  3E 46        LD   A,46 :                 (N/S) travel times.
08BF  32 F0 08     LD   (08F0),A :
08C2  CD EB 08     CALL 08EB :
08C5  32 F2 06     LD   (06F2),A :
08C8  3E 4E        LD   A,4E :
08CA  32 F0 08     LD   (08F0),A :
08CD  CD EB 08     CALL 08EB :
08D0  32 F3 06     LD   (06F3),A :

READY :
S 08D4 08F4 :                                  08D4 thru 08EA extracts and stores horizontal
08D4  3E 56        LD   A,56 :                 (E/W) travel times.
08D6  32 F0 08     LD   (08F0),A :
```

Listing 1 continued on page 128

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```
DAY  C  AMOUNT   METH OF PAY   DESCRIPTION
 1   A   3.33    CASH          PENNZOIL
 2   Z  35.98    MCHG          CRITTERS
 3   C 288.11    B OF A        WOOL SUIT
 4   Z   1.29    CASH          TOOTHBRUSH
 5   E   9.95    CHK#101       BOOK
 6   F  68.47    CASH          2 WEEK'S FOOD
 7   G  13.44    MCHG          GIFT FOR WIFE
 8   B 316       CHK#101       MORTGAGE
 9   I   2.75    CASH          PAY FOR 1 HOUR
10   Z   5.81    CASH          SUIT CLEANED
To go on, press any key
```

Household Finance Part 1

```
You spent the following amounts in each
category for the months of:JANUARY FEBRU
ARY

CATEGORY   AMOUNT    CATEGORY   AMOUNT
AUTO         19.46   INCOME       2.75
MRTGE       320.73   TAXES           0
CLOTHES     448.61   MEDICAL       210
ENTRTAIN     21.69   INSUR      281.55
EDUC        342.96   SAVINGS         0
FOOD        229.76   UTIL         36.23
GIFTS        13.44   VACATION   1823.41
HOUSE          533   MISC         70.13
**************************************

Total amount spent was 4350.99

Total income was 2.75

Do you want a spending profile for this
period?(Y or N)
```

Household Finance Part 2

Part 1 inputs, lists, adds, updates, changes, and deletes items. Writes data to a cassette tape.

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Creative Software

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Listing 1 continued from 126:

```
08D9  CD EB 08     CALL 08EB :
08DC  32 F4 06     LD   (06F4),A :
08DF  3E 5E        LD   A,5E :
08E1  32 F0 08     LD   (08F0),A :
08E4  CD EB 08     CALL 08EB :
08E7  32 F5 06     LD   (06F5),A :
08EA  C9           RET  :
08EB  AF           XOR  A :          08EB thru 08F4 counts the number of memory
08EC  21 00 0D     LD   HL,0D00 :    spaces necessary to find a bit set in the data.
08EF  CB 5E        BIT  3,(HL) :
08F1  C0           RET  NZ :
08F2  23           INC  HL :
08F3  3C           INC  A :
08F4  18 F9        JR   *08EF* :

READY :
S 0700 073A :                        0700 thru 0709 inputs a block of data from a
0700  06 00        LD   B,00 :       port to a page in memory.
0702  0E 02        LD   C,02 :
0704  21 00 0D     LD   HL,0D00 :
0707  ED B2        INIR :
0709  C9           RET  :
070A  00           NOP  :
070B  00           NOP  :
070C  00           NOP  :
070D  00           NOP  :
070E  00           NOP  :
070F  00           NOP  :
0710  3E CE        LD   A,CE :       0710 thru 0729 places the N-S-E-W graticule in
0712  32 1F 09     LD   (091F),A :   the buffer allocated for the video display.
0715  3E D3        LD   A,D3 :
0717  32 DF 0C     LD   (0CDF),A :
071A  3E C5        LD   A,C5 :
071C  32 FF 0A     LD   (0AFF),A :
071F  3E D7        LD   A,D7 :
0721  32 C0 0A     LD   (0AC0),A :
0724  3E EF        LD   A,EF :
0726  32 DF 0A     LD   (0ADF),A :
0729  C9           RET  :
072A  00           NOP  :
072B  00           NOP  :
072C  00           NOP  :
072D  00           NOP  :
072E  00           NOP  :
072F  00           NOP  :
0730  06 01        LD   B,01 :       0730 thru 073A is for delay only.
0732  18 02        JR   *0736* :
0734  06 01        LD   B,01 :
0736  0E 7F        LD   C,7F :
0738  ED BB        OTDR :
073A  C9           RET  :

READY :
S 0740 074F :                        0740 thru 074F erases half the video buffer.
0740  21 00 09     LD   HL,0900 :
0743  06 00        LD   B,00 :
0745  3E A0        LD   A,A0 :
0747  77           LD   (HL),A :
0748  23           INC  HL :
0749  10 FC        DJNZ *0747* :
074B  77           LD   (HL),A :
074C  23           INC  HL :
074D  10 FC        DJNZ *074B* :
074F  C9           RET  :

READY :
S 0760 0770 :                        0760 thru 0770 are the remaining video erase
0760  21 00 0B     LD   HL,0B00 :    routines.
0763  18 03        JR   *0768* :
0765  21 00 0C     LD   HL,0C00 :
0768  06 00        LD   B,00 :
076A  3E A0        LD   A,A0 :
076C  77           LD   (HL),A :
076D  23           INC  HL :
076E  10 FC        DJNZ *076C* :
0770  C9           RET  :

READY :
S 08A0 08AB :                        08A0 thru 08AB moves the asterisk to the left in
08A0  47           LD   B,A :        proportion to the magnitude of the horizontal
08A1  DE 0F        SBC  0F :         (E/W) wind vector. Limits the data to 15 decimal
08A3  38 02        JR   C,*08A7* :   to prevent overwriting other memory.
08A5  06 0F        LD   B,0F :
08A7  2B           DEC  HL :
08A8  2B           DEC  HL :
08A9  10 FC        DJNZ *08A7* :
08AB  C9           RET  :

READY :
```

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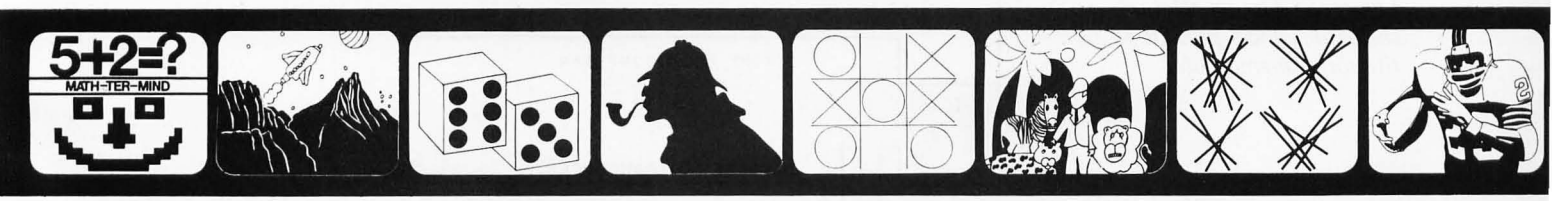

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Circle 3 on inquiry card.

Table 2: Summary of actions taken by program in listing 1.

1. Output to a port to trigger the North-South transducers.
2. Erase part of the video buffer (must be a time-invariant task).
3. Input a block of data into memory from anemometer port.
4. Examine memory, extract, and save North-South travel times.
5. Output to port to trigger East-West transducers.
6. Erase remainder of video buffer.
7. Input a block of data into memory.
8. Examine memory, extract, and save East-West travel times.
9. Move cursor (equivalent to head of resultant wind vector) in video memory buffer appropriate horizontal (East-West) and vertical (North-South) distances from origin.
10. Display the contents of video buffer on the video monitor.
11. Compute and display the temperature. (optional)
12. Go to step 1.

Figure 4: Block diagram of anemometer hardware.

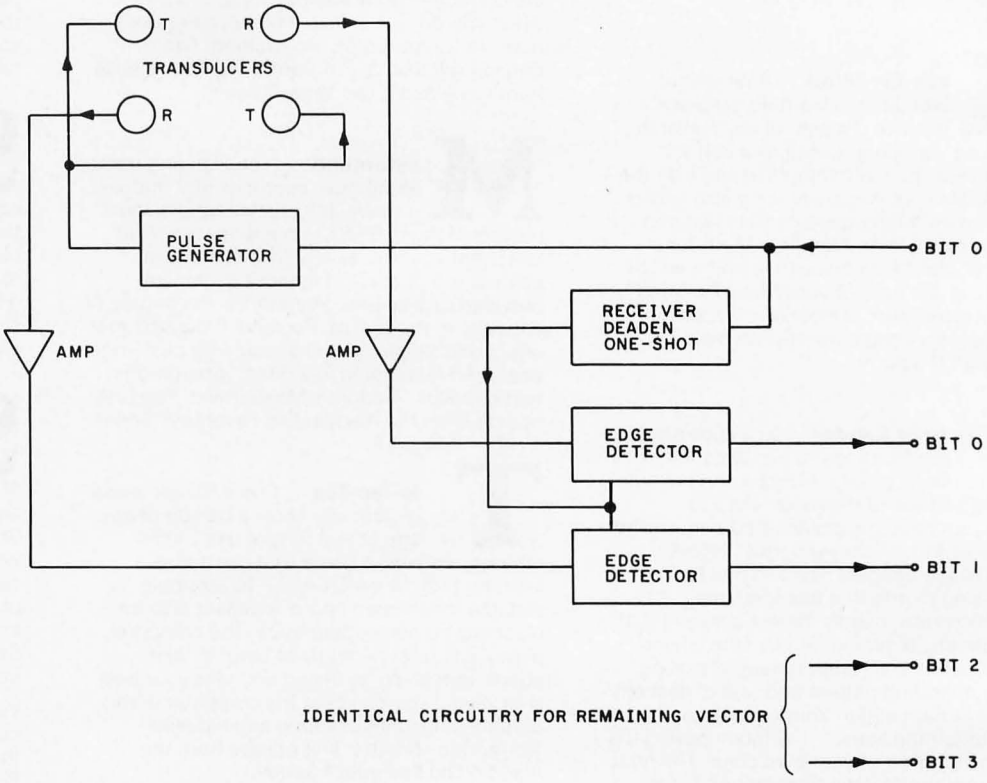
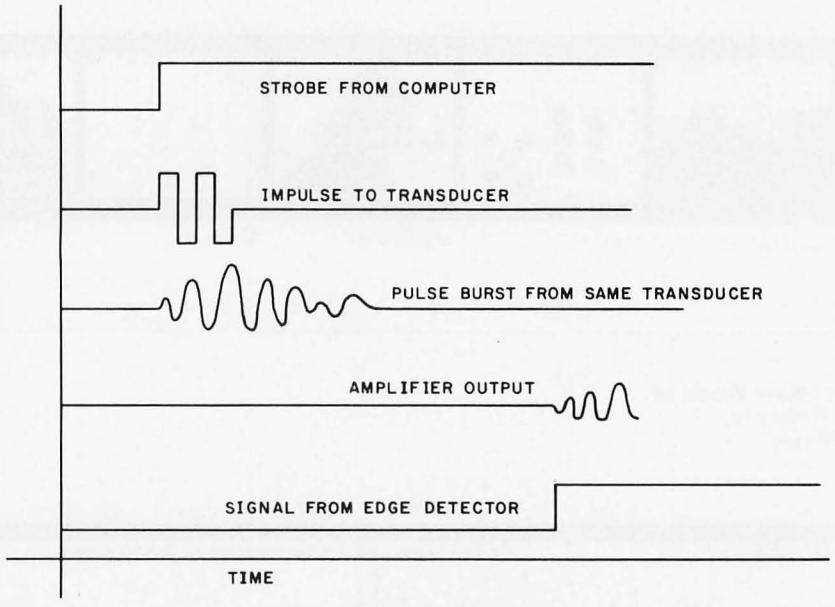
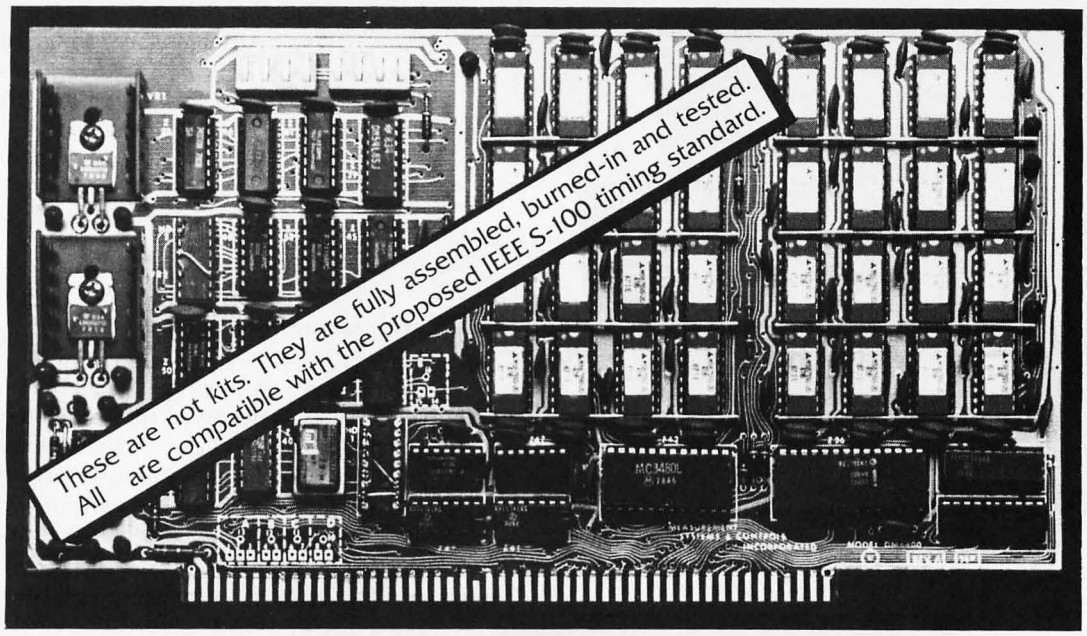


Figure 5: Timing relationships of signals present in the sonic anemometer.





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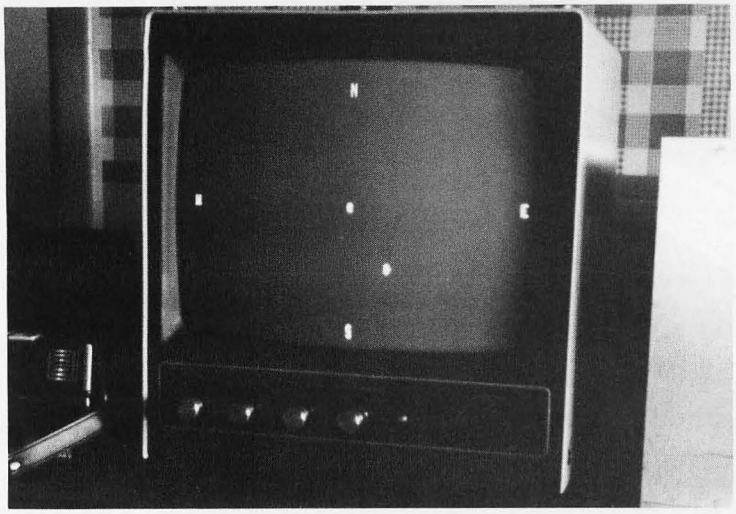

Photo 1: Wind direction display as it appears in the 16 line by 64 character format on the video monitor. The wind speed and velocity are indicated by the position of the asterisk with respect to the origin at center.

Text continued from page 122:

four bits of an input port. The composite wind vector is displayed on a video monitor in a 16 line by 64 character format. The program does not include a routine for computing the square root of the sum of squares; the plotting method used in the video formatting makes this unnecessary.

1 K bytes of memory is allocated for video display storage. A fixed cardinal direction graticule and an asterisk varying with the wind vector are placed in this buffer by subroutines. For each complete measurement by the transducers, the program erases and restores the video buffer. The position of the asterisk with respect to the center of the screen indicates wind direction and magnitude. Photo 1 shows the display. This arrangement, although cramping the display to only a ±8 unit variation in the North-South direction and allowing a ±32 unit variation in the East-West direction, still permits an interesting, virtually instantaneous display of wind activity.

Some of the subroutines in the listing have been split up so that the computer is doing useful things even during the transit times of the sound pulses (eg: erasure of the video buffer). The program measures the pulse travel times in a manner analogous to a counter. At a fixed time after pulse initiation, the input routine begins to look at a particular *pulse has arrived* flip flop (part of the hardware interface that connects to an input port) and records its logic state, 0 or 1, into an initial location in memory. This routine repeats itself 256 times, each time entering another observation into the next memory location allocated for logging. Checking for a 1 state (pulse has arrived) is saved for later in order to get the best time resolution out of the processor. A number whose value is proportional to travel time is finally obtained by a routine which starts at the beginning of the logging buffer and counts the number of successive memory bytes necessary to find a 1 in a particular bit position. Since a bit is allocated for each of the four travel times, determining the wind direction and speed is simply a matter of testing each of the four bits in an identical fashion.■

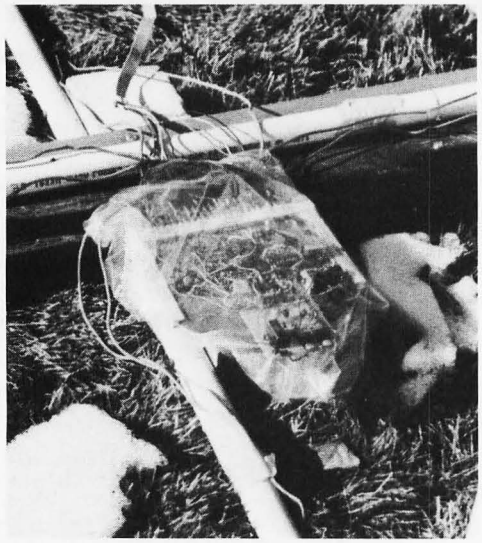

Photo 2: The interface electronic circuits are housed inside a convenient but necessary weather barrier.

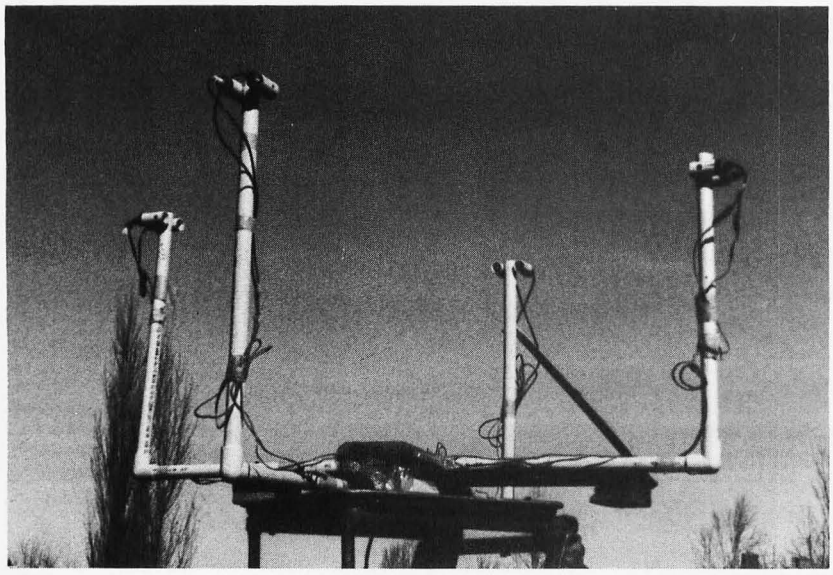

Photo 3: This view shows the plastic pipe construction of the sonic anemometer and the positioning of the transducers.

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The Nature of Robots

Part 2: Simulated Control System

William T Powers
1138 Whitfield Rd
Northbrook IL 60062

Figure, table, and listing numbering continued from part 1.

Note on North Star BASIC

The method of accessing strings in North Star BASIC is different from that of Microsoft and other BASICs. Translate as follows:

A$(1,n)	becomes	LEFT$(A$,n)
A$(n)	becomes	RIGHT$(A$,n)
A$(m,n)	becomes	MID$(A$,m,n)

Listing 2: A control system simulator written in North Star BASIC.

```
1     PRINT "PROGRAM TWO: SIMULATION OF CONTROL SYSTEM BEHAVIOR"
2     PRINT
3     PRINT "AFTER PROMPT (COLON), YOU MAY TYPE"
4     PRINT "'PLOT XXXXXX', WHERE XXXXXX MEANS"
5     PRINT "ANY ONE OR MORE CHARACTERS FROM THE"
6     PRINT "SET P,E,R,I,O,D, IN ANY SEQUENCE."
7     PRINT
8     PRINT "YOU MAY ALSO SET PARAMETERS BY TYPING IN"
9     PRINT "THE PARAMETER SYMBOL IMMEDIATELY FOLLOWED"
10    PRINT "BY AN EQUAL SIGN AND THE VALUE (NO SPACES)."
11    PRINT
12    PRINT "PARAMETERS ARE L, K1, K2, S1, S2, O, P, R, AND D"
13    PRINT "DEFAULT VALUES 16, 1, 2, 1, 1, 0, 0, 0, AND 15"
14    PRINT
15    PRINT "TO RUN, TYPE '.' (INITIALIZE), OR '/' (DON'T INIT)."
16    PRINT
17    K1=1
18    K2=2
19    S1=1
20    S2=1
21    P0=0
22    O0=0
23    R0=0
24    D0=15
25    V(4)=1
26    V(5)=1
27    V(6)=1
28    INPUT "DISPLAY WIDTH: ",W
29    W=W-2
30    C=W/2 \ REM                              CENTER OF DISPLAY
31    DIM Z$(W),M$(W),A$(20),B$(6),K(6),U(6),E$(72)
32    B$="PERIOD"
33    L1=15
34    FOR J=1 TO W
35    Z$(J,J)=" "
36    NEXT J \ REM                             CREATE BLANK FILE
37    DEF FNI(X) \ REM                         INPUT FUNCTION
38    P=P+S1*(K1*X-P)
39    RETURN P
40    FNEND
41    DEF FNO(X) \ REM                         OUTPUT FUNCTION
42    O=O+S2*(K2*E-O)
43    RETURN O
44    FNEND
45    DEF FNF(X)=0.5*X \ REM                   FEEDBACK FUNCTION
46    DEF FND(X)=0.8*X \ REM                   DISTURBANCE FUNCTION
```

In part 1, we went through a chain of reasoning that ended with the conclusion that the behavior of an organism is not what it seems. Behavior appears to be at the end of a cause and effect chain that starts with the inputs to a nervous system, but that chain is subject to disturbances that can occur *after* the output of the nervous system. Nevertheless, the behavior at the end of this chain is stable and repeatable, while events closer to the organism become less predictable as we get nearer to the neural signals at the output of the nervous system. By analyzing an example in which a car is maintained in the center of its lane, we saw that this measure of behavior belongs at both the cause and effect ends of the chain, and that if this variable is shown only once in the diagram, a closed loop results.

We are going to look in more detail at the behaving system in this closed loop, to see how it might be organized to produce the results seen. We will start using a simulator written in BASIC which allows the user to vary many parameters of the control system to see the effects on its actions. Human behavior will not be mentioned much in this installment; there are many fundamentals to cover before we can get back to the main purpose of this series. The object here is to retrain the intuition so that the closed loop way of seeing behavior becomes as natural as the old straight through cause and effect way.

Organization of a Control System

The simulator (listing 2) is set up to demonstrate the properties of a standard sort of control system organization. We will first look at that organization, then at the simulator itself, and finally at some details of the operation of the control system. You

can do much more experimenting than we will discuss here.

Figure 5 is a diagram of a typical control system. Almost every control system can be expressed in this form, although in the real system, functions that are shown here as separate are often combined into one physical entity. The symbols for functions and variables are those which appear in the BASIC simulator.

The behaving system is entirely above the boundary line. All that is not the behaving system (or systems inside the organism at a higher level, not considered here) is called the *environment* of the system. Variables inside the system will always be called *signals*, and variables in the environment will always be called *quantities*.

In the environment we have three quantities mentioned in part 1. The *input quantity* is a physical variable that the system can sense. The state of this quantity is the result of all influences acting on it (which in our limited universe means the influence from the system's own output) and one representative *disturbing quantity* that can vary independently from what the system does. The system's output is represented by the *output quantity*. The input quantity is called I, the output quantity O, and the disturbing quantity D.

The output and disturbing quantities are separated in space from the input quantity, and they influence the input quantity through properties of the intervening environment. The connection that translates the state of the output quantity into an influence on the input quantity is called the *feedback function*, symbolized in BASIC as FNF. The function that translates the state of the disturbing quantity into another influence on the input quantity is the *disturbing function*, symbolized FND. If the input quantity is associated with some physical object, then FNF and FND may both contain properties of that object (eg: its mass). There are less redundant ways to handle this in special cases.

The meaning of the previous paragraph is summed up in line 102: I = FNF(O) + FND(D). The state of the input quantity is the sum of the influences from the output quantity and the disturbing quantity. In the real world, both the output quantity and the disturbing quantity may have many effects other than those on I, but those effects are irrelevant to the operation of this system (perhaps not to the designer or user of the system, if it is artificial). We have therefore considered everything about the environment that is of interest here.

```
47   REM **
48   REM ** COMMANDS FOR SETTING PARAMETERS
49   GOTO 51
50   A$=" "\IF E1>LEN(E$) THEN 51 ELSE 53
51   INPUT ":",E$\A$=" "\E1=1
52   IF LEN(E$)<>0 THEN 53\PRINT\GOTO 51
53   E1$=E$(E1,E1)\E1=E1+1
54   IF E1$=","THEN 57 ELSE IF E1>LEN(E$) THEN 56
55   A$=A$+E1$\GOTO 53
56   A$=A$+E1$
57   IF A$="."THEN 95
58   IF A$="/"THEN 99
59   IF A$<>"?"THEN 62
60   PRINT\PRINT%7F3,"K1 = ",K1,"  K2 = ",K2,"  S1 = ",S1,"    S2 =", S2
61   GOTO 51
62   IF LEN(A$)<5 THEN 72
63   IF A$(1,5)<>"PLOT"THEN 72
64   A$=A$(6)
65   FOR J=1 TO 6\REM                    TAG VARIABLES TO
66   V(J)=0\REM                          BE PLOTTED.
67   FOR K=1 TO LEN(A$)
68   IF A$(K,K)=B$(J,J) THEN V(J)=1
69   NEXT K
70   NEXT J
71   GOTO 50
72   IF LEN(A$)<3 THEN 91
73   IF A$(1,3)<>"K1="THEN 75
74   K1=VAL(A$(4))\GOTO 50
75   IF A$(1,3)<>"K2="THEN 77
76   K2=VAL(A$(4))\GOTO 50
77   IF A$(1,3)<>"S1="THEN 79
78   S1=VAL(A$(4))\GOTO 50
79   IF A$(1,3)<>"S2="THEN 81
80   S2=VAL(A$(4))\GOTO 50
81   IF A$(1,2)<>"O="THEN 83
82   O0=VAL(A$(3))\GOTO 50
83   IF A$(1,2)<>"P="THEN 85
84   P0=VAL(A$(3))\GOTO 50
85   IF A$(1,2)<>"R="THEN 87
86   R0=VAL(A$(3))\GOTO 50
87   IF A$(1,2)<>"D="THEN 89
88   D0=VAL(A$(3))\GOTO 50
89   IF A$(1,2)<>"L="THEN 91
90   L1=VAL(A$(3))\GOTO 50
91   PRINT "???",\GOTO 50
92   REM **
93   REM **                              SIMULATION AND PLOTTING LOOP
94   REM **
95   P=P0\REM                            ENTRY WITH INITIALIZATION
96   O=O0\D=D0\R=R0
97   I=FNF(O)+FND(D)
98   E=R-P\GOSUB 109\REM                 PLOT INIT. CONDITIONS
99   D=D0\REM                            ENTRY, NO INITIALIZATION
100  R=R0
101  FOR L=1 TO L1\REM                   CONTROL LOOP SIMULATION
102  I=FNF(O)+FND(D)
103  P=FNI(I)
104  E=R-P
105  O=FNO(E)
106  GOSUB 109\REM                       CALL PLOTTING SUBROUTINE
107  NEXT L
108  GOTO 50
109  REM **
110  REM **                              PLOTTING SUBROUTINE
111  REM **
112  U(1)=P+C
113  U(2)=E+C
114  U(3)=R+C
115  U(4)=I+C
116  U(5)=O+C
117  U(6)=D+C
118  PRINT
119  M$=Z$\REM                           CLEAR OUTPUT BUFFER
120  M$(C+1,C+1)="."\REM                 MARK SCREEN CENTER
121  FOR J=1 TO 6\REM                    LOAD BUFFER
122  U=INT(U(J)+.5)+1
123  IF U<1 THEN U=1
124  IF U>W THEN U=W
125  IF V(J)=1 THEN M$(U,U)=B$(J,J)
126  NEXT J
127  PRINT M$,\REM                       PRINT BUFFER
128  RETURN
999  END
```

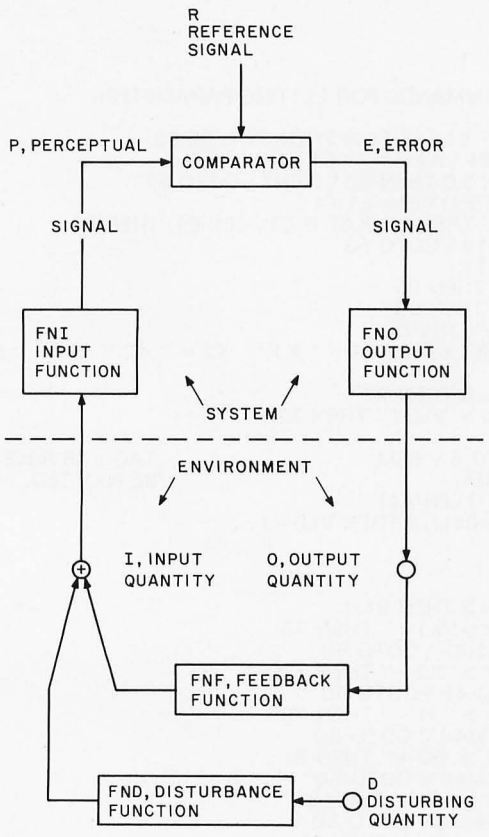

Figure 5: The system's output quantity, O, influences the input quantity, I, via the feedback function, FNF. The disturbing quantity, D, influences the input quantity via the disturbance function FND. Both FNF and FND represent physical links in the environment. The state of the input quantity is determined by the sum of these two influences.

The system's input function, FNI, converts the state of the input quantity into a magnitude of the perceptual signal P. P is compared with the reference signal R in the comparator function, which emits an error signal E = R — P. The error signal is converted into a magnitude of the output quantity via the output function, FNO.

Above the line we have the behaving system. We cross the boundary at the *input function*, FNI. This is the function which turns the state of an external quantity, I, into the magnitude of a *perceptual signal*, P. Both sensors and computing processes may be involved in a complex input function. The outcome, however, is always the magnitude of a single signal, whatever it represents. This signal can only increase or decrease; we will always work with one-dimensional control systems, treating multi-dimensional control phenomena by using multiple control systems. The perceptual signal is the system's internal representation of the external world — its only such representation.

Line 103 expresses the definition of the input function and the way it relates the input quantity and perceptual signal: P = FNI(I).

Inside the system is another signal, the *reference signal*, R. In living systems, this signal is generated elsewhere in the organism; it is not accessible from outside. The reference signal, along with the perceptual signal, enters a function called the *comparator*, which subtracts one signal from the other and emits an *error signal*, E, representing the signed difference of magnitudes. It does not matter which signal is subtracted from which, but for uniformity we will always treat the reference signal as the positive input and the perceptual signal as the one subtracted from it. Thus, a positive error signal always means that the reference signal is larger than the perceptual signal. This function does not have to be generalized, as nonlinearities and amplification can always be absorbed into one of the other functions.

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Anatomy of the Simulator

Let's run through the simulator quickly before we start using it, to see how this control organization operates.

Lines 1 thru 16 are user instructions. Lines 17 thru 27 initialize the system in a way that will be used to illustrate a point. Lines 28 thru 33 do more initializing, and ask for the width of your display. Lines 34 thru 36 create a blank string in case your BASIC doesn't set dimensioned strings initially to spaces.

Lines 37 thru 46 define the various functions of the control system. If your BASIC can't do multiline functions, you can substitute subroutines here. The idea is to make it easy to try out different kinds of functions in the control system.

Lines 49 thru 91 comprise the interpreter, which accepts character strings and sets initial conditions and parameters before each run. Variables are initialized and constants are set by typing a string of the form A=m or An=m (no spaces; terminated by a carriage return). To set up the plotter, the statement is PLOT XXXXXX, where XXXXXX is one or more characters from the set P,E,R,I,O, and D, in any sequence. The plotter comes up set to plot P, E, and R. If you forget the last values of the parameters K1, K2, S1, and S2, type ? and they will be printed out. We will eventually define them.

The control system itself is simulated from line 95 to line 108. Entering the simulator at line 95 initializes the perceptual and output variables to values given to the interpreter. Entering at line 99 runs the simulation from the conditions left at the end of the last run. This is taken care of by the two run *commands in the interpreter: a dot (.) means run with initialization, and a slash (/) means run without initialization. All commands require a carriage return termination.*

The plotting subroutine goes from line 112 to line 128. Its operation deserves a note, since it was arrived at after some more normal schemes were rejected for being too slow. When the interpreter is given a string of symbols to set up the plotting, a table is set up (V(j)) in which a 1 means plot and a 0 means don't plot. When the plotter is entered, it transfers all six variables to another table, U(j). The output buffer is then cleared, and a short loop scans the V table, picking up variables from the U table when V(j)=1, and putting the symbol into the output buffer in a position corresponding to the value of the variable. Then the output buffer is printed out. This eliminates sorting the variables by size or printing the line as many times as there are variables. This method nicely cures the fundamental "rheumatism" of BASIC, as it is able to plot about two lines per second on my Polymorphics VTI display.

When two variables fall on the same spot, the variable that actually appears is the latest one in the series PERIOD. Thus far is has always been easy to figure out where a missing variable is hidden.

Once we have a set of variables connecting functions together, and an overall arrangement, we can treat the system by assembling it piece by piece. Let's look at the pieces we have, represented by the four statements in listing 2 from line 102 to 105:

```
102  I  =  FNF(O) + FND(D)
103  P  =  FNI(I)
104  E  =  R - P
105  O  =  FNO(E)
```

Looking at figure 5, we can see that these four statements lead us clockwise around the closed loop. I is the result of combining the outputs of the feedback and disturbance functions. It becomes the input *to the input function, producing a value of the perceptual signal P. P is one of the inputs to the comparator, which produces the error signal E.*

Continued on page 140

Therefore line 104 represents the comparator without using a function; it *is* the comparator function itself: E = R – P.

The error signal drives the output of the system via the *output function*, FNO. The output of the system, therefore, depends not on the input quantity or the perceptual signal alone, but on the *difference* between the perceptual signal and the reference signal. The output function translates a signal inside the system into a quantity outside it, according to whatever rule is described by FNO. If the error signal changes sign, the output quantity also changes; in other words, we assume that output functions have no constant term. Any such constant term would have the same effect as a reference signal, creating an offset in the overall system response. Not every system can handle error signals and output quantities that go through zero and thus change sign, but the principles remain the same in the region where the system works.

Line 105 expresses the operation of the output function: O = FNO(E). This closes the loop of cause and effect since the output quantity appears in line 102 where the input to the system is calculated.

If the system functions are properly designed for the properties of the system's environment, this entire closed loop will seek an equilibrium state. Our simulator will let us look at time-varying effects, but for the most part we will be concerned with steady state relationships.

Once we have seen how time variations come into the picture, we will concentrate on variations that occur slowly enough that the system and its environment never get far from a steady state relationship. This is the whole trick in grasping how control systems work. If you allow yourself to become embroiled in the interesting details of stabilization, or interested in the limits of performance in the presence of large and rapidly changing disturbances, you may learn a lot about one control system, but you will miss the organizational features that are obvious only when the system is not being subjected to unusual stresses. We will be concerned mainly with the *normal range of operation*, the range within which this system can behave very nearly like an ideal control system. Once that mode of operation is understood, there is plenty of time to explore the limits of operation. (See "Anatomy of the Simulator" text box).

A Wrong Approach

Let us start off by assuming that we have a simple linear system. The input function is a multiplier of 1, the comparator is already

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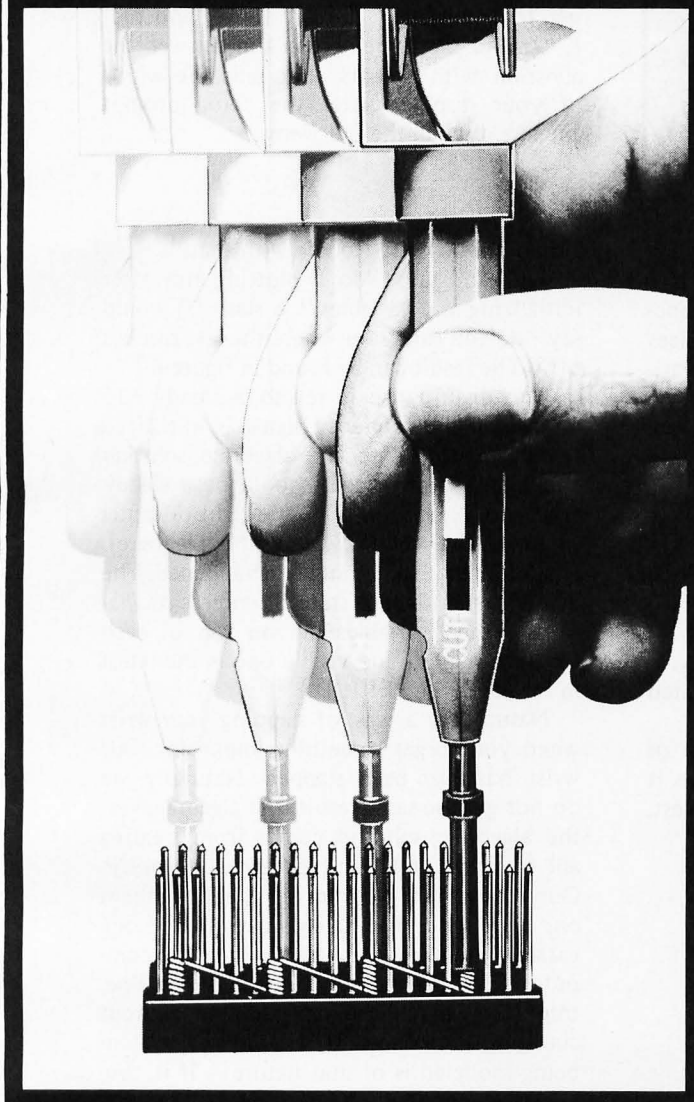

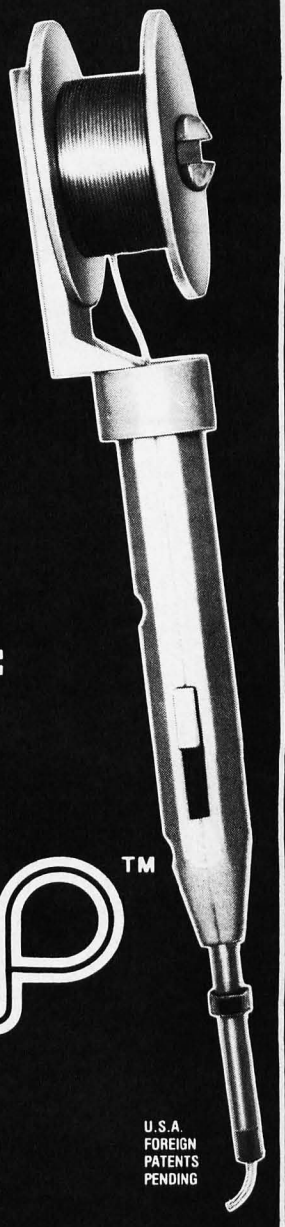

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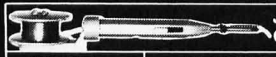 JUST WRAP TOOL WITH ONE 50 FT. ROLL OF WIRE		
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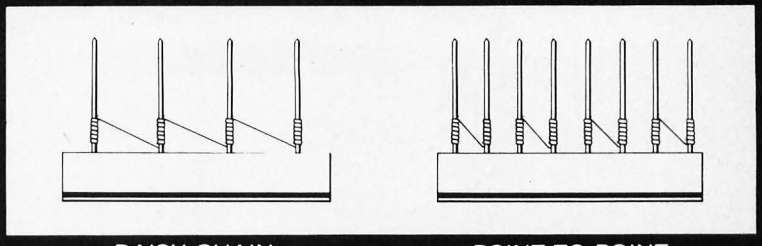

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E is the input to the output function that produces O, the output quantity. The output quantity is the input to the feedback function, which leads us back to the start.

It might seem that all we have to do now is to supply some specific forms for the functions, and turn the system on to see what it will do. In a sense, this is right. If this were an analogue computation, we might even get a correct idea of how the system works. However, it is unlikely that anyone who hasn't done this before would plug in the right functions to make a digital computer give us anything more than a fairy tale. It is so important to understand this point that I have written the simulator to come up initialized in order to illustrate it.

simple and linear, the output function is a multiplier of 2, the feedback function is a multiplier of 0.5, and the disturbance function is a multiplier of 0.8. These choices are dictated partly by the need to keep variables from falling on each other when we plot them. The simulator initializes D to 15.

Our four system equations, with these values substituted, now look like this:

$$I = 0.5xO + 0.8xD = 0.5xO + 12 \quad (1)$$
$$P = I \quad (2)$$
$$E = R - P \quad (3)$$
$$O = 2xE \quad (4)$$

This system of equations is iterated during a simulation of behavior.

The above is a pretty simple system of equations. So why can't we just solve it algebraically and skip the rest? I suggest, in fact, that you do solve it (by successive substitutions). Solve for the value of the perceptual signal in terms of R and D. You'll get P=I=(R – 0.8 x D)/2.

Ready for a shock? Your computer can't come up with that solution! Let's fire up the BASIC simulator, which is initialized according to equations 1 thru 4 above, and plot I, D, and O. Type RUN, and answer the question with a reply that tells the width of your display. After the colon prompt appears, type in the following:

```
:.
```

I trust nobody had trouble with that.

The dot says "do a plotting run after initializing the variables." A slash (/) would say "do the run from where the last run left off." The result can be found in figure 6.

The disturbance is set to a steady +15 units, and the reference signal is initialized to 0. According to the algebraic solution above, the input signal should be a steady 0.8 x 15/2, or 6 units, to the right of center (dots indicate center when nothing is there). It is clear that something else happened. The whole system is in a state of endless *oscillation*. (When variables fall on top of each other in a plot, the visible one is the latest in the sequence PERIOD.)

Nature has a way of slapping your wrist when you forget something important. Our wrist has just been slapped. Naturally we do not get the same result that algebra gives: the algebraic solution comes from treating all of those relationships *simultaneously*. Our computer program is treating them *one at a time*. The algebra says that if one variable changes, they all change. The computer, being a purely sequential machine, thinks it can change one variable without changing the others. If the physical system being modeled is of that nature – if it, too, is a sequential state machine – then the computer will produce a correct picture of behavior. But, if the system being modeled works in terms of continuous variables, *even in part*, the computer will turn it into a sequential-state machine and analyze *that* kind of system instead of the one we actually have. That is what has happened here. We forgot to tell the computer that these variables can't change as fast as the computer can compute.

```
:.

                    O          I  D
     O              .          I  D
                    O             D
     O              .          I  D
                    O             D
     O              .          I  D
                    O             D
     O              .          T  D
                    O             D
     O              .          T  D
                    O             D
     O              .          I  D
                    O             D
     O              .          I  D
                    O             D
     O              .          T  D          :
```

Figure 6: The initial plot generated by the BASIC simulator. Disturbance is set to 15 units and the reference signal is initialized to 0. The system is in a state of oscillation.

A More Accurate Approach

In order to make this simulated system behave the way the algebra says it should, we have to slow down changes in one or more variables to take account of the fact that we are dealing with real, physical variables

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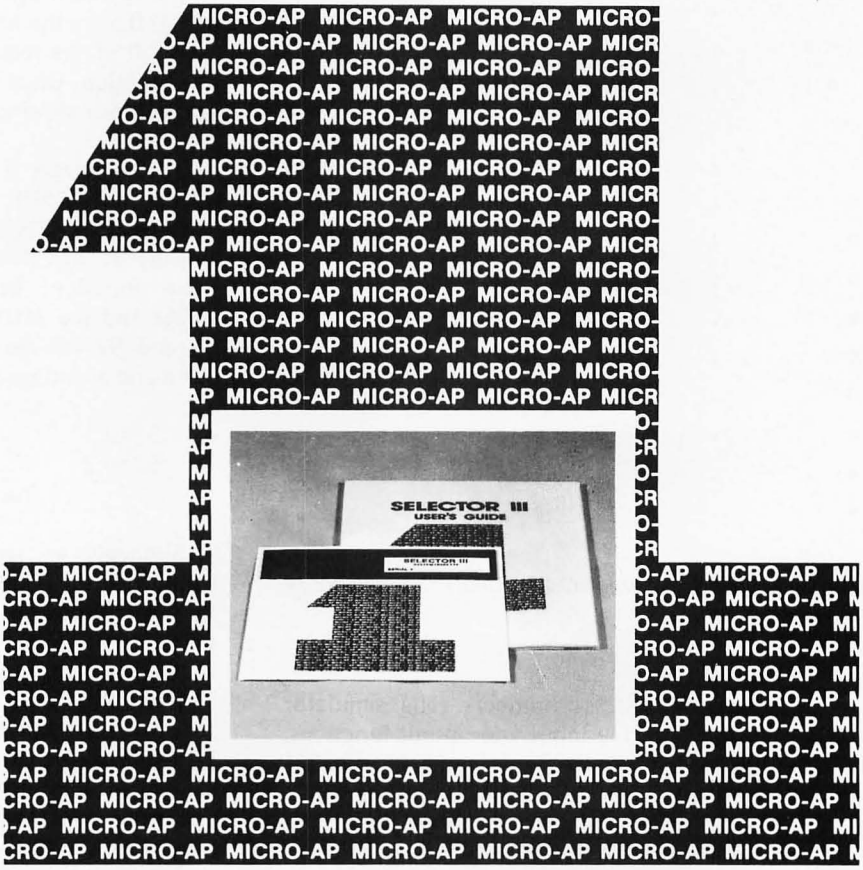

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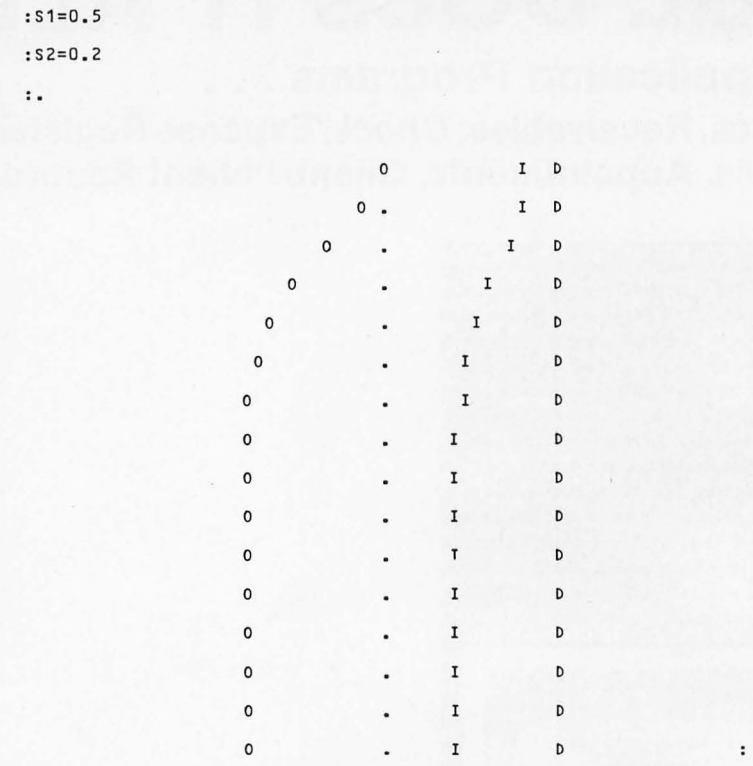


Figure 7: The slowing factors have been changed. S1 equals 0.5 and S2 is 0.2. We now have a much smoother curve.

and not abstract numbers. The simulator does this in the input and output functions, lines 37 thru 40 (input) and 41 thru 44 (output). We will be basically dealing with a linear system in which both the input and output functions are constants of proportionality. As you can see from listing 2, however, there's a little more to it than that.

Consider line 42: O = O + S2* (K2*E − O). The O on the left side is the new value of that quantity after this program step has been executed. On the right side, O indicates the last value of the output quantity. We recognize K2*E as a calculation of the output quantity as if it were simply proportional to the error signal, E. The expression in parentheses, therefore, is the *difference* between this calculated new value and the old value of O. This is how much the output quantity would change if it could change instantly.

This calculated amount of change is multiplied by S2, a *slowing factor,* and the result is added to the old value of O. We calculate the amount of change that an instantly reacting system would produce, but allow only a fraction S2 of it to occur on any one iteration. S2 is a positive number between zero and one. We've put a low-pass filter into the output function, without affecting the *steady state* proportionality constant.

The same thing is done for the input function. A slowing factor S1, between zero and one, acts to slow P down. We need only one slowing factor to make this simulator behave realistically, but there is provision for two, so that you can explore the effect of having two if you wish. In all the plots to follow, we'll use a modest slowing factor of S1=0.5 in the input function, and essentially all of the required slowing in the output function. Once you get the hang of this you can put slowing factors into *any* of the functions.

The simulator is initialized with S1 and S2 set to 1, which reduces O + S2x (K2xE − O) to O + K2xE − O or just K2xE (no slowing at all). The same is done for the input function. Let's set them to other values and see what happens. The values of S1 and S2 can be set by typing S1=n or S2=n and a carriage return:

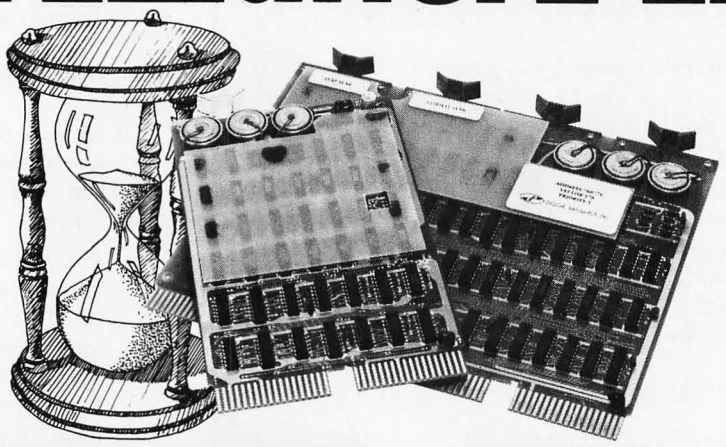
```
:S1=0.5
:S2=0.2
: .          (run with initialization)
```

Suddenly we see nice, smooth relationships (figure 7). If you measure, you'll see that the input signal, I, ends up just six units to the right; the same solution given by the algebraic approach.

Does this mean we can just use algebra to analyze a control system? Not at all. We won't delve into this, but the algebraic solutions are valid *only* if the differential equations which really describe the system have steady state solutions. Then the algebraic solutions *are* the steady state solutions. In our simulator, we see all the time variations that lead toward the steady state, and the algebra says nothing about these. By putting the slowing factors into our calculations we have caused this system to seek a steady state. Therefore, it is the stability of the system that tells us we can use algebra, not the other way around. Predicting stability can become a messy process. We fiddle around with slowing factors until we *get* stability, which is more or less how Nature does it anyway.

We have now established the fact that using natural logic and following causes and effects around the closed loop as a sequence of events will lead to a wrong prediction of control system behavior. This immediately eliminates three-quarters of what biologists, psychologists, neurologists, and even cyberneticians have published about control theory and behavior. We are just beginning to see that one must view all the variables in a control system as changing together, not one at a time. This is what I mean by retraining the in-

TIME after TIME



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Using the Simulator

The simulator is run from the keyboard, using commands that tell it which variables to plot and what values of variables and parameters to start with. The instructions can be given one at a time, terminated by carriage returns, or they can be given in a continuous string with commands separated by commas. The latter is useful for altering parameters in the middle of a plot in order to see their effects.

The only time a space is permitted in a command or string of commands is when it is separating the word PLOT from the string of variable symbols to be plotted.

In order to tell the simulator what variables to plot, type:

PLOT XXXXXX

where XXXXXX means a string of 1 to 6 symbols from the set PERIOD. The order of the symbols makes no difference. When two or more symbols land on the same plot, the one that you see is the latest in the series PERIOD, regardless of the order in which they were given.

To start a plotting run, type a period followed by a carriage return or comma if initialization is to occur first, and type a slash (/) if the run is to start from the conditions at the end of the previous run. Initializing creates one extra line of plot showing the initial conditions.

The parameters and variables that can be set are as follows:

L	*Number of lines to be plotted in any plotting run.*
K1	*Steady state proportionality factor of the input function.*
S1	*Slowing factor for the input function; positive and between 0 and 1.*
K2	*Steady state proportionality factor of the output function.*
S2	*Slowing factor for the output function; positive and between 0 and 1.*
O	*Initial value of output quantity.*
P	*Initial value of perceptual signal.*
R	*Setting of reference signal.*
D	*Magnitude of disturbing quantity.*

Examples: *(colon is prompt from computer. Always terminate a string with a carriage return).*

Set L to 16	*:L=16*
Set D to 0, run without initializing	*:D=0,/ or :D=0 :/*
Set D to 0, plot 2 points after initializing, set D to 10, plot 13 points from previous conditions. Plot P,E, and R	*:PLOT PER,D=0,L=2,.,D=10,L=13,/*

The program is written so that after a plot is completely done (a complete string has been interpreted), the prompt character appears to the right without a carriage return. That allows a 16 point plot to be shown on a 16 line video display screen without the final carriage return bumping the first line off the screen. If you want your next string to start at the left, just hit a carriage return.

To find out the values of K1, K2, S1, and S2 when you forget them, type "?" followed by carriage return and they will be printed.

tuition. Cartesian concepts of cause and effect, and Newtonian physics, have trained us to think along directed lines. What we need to do to understand control systems is to learn how to think in circles.

Properties of a Control System

Figure 8 shows the control system and its environment as we will be dealing with it from now on. Let's start with some definitions:

Loop Gain means the product of all the steady state factors encountered in one trip around the closed loop, counting the comparator as a factor of −1. In the initial setup, K1 was 1, K2 was 2, and the feedback function FNF was a multiplier of +0.5, so the loop gain was −1. The sign of the loop gain is the sign of the feedback; we have (and will continue to have) negative feedback.

Error Sensitivity is the factor K2, the steady state proportionality factor in the output function FNO. This number expresses how much output will be generated by a given amount of error signal.

Input Sensitivity is the factor K1, the steady state proportionality factor in the input function FNI. This number expresses how much perceptual signal will be generated by a given amount of input quantity.

We are going to perform a series of experiments with this control system in order to arrive at some useful rules of thumb for thinking about how control systems work. These rules are approximations, but by doing the experiments and seeing how good the approximations are, you will learn to think precisely about control phenomena, even when using approximate language.

We will set the system parameters to give a loop gain of −10. As a way of summarizing where we are (refer to figure 8), the commands are given one at a time with annotations:

:K1=1	Input sensitivity = 1.
:K2=20	Error sensitivity = 20.
:S1=0.5	Input slowing factor = 0.5.
:S2=0.07	Output slowing factor = 0.07.
:R=0	Reference signal = 0.
:O=0	Output initialization = 0.
:P=0	Perception initialization = 0.
:D=0	Disturbance = 0.

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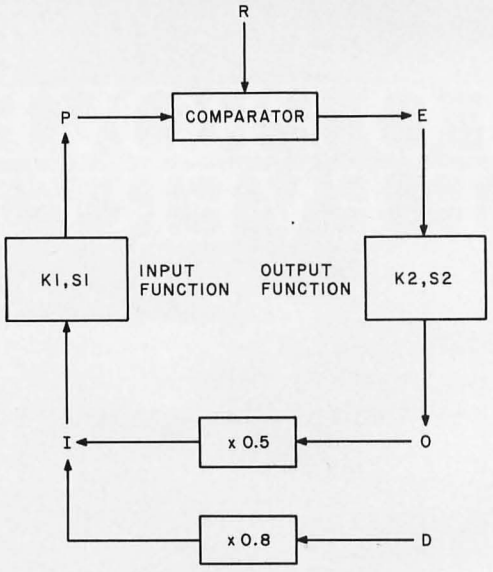

Figure 8: Adjustable parameters are K1 (input sensitivity), S1 (input slowing factor), K2 (output sensitivity), and S2 (output slowing factor). P and O can be initialized to any starting value (normally zero). R and D can be set, and remain the same during a run. The value of the feedback function is set at 0.5, the value of the disturbance function at 0.8.

Type those commands, and the system is now set up in a "home base" condition. Remembering that the comparator is equivalent to the factor of −1 and the feedback function is permanently set to be a factor of +0.5, this combination of parameters gives a loop gain of 1 x (−1) x 20 x 0.5 = −10.

There are two fundamental rules of thumb: a control system keeps its perceptual signal matching its reference signal, and the output of a control system cancels the effects of disturbances on the input quantity. We will take these up in order.

Rule 1: P = R

We're looking at the system with no disturbance acting (D=0). If you want to be sure that everything stays at zero, type PLOT PERIOD. followed by a carriage return. You will see a row of Ds, D being the last symbol in the sequence PERIOD and hence the only one visible when all variables are at zero.

Now we will plot just the reference signal and the perceptual signal. The first two points will be done with the initial conditions set up above. The reference signal will then be set to +25 units, and the plot will be continued for 13 more points. Since this plot will commence *with* initialization (the dot command), an extra line showing the initial conditions will be plotted first. This makes a total of 16 lines, which will fit on most video displays. Of course, if you're doing this on paper you don't have to worry about the number of points plotted. Here is the command string:

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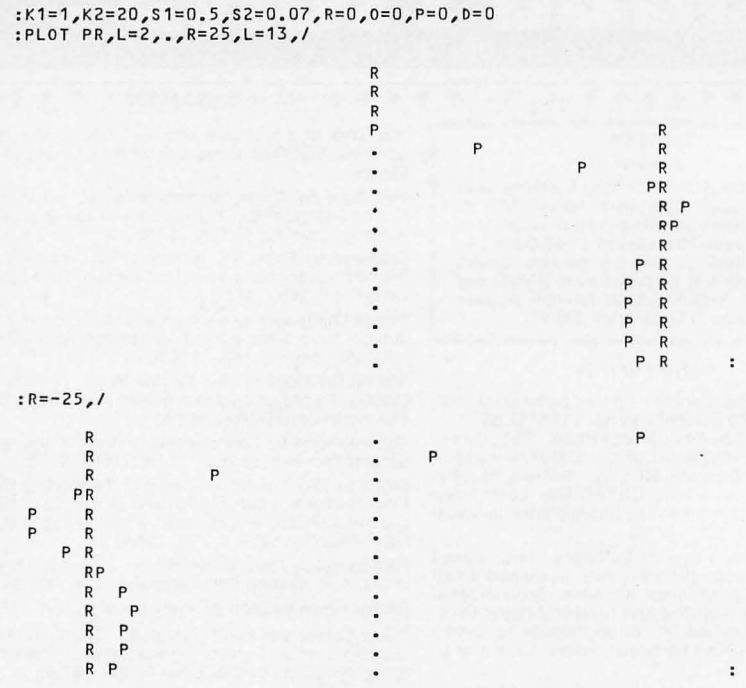

Figure 9: The values of variables are listed in this plot. The disturbance value is changed from +25 to –25.

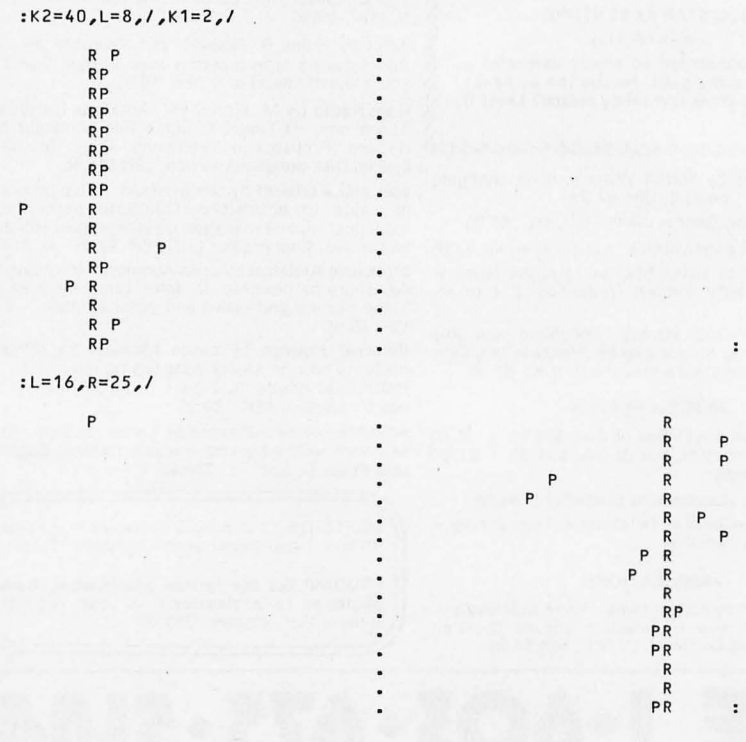

Figure 10: Change of gain during plot. After 8th line, gain goes from 20 to 40. Reference signal is changed to check operation.

:PLOT PR,L=2,.,R=25,L=13,/

Before discussing this, let's do another run of 13 points (figure 9), setting the reference signal to –25 units and continuing without initialization (the slash command,/):

:R=–25,/

It is clear that the perceptual signal comes to a steady state quite close to the magnitude of the reference signal, whatever the reference signal may be. The question is, how critically does this tracking effect depend on the input sensitivity and error sensitivity?

Let's leave the reference signal at –25 and do a run in which the error sensitivity is doubled at the start, and the input sensitivity is doubled halfway through the run. We will start from the previous conditions. The loop gain will now be –40 instead of –10.

:K2=40,L=8,/,K1=2,/

To insure that everything is working correctly, let's flip the reference signal to +25 units (figure 10):

:L=16,R=25,/

While there is an effect on the *way* the tracking takes place, the only effect of these rather drastic changes in input and error sensitivity is to make the tracking a little better. What about a *decrease* in these parameters?

:L=16,K1=0.5,K2=10,/,R=25,/
(Loop gain now 2.5)

Figure 11 shows that the approximation P=R isn't very accurate any more. For loop gains smaller in magnitude than about 10 (negative), the approximation begins to lose accuracy.

You will notice that doubling the error sensitivity, which doubles the amount of output generated by a given error, does *not* double the amount of output that actually occurs. Far from it. When, for any reason, the loop gain goes up, the steady state error simply gets smaller, assuming that the system remains stable. This fact does violence to the popular idea that the brain commands muscles to produce behavior. If that were the case, doubling the sensitivity of a muscle to the nerve signals reaching it ought to produce twice as much muscle tension. Nothing of the sort happens, unless you've lopped off the rest of the nervous system, particularly the feedback paths.

As long as the loop gain is sufficiently large and negative (−10 or more negative will do for a number), a stable control system will match its perceptual signal nearly to its reference signal, regardless of the reference setting. We are ignoring, of course, transient effects.

All of this was done with the disturbance set to zero. Now let us set the reference signal to zero, and check the second fundamental rule of thumb.

Rule 2: (delta 0) = −(delta D)

This rule requires some interpretation. It says, for the sake of brevity, that (with the reference signal constant) a change in the output quantity is equal and opposite to (the minus sign) a change in the disturbing quantity. Generally, the input and disturbing quantities will affect the input quantity through different physical paths. In our model, the output quantity acts through a multiplier of 0.5, and the disturbance through a multiplier of 0.8. The rule has to be interpreted to mean that the *effects* of the changes *on the input quantity* are equal and opposite. We will see this demonstrated.

We will now plot the output quantity, O, the disturbing quantity, D, and the input quantity, I (to make the above clear). The reference signal could be left where it is, but to avoid confusion let's set it to zero for this set of plots. The loop gain is set to −10.

:PLOT OID, R=0,K1=1,K2=20,L=1,D=0,
.,L=15,D=15,/
Let this plot run out, then:
:D=−15,/

There is some lurching back and forth in figure 12, but in the steady state the behavior of the input quantity shows that the effect of the disturbance is essentially cancelled by the final effect of the output quantity.

If you did some measuring on the plot, you would find that the final value of the output quantity is very close to 8/5 of the value of the disturbing quantity. This follows from three facts: the input quantity ends up nearly at zero; one unit of output has 0.5 unit of effect on the input quantity; one unit of disturbance has 0.8 unit of effect on the input quantity. This is the kind of reasoning that helps in understanding how a control system works.

The primary observation about a control system is always the existence of an input quantity which is stabilized against disturbances by variations in the output quantity. If the input quantity is held essentially

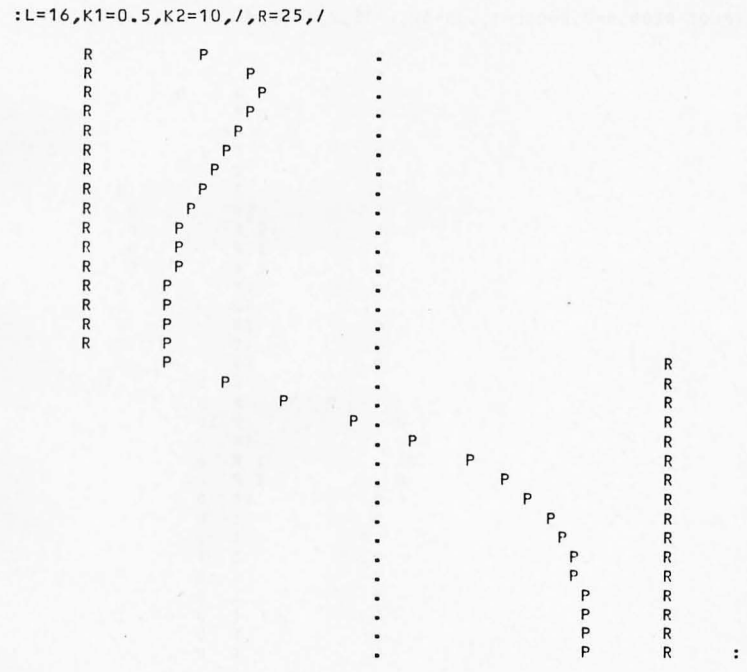

Figure 11: The simulation parameters have been changed to produce a gain of 2.5. Notice that the approximation P=R is now inaccurate.

Figure 12: The reference signal has been set to zero. This plot shows us the input quantity, the output quantity and the disturbance signal for D=+15 and then D=−15.

Figure 13: A look at different reference signal effects. As explained in the text, the disturbance signal has made the perceptual signal match the reference signal.

constant (in the steady state), then one can *deduce* the relationship between disturbances and the system's output quantity simply from observing the properties of the system's environment. On inspection, an external observer can see both the feedback function and the disturbance function, here multipliers of 0.5 and 0.8 respectively. For any given disturbance, the effect on the input quantity for a constant output quantity can be calculated on purely physical grounds. Since the input quantity remains undisturbed in the steady state, one can then look at the connection between the output quantity and the input quantity, and deduce how the output quantity must change to account for the fact that the input quantity *doesn't* change.

Thus, in order to predict how this system will react to any external disturbance, it is necessary only to know that the system is a control system and to look closely at its environment. The kind and amount of reaction follow from the nature of the feedback and disturbance functions which are properties of the visible environment.

Most important, as far as the life sciences are concerned, the form and amount of reaction do *not* depend on any property of the control system; not enough to make any difference. Therefore, when you apply a stimulus and see a response, you are using the organism as a complicated analogue computer in order to study the physics of the local environment. This is not what the life sciences have thought they were doing.

All that remains to wrap up this section is to see the effects of disturbances when the reference signal is set to different values. This will lead to the definition of a useful technical term: the *reference level of the input quantity* (see figure 13):

```
:PLOT RIOD,D=0,R=0,L=1,.,R=12,
     L=15,/,D=15,/
```

If you have a 16 line video display this will scroll past you, losing the early parts, but no matter. The first event is that the reference signal is set to 12, and the input quantity moves essentially to +12. The output quantity goes to +24 in order to accomplish this. Then the disturbing quantity goes to +15, which has the exact effect on the input quantity that +24 units of output have. As a result, the output quantity drops to zero — *exactly* zero, if you look at the numbers.

In effect, the disturbance, by itself, has enough effect to make the perceptual signal match the reference signal. Looking at figure 8, you can see that this would mean a zero error signal and no drive to the output function. So, whenever the output drops to zero, we know that the perceptual signal is matching the reference signal, even if we can't see it.

In our model right now, the input sensitivity is 1, so the perceptual signal is numerically equal to the input quantity. That's a coincidence, since the units are different: physical units outside, impulses per second inside. Even if K1 wasn't 1, the output would still drop to zero when P = R. Thus, we can give a special name to the particular value of input quantity (however created) that brings the error signal, and hence the output quantity, to zero: the *reference level* of the input quantity. The reference signal clearly determines what this reference level will be, but so does the form of the input function.

Main Points Reviewed

All of this is supposed to have established two principal ideas. The first is that control systems control what they sense, not what they do. The second is that control systems act on the outside world only in order to protect a controlled perception against disturbance.

As we have demonstrated these principles, we have established some other odd facts. We have found that the main effect

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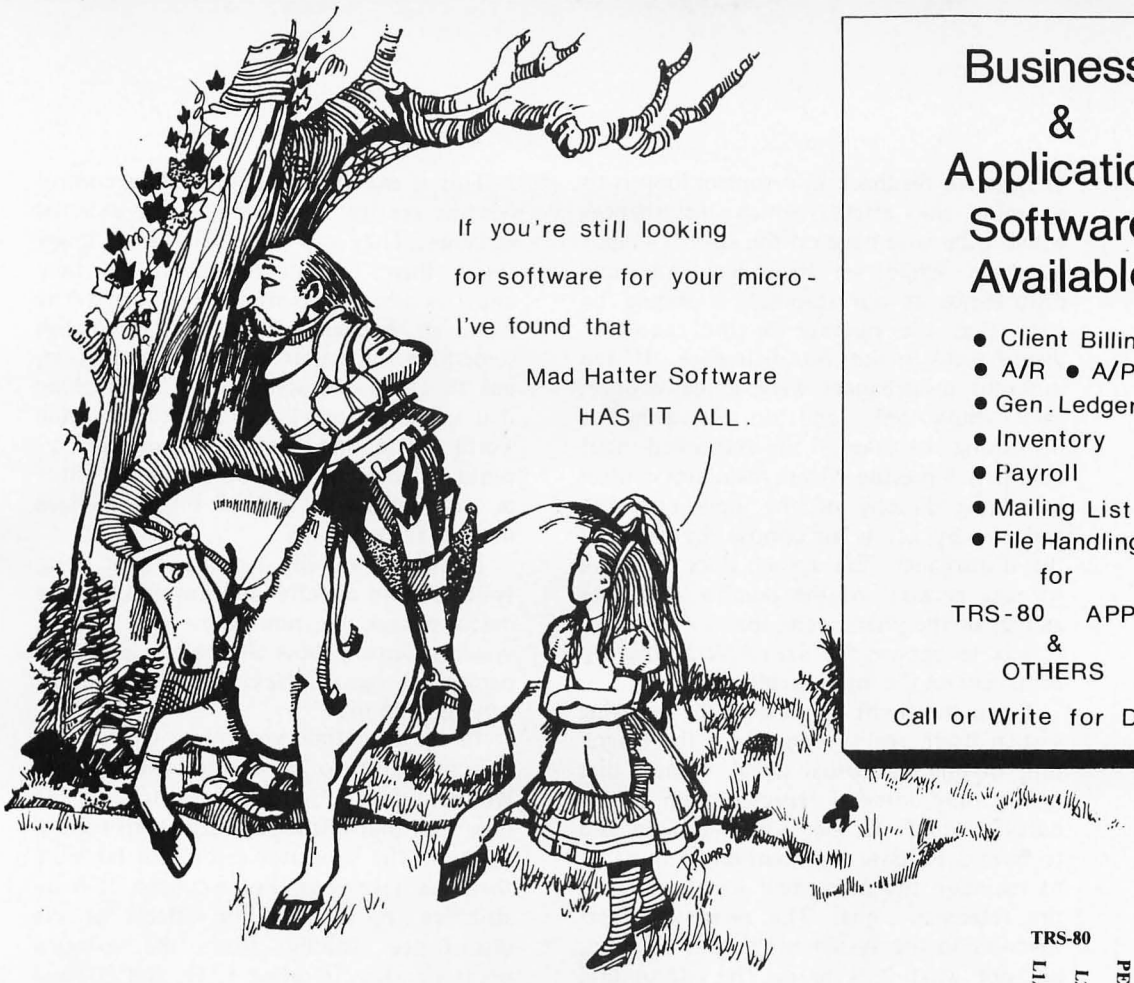

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of negative feedback in a control loop is to diminish the effects which disturbances would otherwise have on the system's input quantity. While we have had only one disturbance at our disposal, it should be clear that the number or the causes of disturbances make no difference. If ten different disturbances were acting at once, they could only end up increasing or decreasing the value of the controlled input quantity. Since the system maintains control by acting directly on the input quantity, and not by acting to oppose the cause of the disturbance, the system does not have to take account of the number of causes acting, or the phenomena that are involved. It acts to oppose the *net effect* of any disturbances on the input quantity.

From the point of view of the behaving system itself, reality consists of the magnitude of one perceptual signal, because that is the only internal representation of the outside world. If the system can be said to have a purpose or intention, it must be to maintain the perceptual signal matching the reference signal. The reference signal specifies to the system what it is to sense, but not what it is to do. The output that matches perceptual and reference signals is determined by the nature of the feedback function and by the strength and direction of any disturbances that may be acting. Whatever sets the reference signal, thus effectively controlling the perceptions of this system, does not have to know anything about *how* the control system comes up with a matching perception.

What is perhaps most amazing to a person who has not previously worked with negative feedback systems is the capability that this system has to maintain quite precise control over its own perceptual signal, even if its own properties change. If its output apparatus becomes stronger or weaker, or its perceptual apparatus becomes more or less sensitive, there is scarcely any effect on the perceptual signal. As long as some *minimum* loop gain is maintained and the system does not become unstable and begin oscillating, it does not really matter how much loop gain there is, or whether most of it is in the output or the input function.

A servomechanism engineer might find this approach somewhat odd. Why all this fuss about the system's internal perceptual signal? When you build a control system for a practical use, you worry more about the external variables than internal variables, because the customer is interested in the external variables.

This is exactly the point. Living control systems are *not* interested in the external variables. They can't be. They don't know about them, except indirectly. All they know is what happens to themselves. The point of behavior is not to accomplish something for a user in the external world, but to affect the system itself. Everything that a living system knows about the outside world has to first exist in the form of perceptual signals, or some other internal effect of external events (not all organisms have nervous systems).

In part 3 we will start looking at living systems more directly, and this will become much clearer. We now know that control systems control, above all, their own internal perceptual signals. Next time we will see *why* they do that.

In the meantime you might enjoy using this simulator to do further explorations. We have looked into only a few of the questions that might be raised about control systems. The simulator can reveal far more than we have seen. For example, it is instructive to look at the effects of the disturbance strictly from the external point of view (plotting I, O, and D), and then to look at exactly the same effects from inside (plotting P, E, and R). We haven't even raised the question of what a control system looks like when it becomes unstable, how the slowing factors interact with loop gain to determine stability, or what happens when the input function, the output function, or both are nonlinear. Speaking of nonlinearity, you might try rewriting the definition of the feedback function as follows:

```
45 DEF FNF(X)=X*X*X/2048+X/2
```

and then performing some of the experiments again. Try to make the input function *logarithmic* (adding a constant to make sure you don't make the perceptual signal negatively infinite), and see how the input quantity and perceptual signal behave as the reference signal or disturbance is changed.

The main objective before the next article in this series appears is to understand how a control system controls its perceptual signal, and why an external observer, who doesn't know about the controlled input quantity, might think the disturbance acts on the system to make it respond, like a doorbell. The simulator is there to help you grasp this closed loop phenomenon. I hope it *does* help.■

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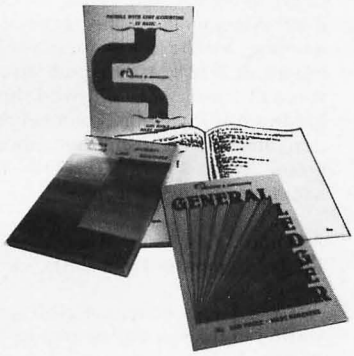

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S1034

Clubs and Newsletters

Virginia Club for Radio and Computer Amateurs

The Amateur Radio Research and Development Corp (AMRAD) is a Virginia based club of over 200 radio and computer amateurs. The purpose of the club is to develop skills and knowledge in radio and electronic technology; advocate design of experimental equipment and techniques; promote basic and applied research; organize forums and technical symposiums; collect and disseminate technical information; and provide experimental repeaters.

Meetings are on the first Monday of each month at 8 PM at the Patrick Henry Branch Library, 101 Maple Av E, Vienna VA. The *Amrad Newsletter* is a monthly publication which is mailed to all AMRAD members. Contact Amateur Radio Research and Development Corp, 1524 Springvale Av, McLean VA 22101.

Sacramento Microcomputer Users Group

The Sacramento Microcomputer Users Group newsletter, *Push & Pop*, comes our way on a monthly basis. The most recent contained articles on CP/M Sleuth and CP/M to Pencil and Pencil to CP/M in Z-80 Mnemonics. The general club meetings are the fourth Tuesday of every month at 7:30 PM. The club also sponsors a PET workshop, SOL workshop, and hardware study group. For meeting location and more information about this group contact SMUG, POB 161513, Sacramento CA 95816.

Attention: Fox Valley Area Illinois Computer Enthusiasts

A fairly new computer club is getting started in the Fox Valley area of Illinois. Called the Microprocessor User Group, they are primarily an Apple user group but wish to include all processors in their discussions. With a current membership of 50, it is the club's intention to publish a newsletter and a calendar. Meetings are held in the Fermi National Accelerator Laboratory Hi-Rise on the main floor in the SW meeting facility on the third Monday of every month at 8 PM. Contact Mike Urso, 641 Woodlawn, Aurora IL 60506.

Association of Computer Experimenters

Besides holding monthly meetings, this active Canadian group publishes a most impressive newsletter called *Ipso Facto*. The most recent issue contains 72 pages and is filled with articles and program listings. Membership in the club is $10 per year, and they are constantly seeking new members with interesting ideas. Contact Bernie Murphy, 102 McCrany St, Oakville, Ontario, CANADA L6H 1H6.

Pacifica TRS-80 Club

The Pacifica TRS-80 Users Group is meeting in the Radio Shack store in the Eureka Square Shopping Center which is located about 10 miles from San Francisco. They meet the second and fourth Thursday of the month to exchange programs and ideas regarding the TRS-80. All individuals are cordially invited to attend one of their meetings. Contact John F Strazzarino, 637 Brussels St, San Francisco CA 94134.

Evansville Indiana Computer Club

Evansville IN *does* have a computer club according to a recent letter from Robert Heerdink. He is concerned with increasing the club's membership and encourages any interested individuals in that area to attend one of their monthly meetings. The group is interested in several types of microcomputers. They usually meet at the Blind Association, Second Av and Virginia, at 7:30 PM on the second Wednesday of the month, although he recommends checking with him first. Robert can be reached at the Evansville Computer Club, c/o National Sharedata Corp, POB 3895, Evansville IN 47737, (812) 426-2725.

Theater Computer Users Group

The Theater Computer Users Group is sponsored by Theater Sources Inc, a corporation created to gather and distribute information about theater in the United States. Their newsletter, called *TCUG Notes*, is $4 per year, and back issues are available. Contact *TCUG Notes*, Mike Firth, Editor, 104 N St Mary, Dallas TX 75214.

Alamo Computer Enthusiasts

Located in San Antonio, the Alamo Computer Enthusiasts meet on the third Friday of each month at the Norris Technical Center, Room 208, St Philip's College, San Antonio TX. Their monthly newsletter is available for a one year subscription fee of $2. Contact Dave Fashenpour, 5411 Cerro Vista, San Antonio TX 78233.

LISP Users Newsletter

The first issue of the *Lisp Users* Newsletter is an announcement of this new organization which is designed to

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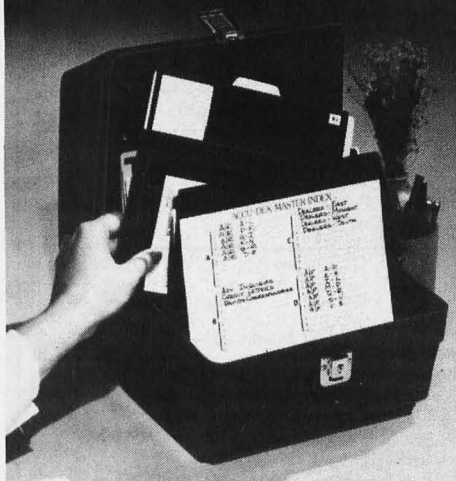

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spread information about applications, implementation and general information on LISP-like languages. It will pay particular attention to those LISPish things which are within the realm of currently available microprocessor systems. As an initialization process, a mailing list of prospective interested individuals is being compiled. If you are interested, send your name and address, background, interest in and knowledge of LISP, what system (if any) you own, and memory capacity (internal and mass storage) to John R Allen, 18215 Bayview Dr, Los Gatos CA 95030. Please include any suggestions you may have about organization or topics you would like to see discussed. John requests that you submit a dollar to cover postage and duplication of the newsletter.

Free TRS-80 Newsletter

The free *TRS-80 Bulletin*, which prints club and product news about the TRS-80, is sporting a new format and is now monthly. The *Bulletin* is an offshoot of *TRS-80 Computing* (see BYTE Clubs and Newsletters December 1978). For a free copy of the *Bulletin* write to the Computer Information Exchange Inc, POB 158, San Luis Rey CA 92068.

Ventura County TRS-80 Club

This group is comprised of about fifty computer enthusiasts living in the Ventura County area. Their main purpose is to share information relating to the practical applications as well as the entertainment possibilities for Radio Shack's TRS-80 microcomputer. Membership dues are $10 a year which includes a newsletter. Meetings are held the first Tuesday of each month at the Camarillo Public Library, 3100 Ponderosa Dr, Camarillo CA at 7 PM. Visitors are welcome and prospective members are encouraged to attend a meeting. Contact Lee Steinmetz, Secretary, 567 W Loop Dr, Camarillo CA 93030, (805) 484-1724.

BYTE's Bits

A Public TV Series

In a recent phone conversation with Robert J Whitney, Producer/Director at WMVS/WMVT television, channels 10 and 36 in Milwaukee WI, we learned of a proposed television series for public television concerning people who build, buy and use small computers. The series idea is for 8 to 15 half hour shows about small computer hobbyists, experimenters and enthusiasts. Robert is looking for people in the Southeastern Wisconsin area who could lend their expertise to the creation, organization and realization of this idea. Interested persons should contact him by mail, in care of the station or by phone at (414) 271-1036.

Chess Tournament

The second London microprocessor chess tournament will be held in the West Centre Hotel, Lilee Road, Fulham, London England, from November 1 thru 3 1979. Any individual or company wishing further details should write to David Levy, c/o Personal **Computer** World, 62a Westbourne Grove, London, W2.

This year's event will be the first European Open Microprocessor championship. The highest placed participants will automatically qualify for places in the final of the first World Micro Championship which is scheduled to be held in London in 1980.

IECI '80 Issues Call for Papers

IECI '80, the Sixth Annual Conference and Exhibit on Industrial and Control Applications of Microprocessors, will be held at the Sheraton Hotel in Philadelphia next March 17 thru 19, 1980. IECI '80 will offer an exhibition and technical program dealing with the current and new work of industrial microprocessor applications. Papers dealing in such areas as automotive diagnosis and operation, intelligent instrumentation, transducers and sensors, automated manufacturing, numerical control and robotics, and biomedical control and monitoring are invited. Ten copies of the paper in extended summary form, 500 to 600 words long and an abstract of no more than 40 words describing work not generally published or previously presented, should be mailed by September 14 1979 to H T Nagle Jr, Electrical Engineering, Auburn University, Auburn AL 36830. The extended summary will be used for paper selection and session assignment and should clearly define the salient concepts and novel features of the work described. Notification of acceptance and format required for publication in the IECI '80 proceedings will be sent by October 19 1979.

Forth Inc Announces 13 Software Seminars

Forth Inc, producer of Forth based software systems for mini and microcomputers, has announced a schedule of 13 software seminars to be held throughout the US this summer. The seminars, which are half day events, cover design, application and

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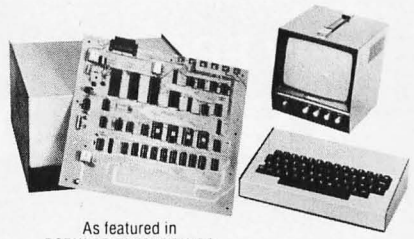

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LEVEL "A" SPECIFICATIONS
EXPLORER's Level "A" system features an advanced Intel 8085 cpu, which is 50% faster than its 8080A predecessor, yet 100% compatible with 8080A software. . . which, you'll discover, exists by the ton. "Big computer" features include an 8355 ROM with 2K deluxe monitor/operating system which has two programmable 8-bit bi-directional parallel I/O ports, built-in cassette interface with tape control circuitry to allow labeling cassette files, and commands which include: "display contents of memory," "run at user location (go to)," "insert data," "move contents of memory," "examine registers individually or all," "fill command (to fill the contents of memory with any variable), automatic baud rate selection, programmable characters per line display output format, and more! An 8155 RAM—I/O chip contains 256 bytes of RAM, two programmable 8-bit bi-directional and one programmable 6-bit bi-directional I/O ports plus programmable 14-bit binary counter/timer, user interrupt and reset switches. Onboard expansion provisions exist for up to six S-100 boards, 4K of RAM and 8K of ROM, PROM or EPROM.

CHOICE OF HEX KEYPAD OR TERMINAL INPUT
If you plan to customize EXPLORER for dedicated use, we recommend that you order hex keypad input. But, if you are planning to go whole hog and blow EXPLORER up into a full size, state-of-the-art system with 8K or extended basic (coming soon), up to 64K of memory, floppy disks, telephone interface, printers, and all sorts of S-100 plug-ins—you'll be better off with the Keyboard/Video Terminal input. The $149.95 EXPLORER Keyboard/Video Terminal includes full ASCII decoding with 128 ASCII upper/lower case set, 96 printable characters, onboard regulators and selectable display formats—32x16 for tv set or 64x16 for video monitor (not included).

EXPAND EXPLORER, LEVEL-BY-LEVEL
Level "B", at $49.95, adds S-100 signals plus onboard RAM/ROM decoding. Includes all parts necessary to generate the signals for S-100 bus accessories. Just add two S-100 bus connectors and you have a complete S-100 compatible computer with a world of add-ons at your fingertips. Choose from hundreds of products to satisfy your individual needs. Level "B" kit also includes the address decoders for onboard RAM and ROM expansion, which are addressable anywhere in the 65K field.

Level "C" expansion, at $39.95, expands the S-100 bus to allow a total of six S-100 cards to be plugged into EXPLORER's motherboard and contained in EXPLORER's steel cabinet. Includes all hardware, mounting brackets, board guides, etc. Just add the number of S-100 bus connectors you need.

Level "D" expansion, at $59.95, gives you 4K of onboard static RAM utilizing 2114 IC's. Your board will also accept four 2716 EPROM's, which can be purchased separately. You now have an advanced mainframe that can be customized with the peripherals of your choice to fit any (or all) specific requirements. Each level of EXPLORER is separately regulated for the ultimate in stability. Factory service is available from Netronics. **Order your EXPLORER today!**

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- ☐ ASCII Keyboard/Video Terminal kit, $149.95 plus $3 p&h.
- ☐ Hex Keypad kit for hex version, $69.95 plus $2 p&h.
- ☐ Level "B" S-100/Onboard RAM/ROM Decoder kit (less S-100 connectors), $49.95 plus $2 p&h.
- ☐ Level "C" S-100 5-Card Expander kit (less connectors), $39.95 plus $2 p&h.
- ☐ S-100 Bus Connectors (gold), $4.85 each.
- ☐ Level "D" 4K Onboard RAM kit, $69.95 plus $2 p&h.
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demonstration of miniForth, microForth, and new polyForth software systems, are open to programmers, project managers, data processing professionals, electronic engineers, and OEMs. Following the seminar, there will be a meeting to discuss various plans for OEMs of Forth software. For a complete list of seminar locations and dates, write to Forth Inc, 815 Manhattan Ave, Manhattan Beach CA 90266.

Call for Papers for Computer Networking Symposium

The 1979 Computer Networking Symposium to be held December 12 1979 in Gaithersburg MD has issued a call for papers. The symposium will feature papers of a tutorial nature which describe practical experiences with computer networks and network applications, and papers that present new research results. Accepted papers will be published in the symposium proceedings. Four copies of 1,000 word abstracts should be submittd by July 15 1979 to Dr Vijay Ahuja, E96/B629, IBM Corp, Research Triangle Park NC 27709. Authors will be notified of acceptance by August 1 1979. The Computer Networking Symposium is sponsored by the National Bureau of Standards, and the IEEE Computer Society.

Byte News Update

Byte News in the March 1979 issue began with a paragraph listing computer manufacturers that support Pascal. For a year Texas Instruments has supported Pascal which can be implemented on the Model 990 minicomputer in the form of TI Pascal (TIP). There are also two executive operating systems available which are appropriate for use with Pascal.

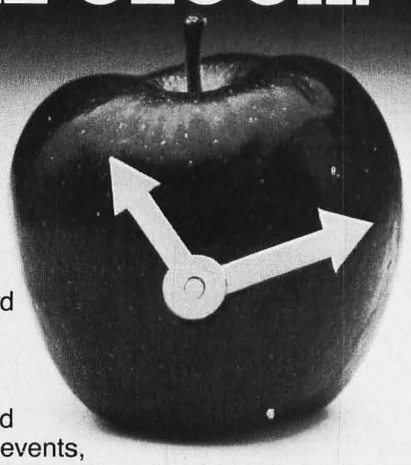
The Texas Instruments Microprocessor Executive Library (TIPMX) is a collection of operating system components available to users of the TMS 9900 family of microprocessors. Minimum developments tools required for use with TIPMX are a text editor, an assembler and a link editor, all of which are available with the purchase of a Texas Instruments software license. TIPMX may be used on either the floppy disk based FS990 development system, or any of the several hard disk systems such as the DS 990. TIP and its extensive run time support library are available on the hard disk based system and are highly recommended for use with TIPMX.

The latest addition to TI's software support is called Texas Instrument's Modular-Based Executive in Read only memory (TIMBER). TIMBER is targeted for users of the TM 990 series of microcomputer modules. In this way it is possible to do Pascal software development on a low cost system incorporating the TM 990/302 software development system. The fundamental benefit of TIMBER is that it is pre-packaged in erasable read only memory, thereby freeing the user from the concern of inadvertently destroying the operating system.

In the second paragraph of Byte News, Intel was mistakenly credited with being the first to market a 32 K byte programmable read only memory. Texas Instruments introduced the world's first 32 K programmable read only memory in April of 1978. The TMS 2532 is organized as 4 K by 8 bits and operates from a single +5 V power supply with standby power dissipation of 50 mW typical. A +25 V supply is only needed for programming.

Dale R Gibble
Project Engineer Texas Instruments
POB 1443 MS 6750
Houston TX 77001 ■

NEW FROM MOUNTAIN HARDWARE.
THE APPLE CLOCK.



New utility for your computer.
Now, there's a real time clock for the Apple II*: the Apple Clock from Mountain Hardware. It keeps time and date in lmS increments for one year. On-board battery backup keeps the clock running in the event of power outage. Easy to use with BASIC using routines carried in on-board ROM. That means you can time events, put time and date on printouts, create games in which elapsed time is important...and many more. Mountain Hardware offers a complete line of peripheral products for many fine computers.

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*Apple II is a trademark of Apple Computer, Inc.

BYTE's Bugs

A Reorganized Wine Cellar

As one who enjoys both wine and computers, I must comment on several inaccuracies in the article entitled "Computerized Wine Cellars" (February 1979 BYTE, page 128). The second wine in listing 1 is Rauenthaler Rothenberg Riesling Spatlese 1976 — von Simmern. The varietal name is not, as listed, Rhine, which is a geographical area, but Riesling, which is the name of the best grape variety produced in Germany. The Rheingau, which is the Rhine sub-area from which this wine comes, produces Riesling almost exclusively, but other Rhine areas produce Sylvaner, Müller-Thurgau, and other varietals as well.

More strangely, the producer is listed as Rauenthaler. In top quality German wines, the first name refers to the village and the second to a particular vineyard. Here, we have the village of Rauenthal and the vineyard Rothenberg. The producer is the Graf (Count) von Simmern.

In any case, I have recently enjoyed tasting this wine and I can verify the accuracy of the tasting notes in the listing — it is a super wine, and in wine drinking, that's what counts!

Larry Rosenblum
12008 Trailridge Dr
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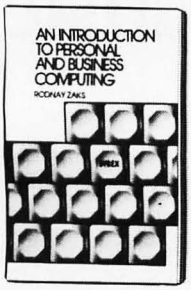

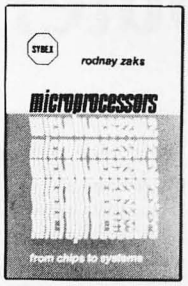

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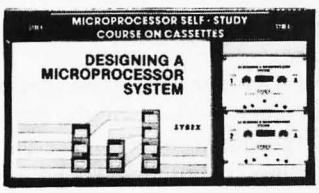

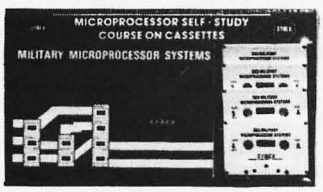

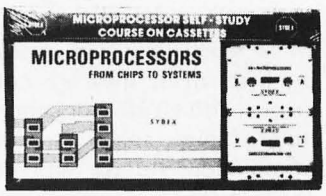

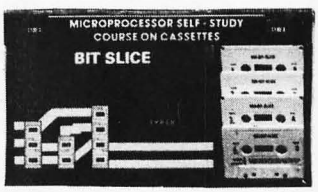

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Creativity in Computer Music

Hubert S Howe, Jr
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The most important result of computer applications in music is that they have encouraged a variety of new ideas to be formulated, tested, and reformulated in a short period of time. Concepts that previously would have taken much longer to develop and verify have already been brought forth. Musical thought is consequently on a higher level today. This applies to all aspects of work with computers — as much to research as to creative work, but perhaps less to music than to some other fields. The increasing availability of microcomputers can only further this trend.

The distinction between research and creative work is artificial, for much research is creative — certainly when it pursues new ideas. Computer work in music has for many years been carried out in the creative areas of musical composition and sound synthesis, and the research areas of musical analysis and music theory. In this discussion I will not consider such areas as music bibliography, music printing, CAI (computer-assisted instruction), and related disciplines. While much important work has been done in these areas, they are not generally concerned with creative or conceptual problems. Music bibliography essentially involves an information storage and retrieval system. Music printing is a problem of automation. CAI certainly encompasses creative work, but thus far only the most rudimentary instructional tasks have been delegated to computers, and then only with limited success.

Instead, I will discuss music theory, analysis, sound generation, and composition and their relation to the computer. While we are discussing the question of musical tasks in general, it is relevant to point out that *any* musical task is in principle subject to delegation to a computer. Musical tasks include any activities carried out by human beings that involve interaction with music.

Music is composed by composers in ways that, traditionally at least, involve only their own internal ideas, realized sometimes with the assistance of an instrument like the piano. Music is performed by performers who usually play from printed notation. Music is heard by listeners who may then engage in reflection, evaluation, or criticism. Musical documents such as recordings or scores are kept in libraries where they are filed according to careful systems of classification. Computer composition, performance, printing, recording, documentation, bibliography — even evaluation or criticism — all are feasible.

The problems involve simulating the sensory processes with which people interact with music — listening, writing, visual communication — and the mental processes with which they make their conclusions about music. The sensory processes are simulated by the I/O (input/output) devices on computers, and since computers cannot do all of these tasks in the same way that people can, various languages have been devised to enable translation from the human form into a form computers can read. The mental processes are simulated by the programs.

Now that we have described these general features of computer work in music, let us consider some specific problems concerning the four disciplines mentioned above and how using a computer has encouraged the formulation of new concepts in creative ways.

Music Theory

There has always been a close relationship between the discipline of music theory and other fields, particularly analysis and composition. In the twentieth century, composers have produced some highly original theories that they have attempted to apply to their compositions, either before or after they have written them. The term "speculative music theory" describes theories conceived before the music illustrating them is written.

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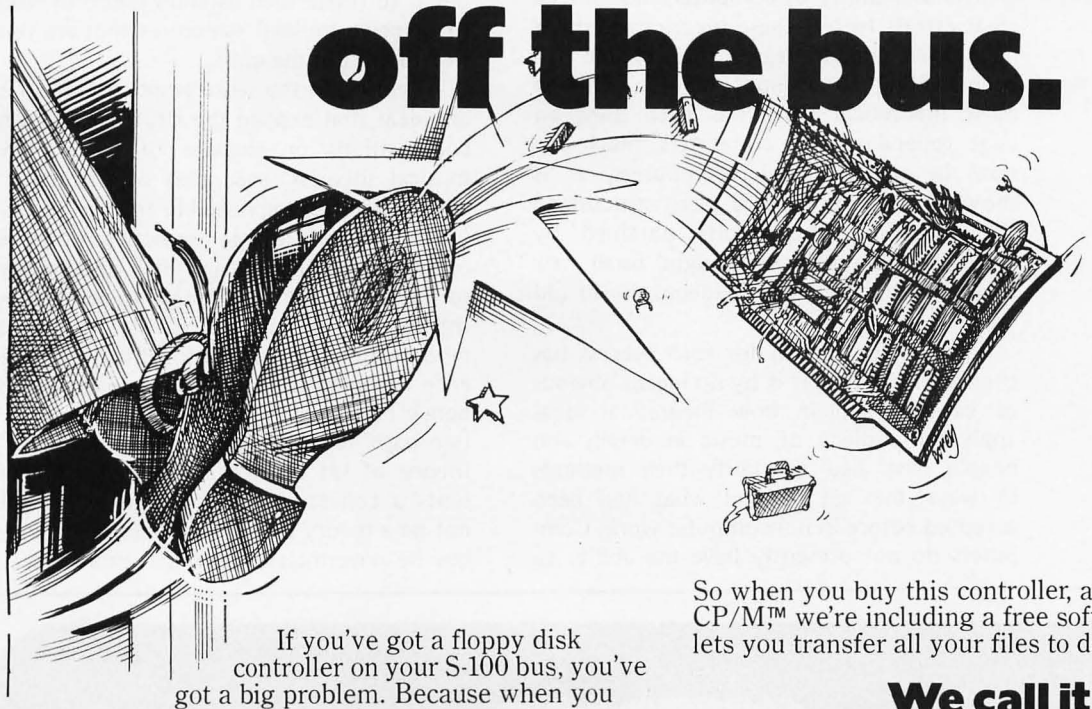

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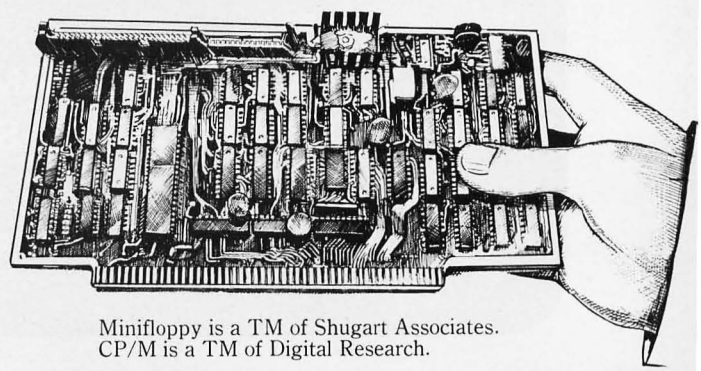

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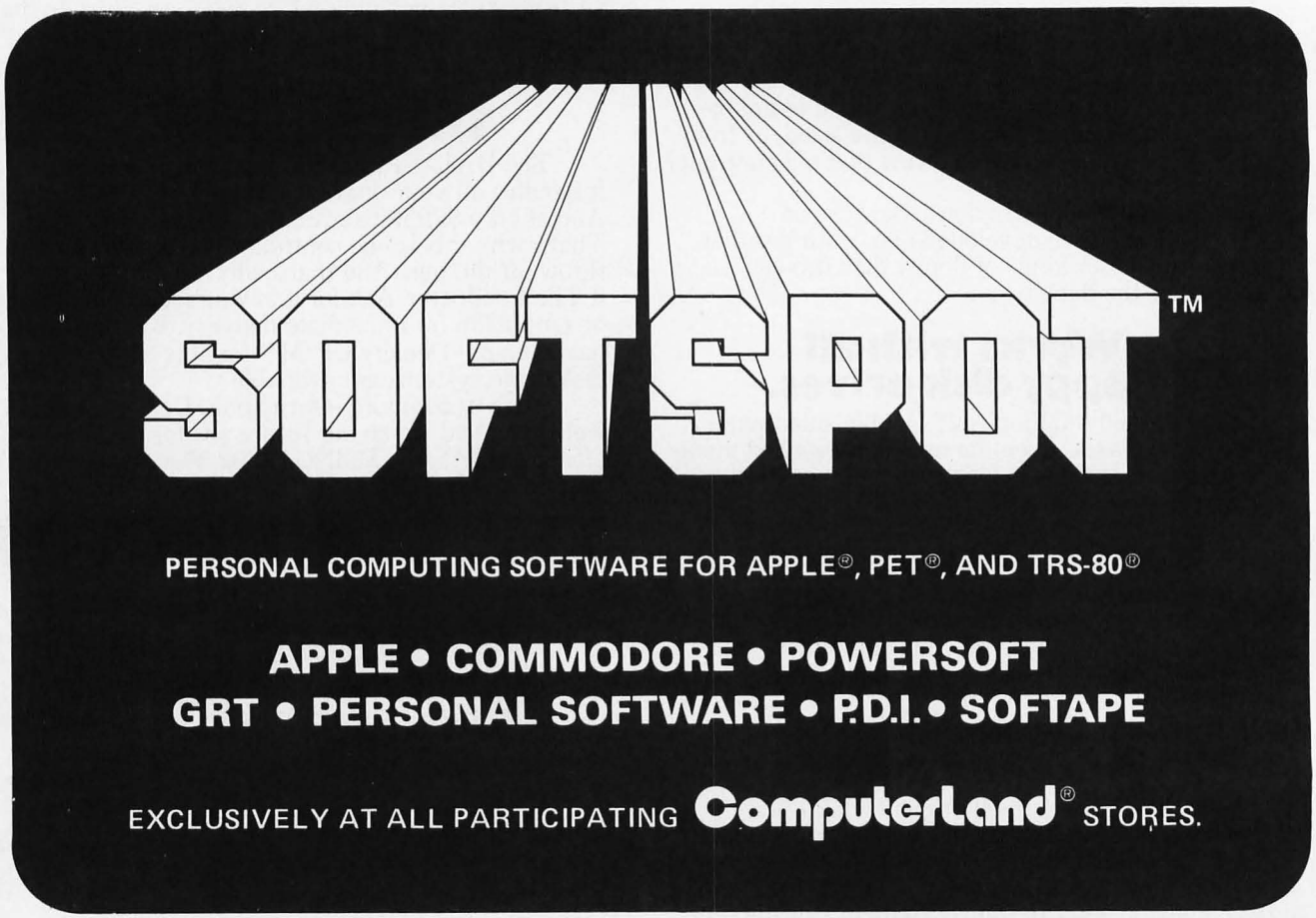
a theory applies to it, assuming that the theory is adequately formulated. For example, Schoenberg's conception of atonal music and later his "method of composition with 12 tones" originated as speculative ideas which were described, albeit confusingly, in his books *Harmonielehre* and *Style and Idea.* More recent composer/theorists like Milton Babbitt have extended Schoenberg's original ideas to even greater levels of abstraction.

The availability of computers has spurred great efforts to test these theories and other ideas to a greater degree than people had been willing to attempt before. (Though most theoretical work has been done on large general-purpose computers, much can now be done on microcomputers, as is shown in our example of pitch structures.) Concomitantly, the results obtained by these researchers have brought forth new ideas and exposed the inadequacies in old ones.

Part of the reason for such success has been the fact that it is by no means obvious or easy to explain how theoretical ideas apply to a piece of music in detail, and people have had to clarify their methods in ways that go beyond what had been accepted before in noncomputer work. Computers do not presently have the ability to *listen* (in the sense that a person "listens") to a piece of music to decide whether or not a given idea applies to it. Researchers have instead formulated methods that involve detailed inspection of the *notation* for a piece. Sometimes these produce results that seem mystifying or incorrect when compared with results reported by listeners. This conflict demonstrates the difficulty of accepting unintuitive ideas about music and the question of whether or how listeners ought to revise their listening habits in order to perceive musical structures that are verified to exist in the music.

Theories, in the sense employed thus far, are ideas that explain the structure of entire compositions or passages of music. Few musical theories, even that of triadic tonality, are in fact expressed in any such detail. Usually there is a large gap between the theoretical constructions and their applications to the music that is supposed to be filled by the reader. This is obviously true of such modern concepts as pantonality (see reference 6), or of attempts to perceive Schoenberg's 12 tone compositions in a certain key (see page 407 of reference 7). Allen Forte's theory of set complexes (reference 8) presents a collection of ideas that would still not be a theory in the sense described above, but he nevertheless has much more success



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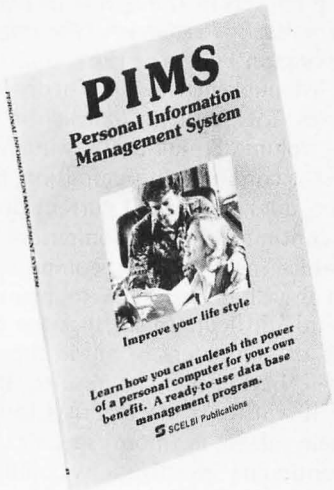

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in describing how his ideas relate in specific ways to actual musical content and the difficulties encountered in this process.

Forte's theory is a striking example of a series of ideas that grew out of a continuing interaction with computers. In his case, as well as that of this author, computers figured prominently in the development of the concepts employed in formulating the theory. Composers have sometimes referred to these concepts as precompositional ideas.

In my own work (described in "Some Combinational Properties of Pitch Structures," *Perspectives of New Music*, volume 4, number 1, fall/winter 1965, pages 45 thru 61) the basic concepts were pitch, pitch class, pitch class collection, and pitch structure. A computer was used to generate the basic sets of all of these elements, and then to test various operations such as inversion and cycle of fifths equivalence. The fact that a computer was used in this work meant that my list of pitch structures generated by the computer was one of the first accurate lists ever produced. Howard Hanson's count of distinct pitch sets in *The Harmonic Materials of Modern Music: Resources of the Tempered Scale*, Irvington Pub, NY, 1961, is incorrect. Forte's list published in "A Theory of Set Complexes for Music," *Journal of Music Therory*, volume 8, number 2, winter 1962, is correct according to his definition, but his definition does not reflect current practice. I have continued to use computers in my work, which now includes computer composition as well as theory development.

It is not difficult to see that the continuing use of computers in music theoretical work will have beneficial results, if only because it will force the theorists to formulate their ideas in more specific terms. Such continuing investigations could reveal and clarify many inadequacies in the theory of harmony or tonality as presently stated in harmony textbooks.

In fact, the *computerization* of the principles stated in any of these books ought to point up all kinds of basic problems that are never acknowledged – for example, just exactly what the theory explains about which music and what that has to do with any activity the reader would be likely to engage in with respect to either the theory or the music. *Harmony*, as we understand it from harmony texts, is simply the translation of a piece of music into a different notation or vocabulary – a vocabulary that is imprecise and overlooks many of the most important characteristics of the music itself. The reasons why such a translation is made and what advantages it possesses are unclear. Because they have to clarify their purposes to impersonal machines, computer researchers are not able to ignore these questions as easily as traditional ones.

Musical Analysis

Computer work in musical analysis highlights the question: what do we really want to know about a piece of music? There are

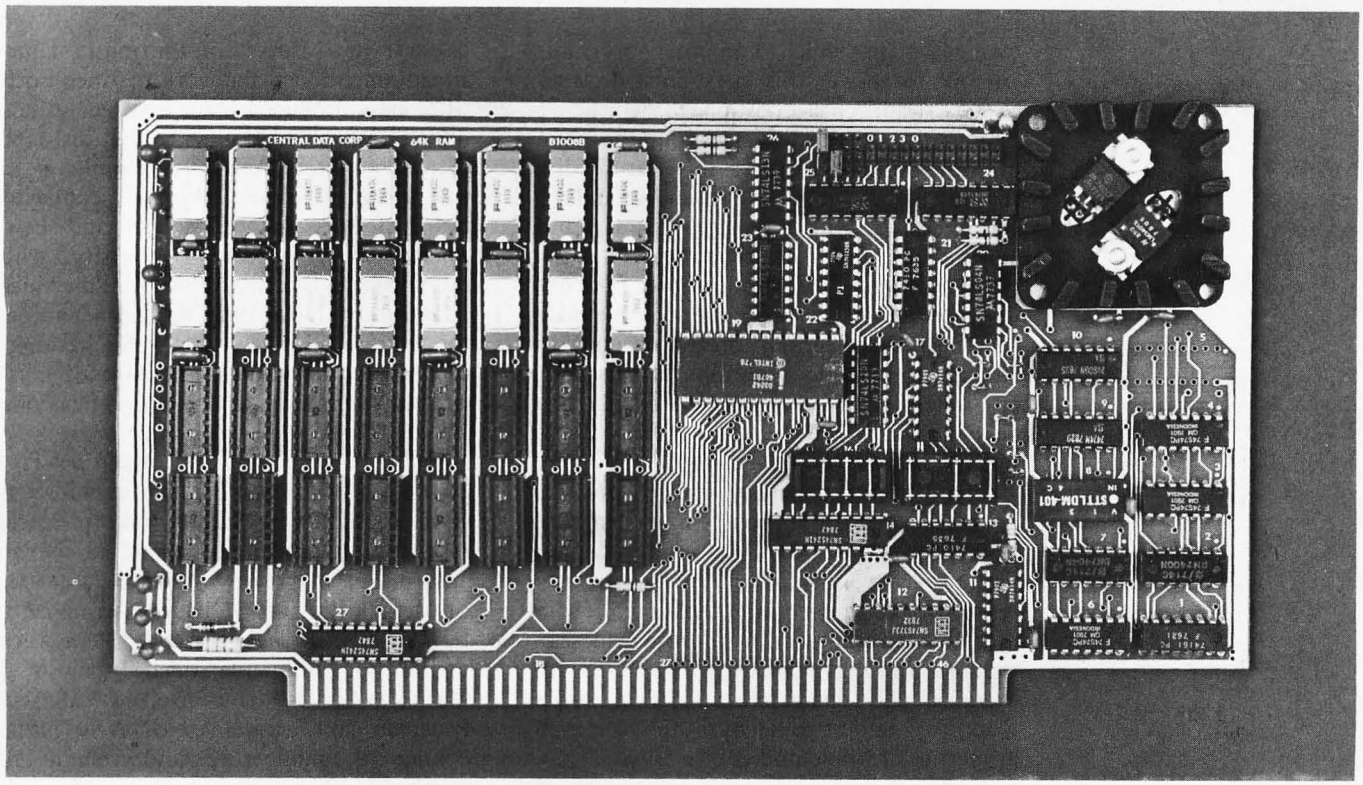
Pitch Structures

Pitch structures are sets of notes related by transposition (see Glossary). Within 12 tone equal temperament, there are exactly 351 of them available. The BASIC program shown in listing 1 generates all pitch structures in normal form. Normal form is a method of notation that chooses the representation with the smallest overall intervallic span. Individual pitch classes are indicated according to their intervallic distance from the lowest note. For example, the major triad (C E G) has three orderings: 0 4 7 (C E G), 0 3 8 (E G C), and 0 5 9 (G C E). The normal form representation would be 0 4 7. When two representations have the same overall span, the choice is made according to the smallest second, third, etc, interval. Some sets, like the augmented triad 0 4 8 (C E G#) have the same intervallic pattern for each ordering; these sets all have two or more transpositions that produce the same set of pitch classes.

This program is written in TRS-80 Level 1 BASIC, which allows multiple statements to be given in a single line using the colon (:) as a delimiter. LET is optional in assignment statements, and has been omitted in the program.

Listing 1: Program written in TRS-80 Level 1 BASIC to compute pitch structures in normal form.

```
  5 REM PROGRAM TO COMPUTE PITCH STRUCTURES IN
  6 REM NORMAL FORM
 10 FOR I=1 TO 24: A(I)=0: NEXT I
 20 S=2: K=1: L=S-1: M=2: N=1: Q=0: A(25)=0
 30 FOR I=1 TO L: A(I)=A(10*N+14+I): NEXT I:A(S)=K: V=A(2)
 40 GOSUB 210: IF T <> 0 THEN 80
 50 FOR I=1 TO S: A(10*M+14+I)=A(I): NEXT I
 60 Q=Q+1: PRINT S, Q,: FOR I=1 TO S: PRINT A(I);: NEXT I: PRINT
 70 K=K+1: M=M+1: GOTO 30
 80 IF V <= A(10*(N+1)+16) THEN 100
 90 L=S: S=S+1: Q=0: IF S >10 THEN 110
100 N=N+1: K=A(10*N+14+L)+1: GOTO 30
110 GO TO 999
200 REM SUBROUTINE NRMLFM
210 P=S-1: X=0: T=0
220 IF A(1)=0 THEN 250
230 X=A(1): T=X
240 FOR I=1 TO S: A(I)=A(I)-X: NEXT I
250 FOR I=1 TO S: A(I+12)=A(I): NEXT I: A(S+13)=12
260 U=A(14): X=X+U: IF X >= 12 THEN RETURN
270 FOR I=2 TO S: A(12+I)=A(13+I)-U: NEXT I
280 IF A(S+12) < A(S) THEN 330
290 IF A(S+12) > A(S) THEN 260
300 FOR F=2 TO S: IF A(F+12) < A(F) THEN 330
310 IF A(F+12) > A(F) THEN 260
320 NEXT F: RETURN
330 FOR I=1 TO S: A(I)=A(I+12): NEXT I: T=X: GOTO 260
999 END
```



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two ways in which computer programs attempt to answer this question. One is to pose a traditional question to which we supposedly know the answer, in the hope that the task of carrying this out on the computer will improve our understanding; in other words, it helps us understand musical intuition. The second way is to ask the computer to solve problems we have not yet understood when traditional methods have been used. Serious research will always be concerned with questions of this sort, but unless those of the first sort can also be handled we will be in doubt about the success of the second.

There have been many research projects in musical analysis, most of which are ongoing and have thus far produced only tentative or incomplete results. In my opinion, the most important conflict in this area concerns both purpose and procedure: should computers be used to examine the characteristics of a single work, or rather to analyze the common properties of whole bodies of works?

Some of the most significant results in musical analysis have been obtained by theorists who are more interested in the theoretical problems than the musical works, and who have analyzed works more in order to prove their theories than to discover new aspects of the music. I have already mentioned the work of Allen Forte, who has produced excellent analysis of diverse atonal works with the assistance of a computer. Another example is the well-known "Josquin Project" conducted by Professors Arthur Mendel and Lewis Lockwood at Princeton University. While this project is remarkable for the sheer quantity of music that has been encoded for study, all analytical work has been carried out from the standpoint of music analysis according to the theoretical principles formulated by contemporaries of Josquin. (See reference 9. Josquin des Prés, c1445-1521, was a prominent composer of early music.) Few studies have produced results as successful as these. (Some are absurd. See my review of "Two Parameters of Melodic Line as Stylistic Discriminants" by David Sheldon Lewis and "Some Techniques for Computer-Aided Analysis of Musical Scores" by Donald Margedo Pederson in *Perspectives of New Music*, volume 9, number 2 and volume 10, number 1, 1971.)

One of the most time-consuming aspects of computer analysis of music has been the development of encoding languages in which musical notation can be transcribed for computer input. Analytical studies have become studies of musical notation, not of sound or auditory experience, and are thus open to the objections raised above. Many languages have been developed for different purposes, and many of them choose to represent the notational characteristics in very different ways. There has been much unfruitful debate over these languages prompted by some researchers trying to get others to adopt their language as universal. One researcher, Eric Regener, has instead taken the intelligent line of writing programs to transcribe other notations into his.

An important quality of these languages is that each was developed with a different purpose in mind, and thus each emphasizes different aspects of the music. Some languages developed for the purpose of music printing (like DARMS) are necessarily quite complex in their methods of representing spacing between notes and other features of page layout that are irrelevant for languages concerned with analytical work. Other languages developed for use with a specific body of music (like IML) cannot be used for other types of music because they do not provide methods for encoding features that do not occur in the works for which the languages were developed.

The point I would like to make about these languages is that any notation expresses a conceptual structure of the music

Encoding Languages

The following example shows a line of music from the Hosanna of the *Missa Ave Maris Stella* by Josquin des Prés encoded for computer input in the IML encoding language:

```
' = CLEF G' ' = KEY F'
R11/R1 *B1,HO,/B2* C2 D1,SAN,/G11,NA,/
R1 *C1/C2*B4 A4 *A1//
```

Keywords indicating the clef and key signature are enclosed in quotation marks with an equal sign at the beginning. Rests are indicated by the letter R. Notes are indicated by the letter name (C, D, E, F, G, A, B) as read on the staff (people who encode this data must be able to read music). Following the letters A through G or R is a number indicating the duration: 11 is a breve, 1 is a whole note, 2 is a half note, and 4 is a quarter note. Text syllables are enclosed in commas following the note, and the slash (/) indicates a bar line; the double slash indicates the end of the line. Asterisks indicate the beginnings or ends of ties.

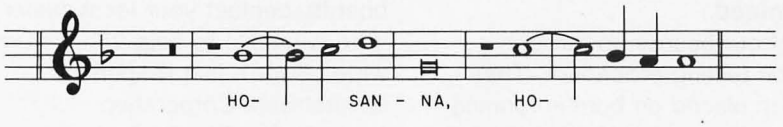

Figure 1: Musical excerpt from the Hosanna of the Missa Ave Maris Stella *by Josquin des Prés (see "Encoding Languages" text box).*

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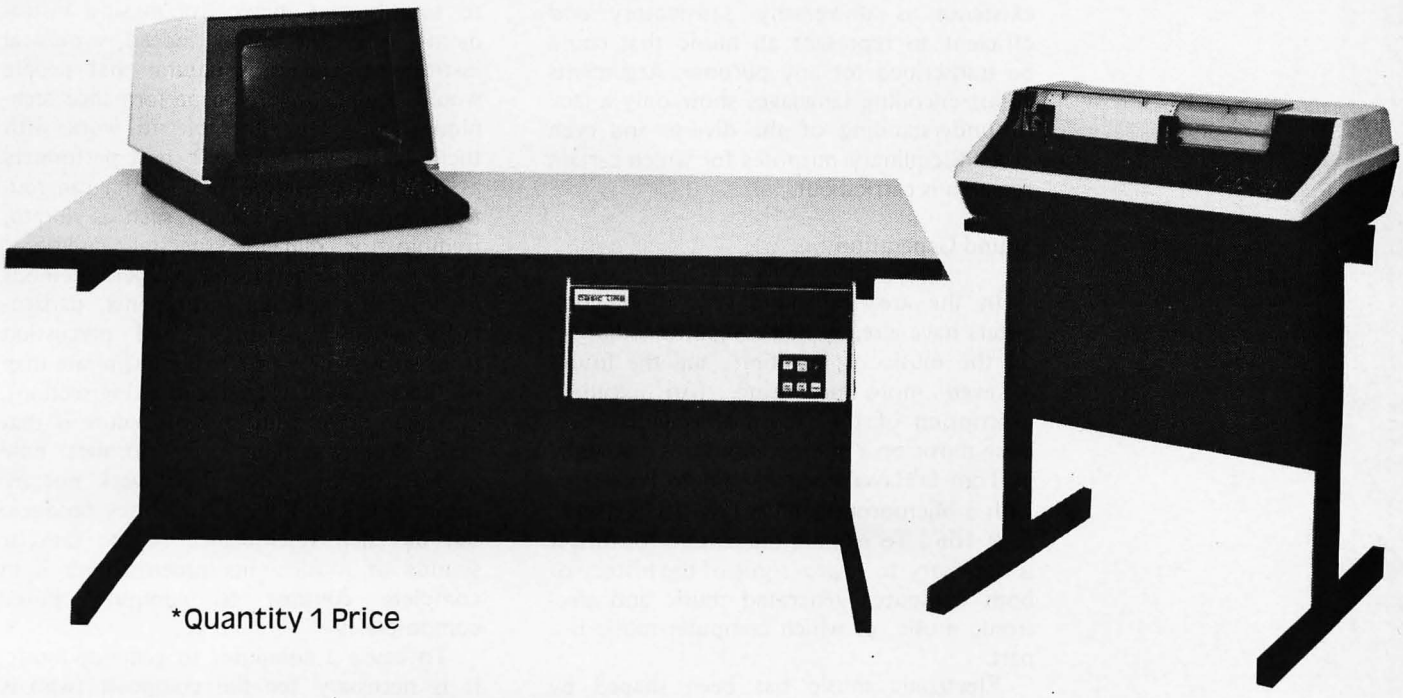

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it represents. Printing languages are very specific about graphical features because those are important aspects of the intended result. Other languages developed for analysis represent elements like pitches and rhythms as the basic aspects to be examined, and provide many ways for representing nuances in these domains but not others. For another example, guitar notation providing only a melodic line and a basic chord pattern is a remarkably efficient means of indicating a diverse quantity of sounds in a few symbols, and the symbols convey a sense about the irrelevance of certain nuances in the chord structure that would be unthinkable in other music. No language currently in existence is universally satisfactory *and* efficient to represent all music that could be transcribed for any purpose. Arguments about encoding languages show only a lack of understanding of the diverse and even cross-disciplinary purposes for which certain research is carried out.

Sound Generation

In the area of sound generation, computers have already had a significant impact on the music of our time, and the future is even more promising. (An excellent description of the facilities needed to produce music on a microcomputer is contained in Tom O'Haver's article "Audio Processing with a Microprocessor" in June 1978 BYTE, page 166.) To explain the reasons for this, it is necessary to review some of the history of both computer generated music and electronic music, of which computer music is a part.

Electronic music has been shaped by several disparate influences. Historically, the first was the use of nonconventional sounds that were previously considered to be nonmusical. Early works were based on the sounds of railroads, water dripping, and other noises of everyday experience and of nature. Another significant influence was the availability of analog electronic sound generating and modifying equipment, which is now packaged into devices called synthesizers. (A third influence, less important than the first two, was the use of speech and language in noncommunicative ways.) Music based on sounds of nature tended to be extremely complex in the foreground, whereas music produced by electronic equipment often lacked dynamic variations in tonal characteristics.

Today, these early tendencies have been mollified as a result of the experiences of many people working with these ideas, often in conjunction with computers. People have begun to analyze the characteristics of nonconventional sounds, often by computer, to discover and generalize the properties of interest in them. Thus, early exploratory use of these sounds has now given way to conceptual thinking about them. Such thinking is a natural result of processes which people must employ to generate sounds by computers, because users must present information to the computer in concrete ways. A computer cannot generate a sound from a person's abstract recollection of what it sounds like.

Sounds produced by electronic music synthesizers have evolved from the lifeless organ-like sounds that contain no dynamic variation in tonal characteristics to sounds that mimic live musical instruments. A synthesizer is, indeed, a musical instrument, and it is natural that people would begin to develop performance techniques once they are able to work with them for a while. Such expert performers as Walter Carlos and Isao Tomita can routinely produce any quality such as vibrato, tremolo, or dynamic spectral variations. They have also developed excellent methods of imitating specific instruments, particularly woodwinds, brass, and percussion (solo string sounds are easier to imitate than the lush sounds of an entire string section).

The trouble with this procedure is that even expert synthesizer performers now at least partly judge their work not by the originality of the sounds they produce, but by their resemblance to the familiar sounds of musical instruments. This is in complete contrast to computer music composers.

To cause a computer to generate music, it is necessary for the composer (who is actually the performer in this case) to provide a detailed description of the sound desired. The description can be anything that is mathematically sufficient to cause the desired properties to be produced by the computer. *Any* describable sound can be produced; the limitation is not in the capability of the computer but rather in the ability of composers to provide adequate descriptions of what they want. A detailed explanation of how computers generate musical sound is contained in *Electronic Music Synthesis* (see reference 3).

This factor has been one of the primary reasons for the recent interest in the analysis of sounds of all types. Computer music synthesis is thus not limited by the comparison of the results produced to any pre-existing standard. Indeed, composers are encouraged to be creative with the qualities of the sounds they produce, by the very procedure by which they must work.

Of course, people who work with syn-

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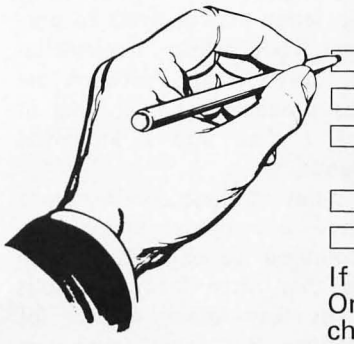

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thesizers are not limited either; nevertheless it seems that there have been far more successful electronic performances of conventional music recently than there has been original music. Part of the reason for this difference is actually one of the limitations of computer music as it is produced in most situations today: the lack of immediacy between performance time (at which the input is fed to the computer) and audition time (when the sound is produced). Very few installations today have any immediate playback facilities except for more than a few simple sounds, and real time computer music synthesis of entire compositions is practically impossible (see reference 3, chapter 9).

The inherent difficulty in producing sounds by computer, together with the delay in hearing the results, forces computer music composers to evaluate their work reflectively and to think carefully before trying things out. While immediacy is important to the act of performance, it is not necessary for the act of composition itself, which is a conceptual task.

An excellent example of the kind of creativity on the sound level made possible in computer music is described by J K Randall in his article "Operations on Waveforms" (*Perspectives of New Music*, volume 5, number 2, spring/summer 1967, page 124). These ideas are exploited compositionally in Randall's *Lyric Variations for Violin and Computer*, written in 1968 and recorded on Vanguard C-10057. Randall describes several original ideas he used to synthesize new timbres from completely new theoretical principles. He produces sounds in which the individual constituent partials (harmonics of the fundamental) of a tone are operated upon just as the pitch, rhythm, and dynamics are in conventional music. The result is music of unusual interest in which all variations of the sounds relate in novel ways to the structure of the music.

The same kinds of processes in which partials are treated as pitches were employed in my compositions entitled *Studies in Timbre*, of which there are presently four. The first study employs sounds that dissolve into others by glissandos that move from one partial to another. These are contrasted with other sounds of fixed pitch but changing timbre. The second study uses instrument-like sounds with transient elements in the attack and variations in the steady state portions of the tones. The third is based on varying timbral patterns associated with specific musical events. The typical instrument produces 12 partials that fade in and out in different ways over the course of each tone, correlated to amplitude and location changes. Contrasts between partials of some tones and the fundamental frequencies of others are emphasized in conjunction with rhythmic, dynamic, and harmonic properties that develop concomitantly. The fourth study uses harmonic series that progress to non-harmonic ones, but which nevertheless preserve some abstract ratio between the elements, thus producing another kind of dissolution of a tone into a somewhat clangorous sound.

The main point of these considerations is to show how a computer music composer is encouraged to experiment with original ideas that often lead to results unobtainable by any other method of music production. But since computers are theoretically capable of producing any sounds, this is not the only beneficial or distinguishing result. The fact is that the *same* sounds can be produced by *different* descriptions that are based on generalizations about different aspects of the sounds. Thus, the really important point is that it is the *relationship between the input and the output* which is clarified by the process of computer music synthesis. Whatever this may be in relation to a specific musical work is in itself a concept about the structure of that work.

Musical Composition

Although I have emphasized the creativity involved in the other disciplines discussed, it is obvious that composition is, by comparison, the ultimate creative act to be delegated to a computer. Many people express disbelief or doubt that this can really be done successfully. I believe that this doubt is rooted more in misunderstanding of what musical composition itself involves rather than of what the computer does. Composers may employ mysterious methods, but they are even more prone to making mysterious explanations of straightforward methods in order to preserve their compositional mystique.

Any detailed consideration of musical analysis or theory suggests numerous avenues of approach to the compositional method employed. Whether a piece actually has been composed according to the principles that can be abstracted from its structure is not necessarily relevant, and often can never be known. In recent years, the work of Heinrich Schenker and post-Schenkerian analysts has attempted to discover large scale structural properties in tonal music which almost certainly were not consciously considered by the composers who wrote the music, and which raise questions not previously posed in the history of theory.

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Computer composition can be employed as a method of verifying theories and analyses of specific works, especially if they consist of multilayered abstractions like Schenkerian analysis. These abstractions suggest a generative approach starting from a background and building through successive layers of elaboration to the foreground. One method of verifying such an analysis is to prove that it can actually regenerate the work, at least in its essential structural aspects, by a particular sequence of operations. Another method is to change some of the background or middleground structure or the particular sequence of operations to produce new works that can be compared with the original. Although they might not be intended to be taken seriously as original compositions (since their structure is derivative of another work), such compositions would unquestionably be computer composed music.

Instead of using this structural approach, early work in computer composition has tended to emphasize the sensational aspects of "machine music" and has been based on random and aleatoric methods (see reference 2). Very few conditions of the intended music have been specified, with the result that certain characteristics are quite clearly present (eg: consonances) or absent (eg: dissonances) but the music is otherwise aimless and without structure. These facts are quite obvious when the music produced resembles some early style like a Bach invention, but are less clear when some avant-garde style is imitated. Nevertheless, such experiments (often designated as experiments rather than as music) are not typical of musical compositional methods in general, nor of computer work in this field.

In my own music I have employed computer composition in extensive ways ("Composing by Computer," *Computers and the Humanities,* volume 9, 1975, page 281). Nevertheless, the computer does not make any decisions that I would not make myself, nor indeed that I have not already made when it executes my instructions; it merely carries out many time-consuming calculations that would otherwise have to be done by hand. Basically, the program works out aspects of the foreground syntax which assure various rhythmic, harmonic and structural properties. All aspects of this syntax are specified by instructions provided together with the data (pitch classes) on which they are carried out.

Using a program like this allows composers to work more from a background perspective than from the foreground. They are able to concentrate on the large scale structural properties without being encumbered with the foreground details that may arise from these characteristics; these are handled quickly and automatically by the computer. Several different possibilities for working out a given passage can be tried before any commitment is made to them.

Even more important, the process of writing a program to carry out such compositional details forces composers to be absolutely explicit about their procedures and intentions. Any errors or incompleteness in the specifications will be exposed when a program is executed by the computer. Ad hoc methods that composers may use to fix certain passages when they don't work out as expected are not necessary, because it is easy enough to revise the program once these problems are exposed. The composer's attention is thus always directed to the most important conceptual aspects of the music, and his or her ability to solve problems in these areas is facilitated.

Conclusion

By examining aspects of the four musical disciplines discussed above, we have seen many instances where the use of computers

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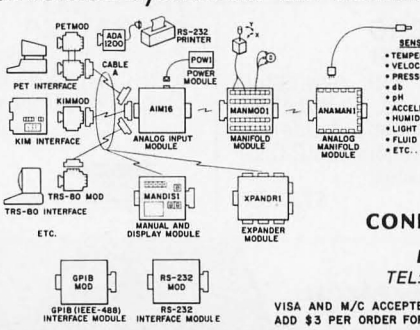

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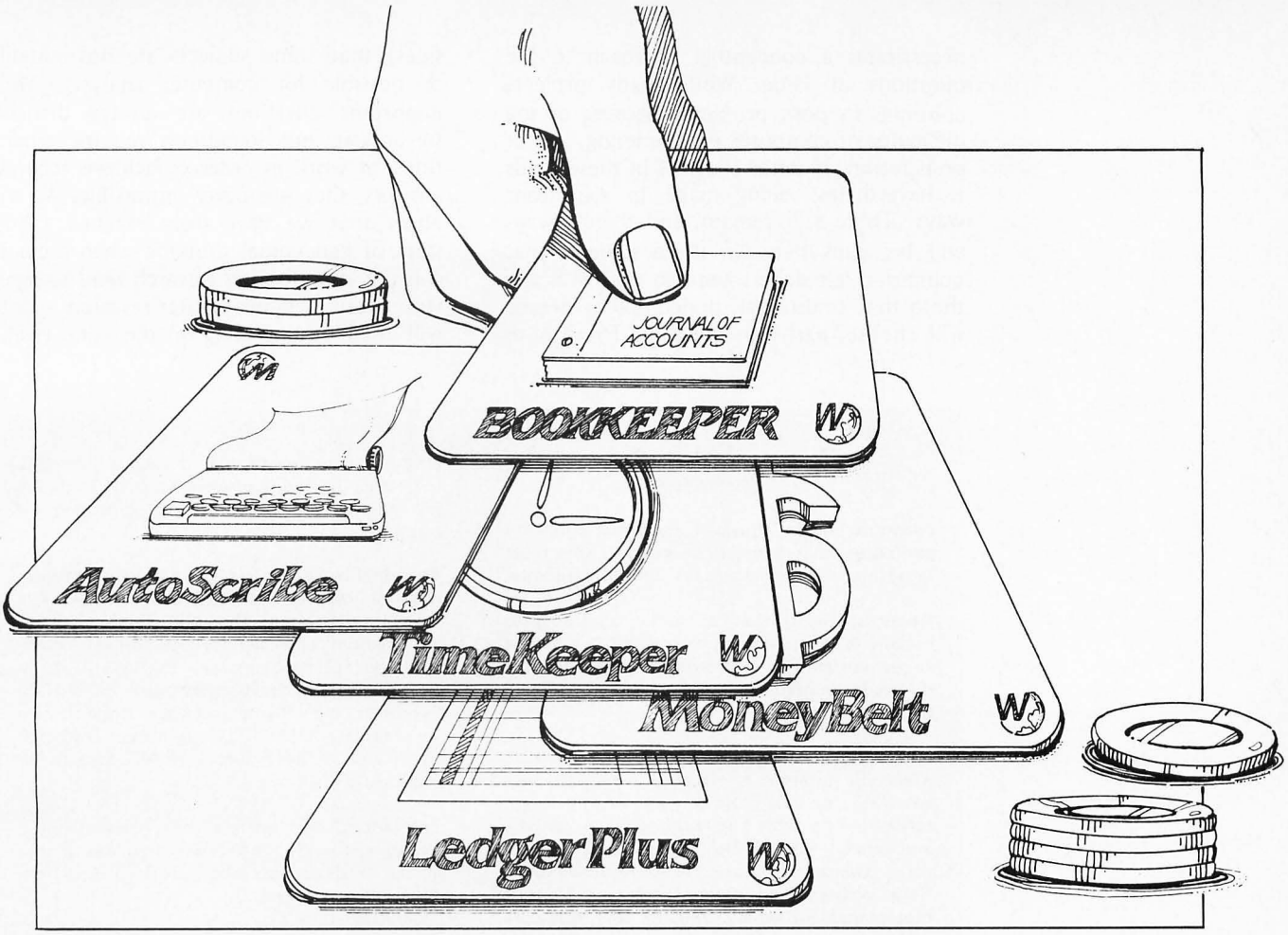

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necessitates a conceptual approach to the questions at issue. While many projects continue to pose problems because of the difficulty of computer programming, and of preparation of data, progress in these fields is nevertheless being made in significant ways. There still remain, and there always will be, gaps between those subjects that computer researchers tend to deal with and those that traditional, noncomputer people will choose, partly in the belief (from both sides) that some subjects are not suitable or possible for computer analysis. While important questions are always difficult to answer and sometimes require generations of work in order to achieve accurate answers, they are never impossible. We will know that we have truly reached a high state of conceptual thinking when the conclusions of computer research tend to agree with those of noncomputer research – both will then be operating on the same level.■

GLOSSARY

Aleatoric music: music, usually composed by computer, in which all or many of the most important characteristics are chosen randomly.

Analysis: description of music according to certain fundamental properties that are judged to be relevant to a given piece, showing how different elements in the work may be related by these properties.

Atonality: music which is not tonal, and where a specific attempt is made to avoid reference to a key, or when the concept of key is not relevant. The term has two basic uses, specific and general: specifically, it describes a body of early twentieth century music by Schoenberg, Berg, Webern, and others, preceding 12 tone music (qv), in which tonality (qv) was consciously avoided. Generally, the term is used to describe any twentieth century music avoiding tonality that cannot be described simply by other methods.

Background: musical substructure describing large scale properties and relations that may not be evident from an inspection of the immediate note to note properties, or from a superficial auditioning of the music; see **foreground.** In certain theories, the background is considered divisible into several levels.

Computer music: music employing computers at any stage of its composition or realization as sound.

Cycle of fifths equivalence: an operation on a group of notes in which each element is replaced by its equivalent on the circle of fifths; analogous to inversion (qv). The circle of fifths generates the total chromatic (qv) by starting on any note, adding the note a perfect fifth (seven half steps) higher, and continuing this process.

Electronic music: music in which the sounds are produced by electronic means. In a somewhat simplified form, electronic music as currently practiced can be broken down into four general areas: (1) **musique concrète,** in which use is made of natural sounds that are recorded on tape and modified by recording processes or other means; (2) **tape music,** in which sounds are modified according to procedures that may be applied to magnetic tape or tape recorders; (3) **synthesized music,** in which the sounds are produced by electronic music synthesizers (qv); and (4) **computer music** (qv), in which the sounds are produced or controlled by computers.

Encoding language: a method in which musical notation may be represented in code suitable for computer input. The most widely used and documented languages to date are IML (Intermediary Musical Language), DARMS (Descriptive Alphanumeric Representation of Musical Symbols), the "Plaine and Easie Code System for Musicke," LMT (Linear Music Transcription), and ALMA (Alphanumeric Language for Music Analysis).

Foreground: the "surface" of a piece of music, including sounds that are simultaneous or that appear in direct succession; distinguished from the background (qv).

Glissando: a continuous sliding from one pitch to another.

Half step: the smallest interval (qv) used in music based on equal temperament (the tuning system in widespread use in Western cultures since the eighteenth century). Music employing smaller intervals is said to be **microtonal.**

Harmony: a theory describing properties of simultaneous sounds (chords) in tonal music (see **tonality**). Chords are expected to move in certain progressions, and dissonances resolve into consonances according to various rules.

Interval: the distance, measured in half steps, between two pitches or pitch classes. Tonal music also employs another definition of interval, based not on the sound but on the notation for the two notes involved.

Inversion: an operation on a group of notes in which each element is replaced by its equivalent on the descending chromatic scale, or ascending circle of major sevenths (11 half steps). (In this formulation, an ascending chromatic scale would be the identity operation.) Identity and inversion, along with cycle of fifths equivalence and its inversion (cycle of fourths equivalence) are the only single interval cycles that generate the total chromatic (qv).

Octave: a musical interval of 12 half steps, corresponding to the frequency ratio of 2 to 1. Pitches related by octaves possess a strong similarity, which has been called **octave equivalence.**

Pitch: a single tone in a musical composition. Most pitches used in music are taken from the range of the 88 produced by the piano, but some extend beyond this range.

Pitch class: a group of pitches separated by any number of octaves. In musical theories, pitches in different octaves employ the same letter names (C, C #or D♭, D, D #or E♭, etc) reflecting the fact that theories are based on pitch classes rather than pitches. Pitch classes are also often called notes. While there are many pitches, there are only 12 distinct pitch classes in Western music.

Pitch structure: a set of pitch class collections that all possess the same intervallic structure, so that they are related by transposition (qv). Pitch structure is the basic way that collections of tones, such as chords, are compared: as major triads, minor triads, etc.

Spectrum: the overtone structure of a sound, represented as a series showing the amplitude of each overtone present; see **timbre.**

Structure: any abstract method in which the properties of a piece of music can be encompassed. Generally, a piece is divided into several sections, each of which has a different structure. Sometimes structure is described in terms of a function or purpose at work in an entire section, such as introduction, development, or statement (of a theme or idea). Sometimes structure is described numerically, proportionally, or in other abstract ways.

Synthesizer: a machine that generates and processes sounds automatically, used in the production of electronic music. Most synthesizers consist of a number of discrete components that perform different functions (eg: oscillators that generate tones, filters that modify their spectrum, etc). Some recently designed synthesizers include microprocessors, which are used as controlling devices.

Theory: a set of concepts describing properties and relations that can be shown to exist in a body of musical literature. The most commonly known theories today include tonality (qv) and 12 tone music (qv), but there are many others that have been described and used by various authors. Most theories have originated after the music they purport to describe has been written. *Speculative* theory originates as speculation, before such music has been written, so that its success or failure has not yet been demonstrated.

Timbre: musical tone quality, descriptive of the way in which different tones may possess a similarity not on the basis of pitch, amplitude, or rhythm. In electronic music, this term is normally used synonymously with spectrum (qv), but in contexts where it is described qualitatively rather than numerically.

Tonality: a theory describing music which is in a key, or a series of keys, usually pertaining to music written during the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries. Basic concepts include the major and minor scales, triads, and specific rules according to which dissonances resolve into consonances. Much of the music of the twentieth century is based on an extended notion of tonality, in which some, but not all, of the basic concepts are employed.

Total chromatic: any series of notes including all 12 pitch classes.

Transposition: the addition or subtraction of a constant interval to each tone in a collection, moving the set up or down by a uniform amount.

Triad: a chord consisting of three notes (or pitch classes) with a root note, and other notes a third and fifth above the root.

12 tone music: music in which all note successions, and sometimes other properties are based on sets of orderings of the total chromatic.

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Journal of Music Theory, Yale School of Music, New Haven CT, 06520.

Perspectives of New Music, Perspectives of New Music Inc, Annandale on Hudson, NY 12504.

Nybbles

"Tiny" Pascal in 8080 Assembly Language

Dr G Louis
OB/GYN Department
St Michael's Hospital
30 Bond St
Toronto CANADA M5B 1W8

The p-code interpreter, Pascal to p-code compiler, and p-code to 8080-code translator described in "A 'Tiny' Pascal Compiler" by Kin-Man Chung and Herbert Yuen (September thru November 1978 BYTE) have been rewritten in 8080 assembly language. In addition to providing approximately two orders of magnitude increase in speed, the object versions run in far less memory.

To use the assembly language version of tiny Pascal you need: an 8080 (or Z-80) microcomputer system with not less than 12 K bytes of memory (the package would run in 8 K bytes but you need file space); a copy of the articles by Chung and Yuen, which have been reprinted by BYTE magazine and are available for $3 (BYTE document number 100); an elementary acquaintance with 8080 assembly language; the package of assembly language modules.

Additionally, it is desirable to have a text editor, an assembler that stores lines in the form: length byte, 4 digit line number, space or tab, text, carriage return, and a relocator program that is useful for tailoring the package to your system.

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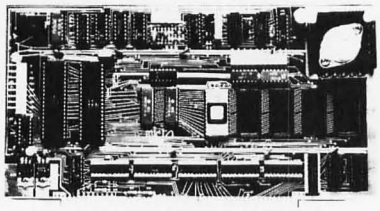

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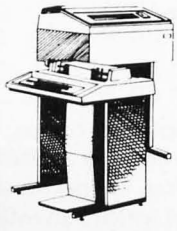

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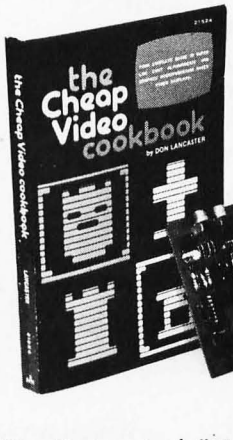

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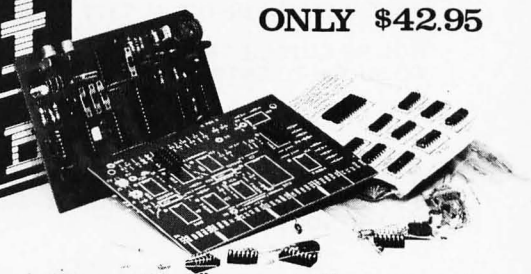

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Quest

Roger Chaffee
POB 7495
Menlo Park CA 94025

You are at one end of a vast hall stretching forward out of sight to the west. There are openings to either side. Nearby, a wide stone staircase leads downward. The hall is filled with wisps of white mist swaying to and fro almost as if alive. A cold wind blows up the staircase. There is a passage at the top of the dome behind you. Rough stone steps lead up the dome.

> GO DOWN

You are in the hall of the Mountain King, with passages off in all directions. A huge green fierce snake bars the way!

> ATTACK SNAKE

Attacking the snake both doesn't work and is very dangerous.

> FEED SNAKE

There's nothing here it wants to eat (except perhaps you).

> YELL

Are you trying to somehow deal with the snake?

> YES

I am prepared to give you a hint, but it will cost you 2 points. Do you want the hint?

The preceding paragraphs are taken from a session I played on a computer running a program called Adventure, which has used many, many cycles of machine time on many, many computers in the past year or two. The original version, I believe, was written in FORTRAN, by Willie Crowther (now at Xerox Palo Alto Research Center), and was subsequently modified and rewritten by Don Woods at Stanford's Artificial Intelligence Laboratory.

The version I ran has been bootlegged through several generations, and I'm not sure of its exact ancestry. It requires close to 200,000 bytes of memory on an IBM 370/168. Adventure has been translated into PL/I, APL, and BASIC. It is the successor to Hunt the Wumpus and the many *Star Trek* games.

I hope it is the precursor of more elaborate games which combine computers with fantasy to produce an "electric novel," which the user and the computer write or experience together. Already, a few computers around the country are offering a child of Adventure called Zork or Dungeon, which has a more sophisticated understanding of English, and a whole new set of problems to solve and monsters to defeat. Space War, which used to belong to the "freaks" and the "hackers" (in the hours after the managers went home), is now available in your neighborhood tavern for 25¢ per enemy starship. How much longer will it be until we can each rule our own kingdom and rescue our own fair maidens?

QUEST

YOU WERE WALKING THROUGH THE
WOODS, AND YOU CAME ACROSS THE ENTRANCE
OF A CAVE, COVERED WITH BRUSH.

PEOPLE SAY THAT MANY YEARS AGO A
PIRATE HID HIS TREASURE IN THESE
WOODS, BUT NO ONE HAS EVER FOUND IT.
IT MAY STILL BE HERE, FOR ALL I KNOW.

WHEN YOU ANSWER A QUESTION, I LOOK AT
ONLY THE FIRST LETTER, ALTHOUGH YOU CAN
TYPE THE WHOLE WORD IF YOU WANT.

TYPE N, S, E, W, U, OR D FOR NORTH, SOUTH,
EAST, WEST, UP OR DOWN. TYPE P FOR SCORE

YOU'RE OUTSIDE THE CAVE.
GO SOUTH TO ENTER.

WHICH WAY? SOUTH

YOU'RE IN A LOW CHAMBER. A TIGHT TUNNEL
GOES EAST, AND YOU CAN WALK TO THE
SOUTH OR WEST. THERE IS LIGHT
TO THE NORTH.

WHICH WAY? WEST

YOU'RE AT A DEAD END!

WHICH WAY? EAST

YOU'RE IN A LOW CHAMBER. A TIGHT TUNNEL
GOES EAST, AND YOU CAN WALK TO THE
SOUTH OR WEST. THERE IS LIGHT
TO THE NORTH.

WHICH WAY? SOUTH

YOU'RE AT THE HOME OF THE GNOME-KING.
FORTUNATELY, HE'S GONE FOR THE DAY

WHICH WAY? SOUTH

YOU CAN'T GO IN THAT DIRECTION

Listing 1: Sample dialogue from the Quest game. This shows only the first few moves.

Quest

There aren't many personal computers yet with 200 K bytes of memory available, and not all of us have free or inexpensive access to the machines on which Adventure can run. A smaller computer would require a floppy disk file for keeping the cave descriptions, and most users have no hardware for

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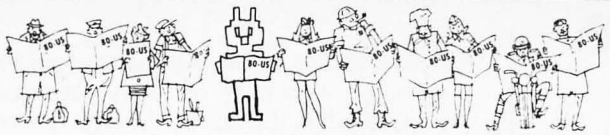

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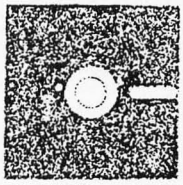

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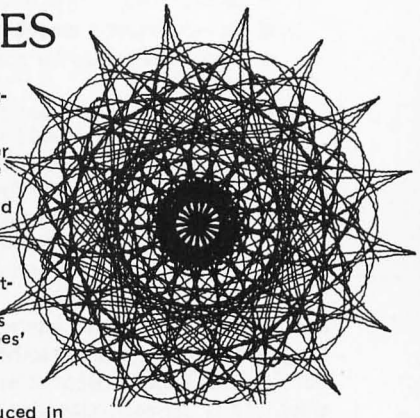

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rapid random access outside the computer memory. Adventure on everybody's computer is still in the future, although it is coming soon.

I was playing Adventure at about the time Peninsula School, Menlo Park CA, received two Commodore PET 2001 machines for the children to work with; and the incredible idea of Adventure on a PET was too exciting to ignore. Adventure on a PET, with only 7123 bytes available for the BASIC program, is impossible, but couldn't I do something just a bit less ambitious? In a couple of intense work weeks, I wrote a program I called Quest, which ran on the PET.

Comparing Quest and Adventure

Compared to Adventure, Quest is a toy, in the same measure that the PET is a toy compared to larger computer systems. But it is an enjoyable and even exciting toy, in the same ways that the PET can be enjoyed by someone who can also play with the big computers. Each system has its own problems and pleasures. Adventure, as you can see from the opening paragraphs, has some novel problems for the adventurer to solve, and will proceed according to the adventurer's 2 word commands. On the other hand, the problem you must solve in Quest is basically to find your way around the cave. The only commands Quest normally understands are six directions: NORTH, SOUTH, EAST, WEST, UP, and DOWN, and even there, only the first letter is examined.

No huge green snake will confront you, and even the pirate, who swoops down to protect his treasure at some point, is beyond your control. He steals back the treasure after you have found it, and the problem continues: find the treasure again, and find your way out of the cave. To make it more interesting, various passages open and close according to your progress through the game.

One limitation which Quest and Adventure share is that they never change. Once you know how to get past the snake, you always know, and once you can find the treasure, you always know where it is. A friend of mine has suggested having earthquakes, which open and close passages at random. It seems to me, however, that that simply makes a bigger problem of the same kind, and I would rather have different problems. In that respect, both Adventure and Quest are very limited.

In a closer approach to the electric novel, there would be no guarantee that the problems can really be solved. In a Star Trek game, for instance, the fate of the Enterprise depends on the random number generator,

which can set the starship down in the same quadrant with four Klingon commanders and two super commanders, or cause all the starbases to be overrun by a plague of tribbles. In Adventure and Quest, as in crossword puzzles, the solution is part of the problem definition, and you know it exists.

It is possible in Adventure to do something which will ruin your chance for success. For instance, if you feed the bird to the snake, you will never get past the problem to which the bird is the solution. However, this doesn't change the basic limitation.

An important part of both games is the descriptions of the locations. These are of course not created by the computer, but were elaborated over a long period by the programmer and his friends. The topology of the Quest cave could be more complex if the location descriptions were something like "YOU'RE AT LOCATION 28. NOW WHAT?", but that would spoil a good part of the game. The descriptions in Quest have been worked out very carefully. Some of them are just for fun, and some of them have hints about the neighborhood.

Scoring

The original version of Quest had no scoring at all, to minimize the competitive situations I thought might develop. The children who used it soon said that they wanted points. My own cynical analysis suggests that they don't know whether or not they're having fun unless they keep score, but perhaps there is simply a need in all of us to track our progress in a quantitative way. In any case, Quest now awards you one point for each location that you visit, plus up to 25 for the various checkpoints you pass along the way. In this version you can get up to 66 points.

Playing Time

Many people who play Adventure find that it takes them about two weeks of serious study to get through. The corresponding time for Quest is about two hours, although it has been done in an hour, and some people haven't finished after a day of frustrating search!

The Program

Quest was written for the PET 2001, and used some features of the PET to reduce the size of the program. The version given here has been rewritten in a simpler dialect of BASIC, which I believe will run with minor

Text continued on page 186

Listing 2: Game of Quest in BASIC.

```
 1  REM QUEST    BY ROGER CHAFFEE
 2  REM INSPIRED BY WILL CROWTHER'S "ADVENTURE"
 3  REM COPYRIGHT(C) 1978
 4  REM    PENINSULA SCHOOL, MENLO PARK, CA
 5  REM    PERMISSION TO USE, NOT TO SELL
 6  REM THE ORIGINAL VERSION OF THIS PROGRAM WAS WRITTEN ON A
 7  REM COMMODORE PET 2001.  THIS VERSION HAS BEEN CONSIDERABLY
 8  REM RECODED, AND IS IN "PLAIN VANILLA" BASIC, WITH THE
 9  REM EXCEPTION OF THE RANDOM NUMBER GENERATOR IN LINES
10  REM 6600-6800, THE STRING MANIPULATION, AND THE IF ... THEN
11  REM STATEMENTS WHICH GIVE A STATEMENT TO PERFORM INSTEAD OF
12  REM A STATEMENT NUMBER TO GO TO.
13  REM VARIABLES USED
14  REM    N NODE (CAVE) NUMBER
15  REM    M0   MOVE COUNTER
16  REM    T    CURRENT LOCATION OF TREASURE (-1 FOR CARRYING)
17  REM    T1,T2 FIRST AND SECOND HIDING PLACES (NODE NUMBERS)
18  REM    M6   SAVES THE MOVE NUMBER WHEN HE SAID NO, HE DIDNT
19  REM         WANT TO TAKE THE TREASURE WITH HIM.
20  REM    M    MAP OF INTERCONNECTIONS.
21  REM           M(I,J) IS NEXT NODE FROM NODE J, WHEN YOU GO
22  REM              N,E,U,D,W,S FOR I=1,2,3,4,5,6
23  REM
24  REM                        BOUNCES
25  REM        TO GO TO NODE -2 MEANS BOUNCE BACK TO THE NODE YOU
26  REM           CAME FROM.
27  REM
28  REM                        FORCED AND/OR RANDOM MOVES
29  REM        M(1,N)=-2 MEANS A FORCED MOVE AS SOON AS YOU REACH
30  REM        NODE N.  IN THAT CASE, M(2,N) OF THE TIME YOU GO
31  REM        TO NODE M(3,N).  IF YOU DON'T GO THERE,  M(4,N)
32  REM        OF THE TIME YOU GO TO NODE (5,N), AND THE REST OF
33  REM        THE TIME YOU GO TO NODE (6,N).
34  REM
```

Listing 2 continued on page 180

Listing 2 continued from page 179:

```
 35  REM                          NODES > 100:
 36  REM         NODE N+100 MEANS NODE N IF YOU DON'T HAVE THE
 37  REM         TREASURE, AND NODE N+1 IF YOU DO.
 38  REM         NODE N+200 MEANS NODE N+1 IF YOU HAVE THE TREASURE
 39  REM         THE SECOND TIME, AND NODE N OTHERWISE.
 40  REM         NODE N+500 MEANS RUN THROUGH A DELAY LOOP AND THEN
 41  REM         GO TO NODE N. THIS IS USED FOR FALLING DOWN THE
 42  REM         EXIT CHUTE,  AND YOU MAY WANT TO ADJUST THE DELAY
 43  REM         TIME (LINE 6250).
 44  REM
 45  REM     Q$  INPUT STRING
 46  REM     A$  CHARACTERS TO MATCH IN THE INPUT ROUTINE
 47  REM     A2  NUMBER OF CHARACTERS IN A$
 48  REM     A1   OUTPUT FROM THE INPUT ROUTINE
 49  REM     P    PIRATE FLAG  1 IF PIRATE HAS GOT YOU, 0 OTHERWISE
 50  REM     P1   COUNTER FOR PIRATE ROUTINE
 51  REM     N9   SAVES OLD NODE IN MOVE ROUTINE, FOR BOUNCE
 52  REM     N8   SAVES NODE WE BOUNCED FROM IN MOVE ROUTINE,
 53  REM             FOR PRINT FLAG
 54  REM     N0   SAVES OLD NODE IN MOVE ROUTINE, FOR DEAD END
 55  REM     A0   SAVES OLD DIRECTION IN MOVE ROUTINE
 56  REM     D    DEBUG FLAG (NON-ZERO TO PRINT)
 57  REM     I,J MISC. COUNTERS
 58  REM     W    TRAVEL FLAG, USED IN SCORING. W(I)=1 IF HE'S
 59  REM          BEEN TO NODE I, 0 OTHERWISE
 60  REM     S    SCORE
 61  REM     M9   MAXIMUM NUMBER OF NODES
 80  D=0
100  REM ------------------------------------------------------------
110  REM GIVE 'EM SOMETHING TO READ WHILE I GET THE DATABASE SET UP
120  PRINT "               QUEST"
130  PRINT
140  PRINT "YOU WERE WALKING THROUGH THE"
150  PRINT "WOODS, AND YOU CAME ACROSS THE ENTRANCE"
160  PRINT "OF A CAVE, COVERED WITH BRUSH."
170  PRINT
180  PRINT "PEOPLE SAY THAT MANY YEARS AGO A"
190  PRINT "PIRATE HID HIS TREASURE IN THESE"
200  PRINT "WOODS, BUT NO ONE HAS EVER FOUND IT."
210  PRINT "IT MAY STILL BE HERE, FOR ALL I KNOW."
400  READ M9,T1,T2
490  REM DIMENSION OF W, M IS M9, IF YOU HAVE DYNAMIC ASSIGNMENT
500  DIM W(42),M(6,42)
510  REM READ MAP INTO M ARRAY
520     FOR I=1 TO M9
530        READ N
540        IF I=N THEN 570
550           PRINT "DATABASE PROBLEM"I,N
560           STOP
570        FOR J=1 TO 6
580           READ M(J,I)
590        NEXT J
600     NEXT I
900  PRINT
905  PRINT "WHEN YOU  ANSWER A QUESTION, I LOOK AT"
906  PRINT "ONLY THE  FIRST LETTER, ALTHOUGH YOU CAN"
907  PRINT "TYPE THE WHOLE WORD IF YOU WANT."
920  GOSUB 7500
1000 REM ------------------------------------------------------------
1010 N=5
1020 M0=0
1030 M6=0
1040 T=T1
1050 P=0
1060 P1=0
1070 FOR J=1 TO M9
1080    W(J)=0
1090 NEXT J
1100 PRINT
1110 REM DESCRIBE
1120    GOSUB 8000
1400 REM ------------------------------------------------------------
1405 REM                 MAIN LOOP STARTS HERE
1410 REM COUNT MOVES
1420    M0=M0+1
1430 REM MOVE
1440    GOSUB 6000
1450 REM CHECK FOR FINDING THE TREASURE
1460    GOSUB 2000
```

```
1470  REM TRY THE PIRATE
1480     GOSUB 4000
1490  REM LOOP UNLESS FINISHED
1500     IF T>0 THEN 1400
1510     IF N<>5 THEN 1400
1700  REM CALCULATE SCORE
1710     GOSUB 3000
1720     PRINT
1730     PRINT "CONGRATULATIONS! YOU GOT THE TREASURE"
1740     PRINT "OUT IN";M0;
1750     PRINT "MOVES AND YOU GOT"S+10"POINTS!"
1760     PRINT "WANT TO HUNT AGAIN? ";
1770     A$="YN"
1771     A2=2
1780     GOSUB 5000
1790     ON A1 GO TO 2000,9999,1760
2000  REM ----------------------------------------------------------
2010  REM FOUND?
2100  IF T<>N THEN RETURN
2110  IF T<0 THEN RETURN
2120  IF M6+5>M0 THEN RETURN
2200  PRINT "DO YOU WANT TO TAKE IT WITH YOU? ";
2210  A$="YN"
2220  A2=2
2230  GOSUB 5000
2240  ON A1 GO TO 2300,2400
2250  PRINT "WELL?...."
2260  GO TO 2210
2300  T=-1
2310  PRINT
2320  PRINT "OK, LETS GET OUT OF HERE!"
2330  RETURN
2400  PRINT
2410  PRINT "WE'LL LEAVE IT HERE AND YOU CAN EXPLORE"
2420  PRINT "SOME MORE."
2430  M6=M0
2440  RETURN
3000  REM ----------------------------------------------------------
3010  REM                    SCORE
3020  S=0
3030  IF T=-1 THEN S=S+5
3040  IF P=1 THEN S=S+10
3050  FOR J=2 TO M9
3060     S=S+W(J)
3070  NEXT J
3080  RETURN
4000  REM ----------------------------------------------------------
4010  REM                    PIRATE
4020  IF N=T2 THEN RETURN
4030  IF P=1 THEN RETURN
4040  IF T1=T2 THEN RETURN
4050  IF T<>-1 THEN RETURN
4060     REM HES AT THE EXIT WITH THE TREASURE. ZAP HIM.
4065     REM (ARRGH. HOW DID HE GET HERE, ANYWAY?)
4070        IF N=16 THEN P=160
4080     REM COUNT MOVES SINCE HITTING TIGHT TUNNEL WITH TREASURE
4090        IF P1>0 THEN P1=P1+1
4100        IF N=3 THEN P1=P1+1
4110     REM GIVE HIM A FEW MORE MOVES, THEN ZAP HIM
4120        IF P1<15 THEN RETURN
4130           PRINT
4140           PRINT"SUDDENLY THE PIRATE LEAPS OUT OF THE"
4150           PRINT"GLOOM AND GRABS THE TREASURE FROM YOU!"
4160           PRINT"'HAH!', HE SHOUTS, 'YOU FOUND MY"
4170           PRINT"TREASURE, DID YOU?!  WELL, I'LL HIDE"
4180           PRINT"IT BETTER THIS TIME!'"
4190           PRINT"AND HE DISAPPEARS INTO THE DARKNESS"
4200           PRINT"WITH THE TREASURE."
4210           P=1
4220           T=T2
4230  RETURN
5000  REM ----------------------------------------------------------
5010  REM                    INPUT
5020  REM FIRST CHARACTER OF A1 INPUT STRING IS COMPARED WITH
5030  REM THE LETTERS OF A$, AND IF THERE IS A MATCH, THE INDEX
5040  REM IN A$ IS RETURNED IN A1. IF NO MATCH, SIZE(A$)+1 IS
5050  REM RETURNED.
5060  REM GET INPUT STRING
5070  INPUT Q$
```

Listing 2 continued on page 182

Listing 2 continued from page 181:

```
5080  REM USE ONLY FIRST CHARACTER
5090    Q$ = LST(Q$,1)
5100  REM SEARCH FOR THE CHARACTER Q$ IN THE STRING A$. IN THIS VERSION
5110  REM OF BASIC, NDX IS THE INDEX FUNCTION, WHICH DOES EXACTLY THAT.
5120     A1=NDX(A$,Q$)
5130  REM BUT CHECK FOR THE CASE WHERE THE CHARACTER WAS NOT FOUND
5140     IF A1=0 THEN A1=A2+1
5145  RETURN
5150  REM IF YOUR VERSION OF BASIC DOESN-T HAVE THE NDX FUNCTION, BUT
5160  REM DOES, FOR INSTANCE, HAVE A FUNCTION WHICH WILL PICK A
5170  REM PARTICULAR CHARACTER FROM A STRING, SUCH AS MID(A$,A2,1)
5180  REM PICKING THE A2-TH CHARACTER FROM A$, YOU MIGHT USE THE
5190  REM FOLLOWING CODE.
5200  REM     FOR A1=1 TO A2
5210  REM        IF Q$=MID(A$,A1,1) THEN RETURN
5220  REM     NEXT A1
5230  REM     A1=A2+1
5240  REM     RETURN
6000  REM ------------------------------------------------------------
6010  REM                 MOVE
6020  REM REMEMBER WHERE WE ARE, FOR BOUNCE.
6030     N9=N
6040  REM SET N8 TO ANYTHING BUT YOU CANT GO THAT WAY
6050     N8=0
6060  REM ASK WHICH WAY
6070     GOSUB 7000
6080  REM REMEMBER WHERE WE ARE, UNLESS A DEAD END
6090     IF N=1 THEN 6120
6100        N0=N
6110        A0=A1
6120  PRINT
6130  I=M(A1,N)
6200  IF I=-2 THEN I=N9
6210  IF D<>0 THEN PRINT '                DEBUG';N;'TO';I
6220  IF I<500 THEN 6300
6230     REM DELAY LOOP TO WASTE SOME TIME
6240        I=I-500
6250        FOR J=0 TO 100
6260        NEXT J
6270     GO TO 6200
6300  ON I/100 GO TO 6340,6370
6310     REM NORMAL ROUTE--LESS THAN 100
6320        N=I
6330        GO TO 6400
6340     REM N+100. ADD ONE IF CARRYING THE TREASURE
6350        N=I-100
6355        IF T=-1 THEN N=N+1
6360        GO TO 6400
6370     REM N+200. ADD 1 IF CARRYING TREASURE THE SECOND TIME
6380        N=I-200
6390        IF T=-1 THEN N=N+P
6400  IF N<>1 THEN 6500
6410     REM DEAD END.  TURN IT SO YOU GET OUT THE OTHER WAY
6420        FOR J=1 TO 6
6430           M(J,N)=2
6440        NEXT J
6450        M(7-A0,N)=N0
6500  REM PRINT OUT THE NODE DESCRIPTION
6510     IF N8<>2 THEN GOSUB 8000
6520  REM REMEMBER WEVE BEEN HERE
6530     W(N)=1
6540     N8=N
6600  IF M(1,N)<>-2 THEN 6800
6610     REM FORCED MOVE, WITH RANDOM DESTINATIONS
6620     REM ON THIS VERSION OF BASIC, J=-1 FOLLOWED BY RND(J)
6630     REM GETS YOU A NUMBER BETWEEN ZERO AND ONE.
6640     REM YOUR VERSION WILL DIFFER, AND THE NEXT FIVE
6650     REM LINES WILL HAVE TO BE CHANGED.
6660        I=M(6,N)
6670        J=-1
6680        IF M(4,N) > 100*RND(J) THEN I=M(5,N)
6690        J=-1
6700        IF M(2,N) > 100*RND(J) THEN I=M(3,N)
6710     IF D<>0 THEN PRINT '                DEBUG BOUNCE TO';I
6720     REM NOW HAVE A NEW DESTINATION.  GO BACK AND REDO IT
6730        GO TO 6200
6800  RETURN
7000  REM ------------------------------------------------------------
7010  REM              WHICH WAY?
```

Listing 2 continued on page 184

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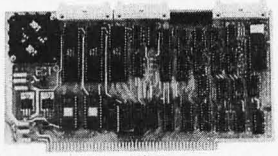

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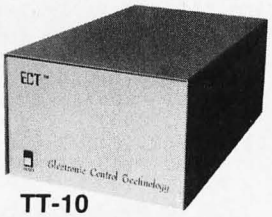

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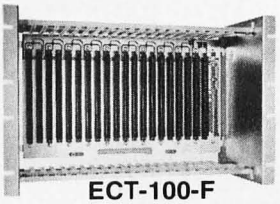

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Listing 2 continued from page 182:

```
7100  PRINT
7110  PRINT "                        WHICH WAY? ";
7120  A$="NEUDWSP"
7130  A2=7
7140  GOSUB 5000
7150  IF A1<8  THEN 7300
7160     PRINT "WHICH WAY DO YOU WANT TO GO?"
7170     REM GIVE INSTRUCTIONS
7180        GOSUB 7500
7190     REM DESCRIBE THE LOCATION AGAIN
7200        GOSUB 8000
7210     GO TO 7100
7300  IF A1<7 THEN 7400
7310     REM CALCULATE AND PRINT SCORE
7320        GOSUB 3000
7330        PRINT "YOU HAVE"S"POINTS!"
7340     REM START AGAIN
7350        GO TO 7100
7400  RETURN
7500  REM ------------------------------------------------------------
7510  REM      SUBROUTINE TO GIVE INSTRUCTIONS
7520     PRINT
7530     PRINT "TYPE N,S,E,W,U, OR D FOR NORTH, SOUTH,"
7550     PRINT "EAST,WEST, UP OR DOWN.  TYPE P FOR SCORE"
7560     PRINT
7570     RETURN
8000  REM ------------------------------------------------------------
8010  REM DESCRIBE THE CURRENT LOCATION
8050     I=INT(N/5)
8060     J=N-5*I+1
8070     REM THERE ARE ENOUGH STATEMENT NUMBERS HERE TO HANDLE NODES
8080     REM ZERO THROUGH 49.  YOU WILL HAVE TO ADD MORE IF YOU ADD
8090     REM NODES 50 AND BEYOND.
8100     ON I+1 GO TO 8200,8210,8220,8230,8240,8250,8260,8270,8280,8290
8200        ON J GO TO 9000,9010,9020,9030,9040
8210        ON J GO TO 9050,9060,9070,9080,9090
8220        ON J GO TO 9100,9110,9120,9130,9140
8230        ON J GO TO 9150,9160,9170,9180,9190
8240        ON J GO TO 9200,9210,9220,9230,9240
8250        ON J GO TO 9250,9260,9270,9280,9290
8260        ON J GO TO 9300,9310,9320,9330,9340
8270        ON J GO TO 9350,9360,9370,9380,9390
8280        ON J GO TO 9400,9410,9420,9430,9440
8290        ON J GO TO 9450,9460,9470,9480,9490
8400     IF T<>N THEN 8500
8410        PRINT
8420        PRINT "THE TREASURE IS HERE!"
8500     IF T<>T2 THEN 8600
8510     IF T1=T2 THEN 8600
8520     IF T1<>N THEN 8600
8530        PRINT
8540        PRINT "A NOTE ON THE WALL SAYS"
8550        PRINT "  'PIRATES NEVER LEAVE THEIR TREASURE"
8560        PRINT "   TWICE IN THE SAME PLACE!"
8600     RETURN
9000  REM ------------------------------------------------------------
9001  REM FIRST DATA STATEMENT IS NUMBER OF NODES, AND THE 2
9002  REM HIDING PLACES FOR THE TREASURE.
9003  DATA 42,23,12
9010  DATA 1,0,0,0,0,0,0
9011     PRINT "YOU'RE AT A DEAD END!"
9012     GO TO 8400
9020  DATA 2,-2,101,-2,0,0,0
9021     PRINT "YOU CAN'T GO IN THAT DIRECTION"
9022     PRINT
9023     GO TO 8400
9030  DATA 3,33,2,1,10,106,4
9031     PRINT "A TUNNEL GOES NORTH-SOUTH."
9032     PRINT "THERE IS AN OPENING TO THE WEST."
9037     GO TO 8400
9040  DATA 4,3,30,2,11,2,1
9041     PRINT "YOU'RE ON THE BRINK OF A PIT."
9047     GO TO 8400
9050  DATA 5,8,8,15,10,8,16
9051     PRINT "YOU'RE OUTSIDE THE CAVE."
9052     PRINT "GO SOUTH TO ENTER."
9053     GO TO 8400
9060  DATA 6,16,3,2,10,2,2
9061     PRINT "YOU'RE AT THE HOME OF THE GNOME-KING."
9062     PRINT "FORTUNATELY, HE'S GONE FOR THE DAY"
9067     GO TO 8400
9070  DATA 7,-2,101,-2,0,0,0
```

```
9071     PRINT "THE GNOME KING IS HERE!"
9072     PRINT "YOU'D BETTER GET OUT!"
9073     PRINT
9077     GO TO 8400
9080  DATA 8,18,18,15,10,18,9
9081     PRINT "YOU'RE LOST IN THE WOODS."
9087     GO TO 8400
9090  DATA 9,-2,33,5,1,0,-2
9097     GO TO 8400
9100  DATA 10,-2,101,-2,0,0,0
9101     PRINT "YOU'RE NOT GOING TO GET FAR, DIGGING"
9102     PRINT "THROUGH ROCK."
9103     PRINT
9107     GO TO 8400
9110  DATA 11,1,13,4,2,1,2
9111     PRINT "YOU'RE AT THE BOTTOM OF A PIT. A LITTLE"
9112     PRINT "STREAM FLOWS OVER THE ROCKS HERE."
9117     GO TO 8400
9120  DATA 12,36,2,1,2,1,2
9121     PRINT "YOU'RE AT A DEAD END!"
9127     GO TO 8400
9130  DATA 13,2,37,2,1,11,14
9131     PRINT "YOU'RE AT A WIDE SPOT.  THERE IS A"
9132     PRINT "SOOTY PATCH WHERE SOMEBODY HAS RESTED"
9133     PRINT "A TORCH AGAINST THE WALL.  THERE ARE"
9134     PRINT "JAGGED ROCKS ABOVE YOU."
9137     GO TO 8400
9140  DATA 14,13,1,19,2,31,31
9141     PRINT "YOU'RE IN A CANYON. HIGH ON THE WALL"
9142     PRINT "ABOVE YOU IS SCRATCHED THE MESSAGE"
9143     PRINT "     'BILBO WAS HERE'"
9147     GO TO 8400
9150  DATA 15,-2,101,-2,0,0,0
9151     PRINT "YOU'RE NOT A BIRD. YOU CAN'T FLY!"
9152     PRINT
9157     GO TO 8400
9160  DATA 16,5,33,2,10,1,106
9161     PRINT "YOU'RE IN A LOW CHAMBER. A TIGHT TUNNEL"
9162     PRINT "GOES EAST, AND YOU CAN WALK TO THE"
9163     PRINT "SOUTH OR WEST. THERE IS LIGHT"
9164     PRINT "TO THE NORTH."
9167     GO TO 8400
9170  DATA 17,-2,101,-2,0,0,0
9171     PRINT "IT'S A TIGHT SQUEEZE. YOU CAN'T"
9172     PRINT "GET PAST WITH THE TREASURE."
9173     PRINT
9177     GO TO 8400
9180  DATA 18,-2,101,8,0,0,0
9181     PRINT "I DON'T THINK YOU CAN FIND THE CAVE."
9187     GO TO 8400
9190  DATA 19,224,2,2,14,1,42
9191     PRINT "YOU'RE AT THE  TOP OF A CLIMB."
9192     PRINT "BELOW YOU A MESSAGE SAYS"
9193     PRINT "    'BILBO WAS HERE'"
9197     GO TO 8400
9200  DATA 20,226,1,2,2,25,2
9201     PRINT "YOU'RE AT THE NORTH SIDE OF A CHASM,"
9202     PRINT "TOO WIDE TO JUMP.  RINGING ECHOES FROM"
9203     PRINT "BELOW ARE THE ONLY INDICATION OF DEPTH."
9207     GO TO 8400
9210  DATA 21,1,226,2,2,38,25
9211     PRINT "YOU'RE IN XANADU. BELOW YOU"
9212     PRINT "ALPH, THE SACRED RIVER RUNS"
9213     PRINT "THROUGH CAVERNS MEASURELESS TO MAN,"
9214     PRINT "DOWN TO A SUNLESS SEA."
9217     GO TO 8400
9220  DATA 22,-2,33,13,50,29,30
9227     GO TO 8400
9230  DATA 23,2,1,2,31,2,2
9231     PRINT "YOU'RE ON THE LEDGE ABOVE THE GUILLOTINE ROOM."
9237     GO TO 8400
9240  DATA 24,-2,101,19,0,0,0
9241     PRINT "I HEAR THE GIANT THERE!!!"
9242     PRINT "YOU'D BETTER GO BACK!"
9243     PRINT
9247     GO TO 8400
9250  DATA 25,21,20,2,2,1,19
9251     PRINT "YOU'RE IN THE GIANT'S CAVERN.  BETTER"
9252     PRINT "NOT BE HERE WHEN THE GIANT COMES!"
9257     GO TO 8400
9260  DATA 26,-2,65,-2,50,11,14
9261     PRINT "YOU'RE IN THE QUEST RESEARCH AND"
```

Listing 2 continued on page 186

Circle 206 on inquiry card.

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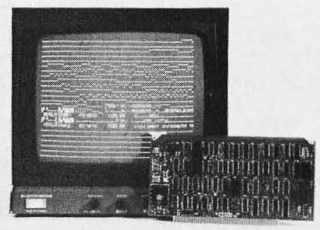

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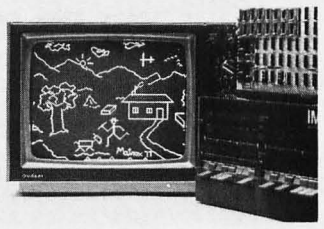

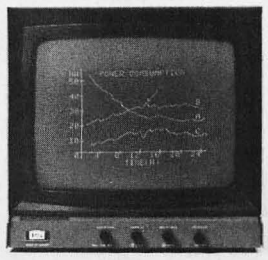

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Listing 2 continued from page 185:

```
9262     PRINT "DEVELOPMENT AREA."
9263     PRINT
9264     PRINT "I'M SORRY, BUT VISITORS ARE NOT"
9265     PRINT "ALLOWED.  YOU'LL HAVE TO LEAVE."
9266     PRINT
9267     GO TO 8400
9270  DATA 27,2,40,2,2,21,20
9271     PRINT "YOU'RE IN THE CRYSTAL PALACE. THE"
9272     PRINT "WALLS RESONATE WITH"
9273     PRINT "AWESOME MUSIC."
9280  DATA 28,-2,60,221,50,14,19
9287     GO TO 8400
9290  DATA 29,2,42,2,13,1,1
9291     PRINT "YOU'RE AT THE  TOP OF A GIANT STALACTITE."
9292     PRINT "YOU COULD SLIDE DOWN, BUT YOU COULDN'T"
9293     PRINT "CLIMB BACK UP."
9297     GO TO 8400
9300  DATA 30,34,34,2,1,4,2
9301     PRINT "YOU'RE IN A LITTLE GROTTO. THERE IS A"
9302     PRINT "BOOK HERE CALLED JANE'S FIGHTING SHIPS,"
9303     PRINT "DATED 1763."
9307     GO TO 8400
9310  DATA 31,14,14,23,2,1,2
9311     PRINT "YOU'RE IN THE GUILLOTINE ROOM. A SHARP"
9312     PRINT "ROCK BALANCES PRECARIOUSLY ON THE"
9313     PRINT "LEDGE ABOVE YOU."
9317     GO TO 8400
9320  DATA 32,-2,101,516,0,0,0
9321     PRINT "YOU'RE IN A CHUTE, SCRAMBLING DOWN THE"
9322     PRINT "ROCKS! NO WAY TO STOP! HANG ON!"
9323     PRINT
9327     GO TO 8400
9330  DATA 33,2,1,2,1,116,3
9331     PRINT "THE TIGHT TUNNEL TURNS A CORNER."
9332     GO TO 8400
9340  DATA 34,1,35,2,1,30,30
9341     PRINT "YOU'RE IN A LITTLE TWISTY MAZE"
9347     GO TO 8400
9350  DATA 35,2,1,2,37,34,36
9351     PRINT "YOU'RE IN A LITTLE TWISTING MAZE"
9357     GO TO 8400
9360  DATA 36,35,2,1,37,34,12
9361     PRINT "YOU'RE IN A TWISTING LITTLE MAZE"
9367     GO TO 8400
9370  DATA 37,2,1,35,2,13,2
9371     PRINT "YOU'RE IN A TWISTY LITTLE MAZE"
9377     GO TO 8400
9380  DATA 38,2,21,2,116,1,2
9381     PRINT "YOU'RE IN A PREHISTORIC DWELLING. ON"
9382     PRINT "THE WALL ARE DRAWINGS OF BISON DONE IN"
9383     PRINT "RED CLAY. THE FLOOR IS STREWN WITH"
9384     PRINT "BONES, THE REMAINS OF ANCIENT RITUALS."
9385     PRINT "A SMALL TUNNEL GOES THROUGH THE FLOOR."
9387     GO TO 8400
9390  DATA 39,2,40,2,32,21,26
9391     PRINT "YOU'RE IN A BLACK HOLE.  THE"
9392     PRINT "FORCE OF GRAVITY IS OVERWHELMING."
9397     GO TO 8400
9400  DATA 40,40,40,2,2,40,41
9401     PRINT "YOU'RE IN THE LABYRINTHE"
9407     GO TO 8400
9410  DATA 41,40,40,40,2,40,39
9411     PRINT "YOU'RE IN THE LABYRINTHE"
9412     PRINT "IT'S VERY DARK IN HERE."
9417     GO TO 8400
9420  DATA 42,28,28,28,28,28,28
9421     PRINT "YOU'RE IN THE ASHRAM.  INCENSE IS HEAVY"
9422     PRINT "IN THE AIR, AND ALL DIRECTIONS"
9423     PRINT "SEEM THE SAME."
9427     GO TO 8400
9430  REM NO NODES SET UP FOR THESE VALUES.  IF YOU GET HERE,
9440  REM YOU HAVE A MISTAKE IN A DATA STATEMENT.
9450  REM
9460  REM
9470  REM
9480  REM
9490  REM
9500  REM
9510  REM
9520  REM
9530  REM
9999  END
```

Text continued from page 179:

modifications on most machines which have enough memory to hold it. The number of locations has been increased slightly, and a few surprises have been added to make it more interesting. The original Quest was made for seventh-graders at Peninsula School, who were doing a map making unit. For this reason, most of the connections between locations work as if they were in physical three-dimensional space, although there is no requirement for this in the program.

The program and the description of the cave are well documented by the comments in the code, so I won't go into great detail here. Besides its description, each location has a set of six numbers which give the next location to move to, in case of a move NORTH, EAST, UP, DOWN, WEST, or SOUTH. Special events, such as the pirate and the treasure, are done in the program rather than in the descriptions. There is a provision in the connection codes for an immediate return to the location you came from, which is used, for instance, at the location called "YOU CAN'T GO IN THAT DIRECTION." There is also provision for different connections chosen according to a random number, and for different connections depending on whether or not you are carrying the treasure, and whether or not the pirate has found you.

A Final Statement

It is possible to get through the cave by reading the program and decoding the data which defines the connections. If you do that, you will deprive yourself of the pleasure of finally finding your way through. It is also possible to "help" a friend by telling him how to get through. I don't think the easy pleasure of knowing how to get through can equal the joy of discovering the way, or the satisfaction of having discovered it, or the excitement of being on the way to discovering it. I also don't think that anyone who merely plays Quest can have as much fun as I have had in writing it, and watching other people use it.

Acknowledgments

My thanks go to Larry Tesler and Phyllis Cole, of the Peninsula School Computer Project, for their encouragement and technical help, and to Mary Artibee for her help with this article. A tape of the PET version of Quest is available for $9.95 from the Peninsula School Computing Project, Menlo Park CA 94025.■

Book Reviews

Techniques of Program Structure and Design

by Edward Yourdon
Prentice-Hall, 1975
364 pages hardbound
$19.50

As you might surmise from the title, this textbook promotes structured programming, design, and testing concepts. Although familiarity with current hardware, systems, or software doctrines is not a prerequisite for reader comprehension, the greatest benefits will accrue to those individuals active in software development or maintenance efforts.

The book's tone and structure are established in the first chapter with a discussion of the seven most desirable qualities of a good program. The program should work well and according to specification; the simplicity of design should reduce development, testing, and maintenance costs; and the program's inherent flexibility should allow change through expansion, modification, or upgrade.

Of perhaps more importance to the average programmer is the analysis of ten practices which commonly exacerbate the debugging problem. Also included are suggestions for easing the difficulties of maintaining or modifying existing programs for the maintenance programmer.

The next chapter deals with top-down design, coding, and testing. Top-down design is the process by which the programmer identifies the major functions of a programming problem, and organizes the solution in such a manner that it is recognizable to both the computer and the maintenance programmer.

Mr Yourdon provides five suggestions for successfully applying this concept. The benefits and disadvantages of flowcharts figure prominently in the arguments for and against the concept of writing code concurrently with designing the top-down structure. An offshoot of this discussion of top-down coding concerns how best to display modular code: the horizontal and vertical approaches have unique merits which should be considered prior to presenting the code.

Following the presentation of the nature and advantages of top-down testing, the author deals with practical variations of the *pure approach* to top-down design, coding, and testing. These modifications are frequently the result of organizational problems and management compromises. Two of the most successful variations discussed are the IBM developed *structured walkthrough* technique and IBM's highly innovative *chief programmer team* concept.

In Chapter Three, the reader is introduced to the concept of modular programming (precursor to the now popular structured programming technique). After a discussion of the characteristics of a programming module, the pros and cons of modularity are detailed. Techniques for achieving modular programs are of particular interest, especially those sections dealing with decision tables, separate I/O (input/output) functions, and use of symbolic parameters. The chapter concludes with the closely related subject of general purpose subroutines.

After a review of the history and background of the structured programming movement, both the theoretical and practical aspects of the concept are detailed in Chapter Four. While analyzing structured programming's objectives and motivations (in terms of testing, productivity, clarity, and efficiency), Mr Yourdon highlights

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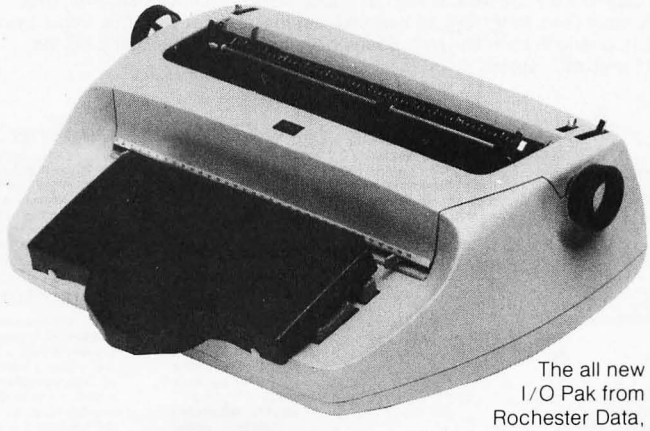

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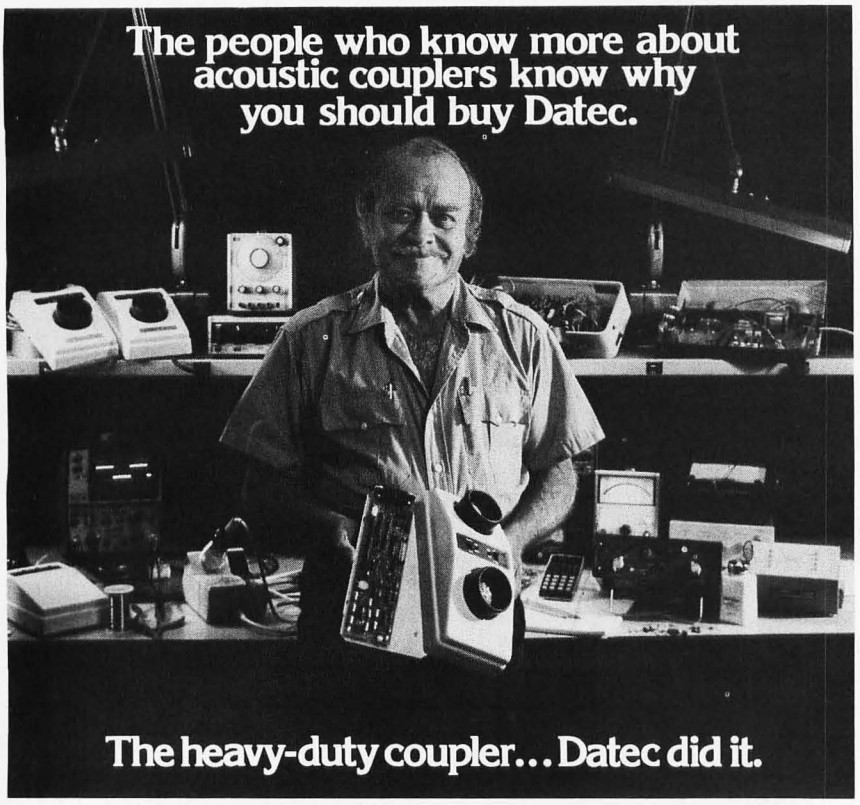

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significant differences between structured and modular approaches to program design. Although structured programming is becoming the standard method of achieving modular programs, the concept involves more than the simple conjunction of "GOTO-less" programming with the process, loop, and binary-decision constructs. As with most evolving techniques, there are tradeoffs in terms of efficiency, convenience, hardware and software requirements which concern many of those involved with computer science. The structured technique is not a panacea for programming ills.

Mr Yourdon has found that imposing structure upon poorly designed, unstructured programs usually results in poorly designed, GOTO-less, structured programs that are almost as difficult to understand and debug as the originals. As a result, he recommends that experienced programmers rework their previously unstructured code *only* as a means of bringing their thought processes into compliance with current top-down design concepts. There are three common techniques for restructuring this code, each with its own strengths and weaknesses: the *duplication-of-coding* technique which is recommended for programs with network or lattice structures; the *state-variable* technique which is helpful to the maintenance programmer and can be applied to very complex processing programs; and the *Boolean flag* technique which is applicable to loop-oriented programs.

The chapter concludes with a discussion of the applicability of structured programming to the currently available high level programming, systems implementation, and assembly languages. ALGOL, PL/I, COBOL, FORTRAN and assembly languages are covered quite extensively; PL/S, BLISS, PL/360, Burroughs B5500 ESPOL, Project MAC EPL, and GE-645 MULTICS languages are discussed in less detail. I noted with interest the author's claim that FORTRAN and assembly languages do not provide the necessary facilities for structured programming.

In Chapter Five, programming method, system software, and system hardware figure prominently in the discussion of the elements of programming style which dramatically affect the coding and debugging process. Of particular note are the questions concerning how to best reduce program complexity so as to limit the introduction of errors, and how to construct programs so that someone other than the original programmer can read and comprehend the logic flow.

The focal point of the next chapter is *defensive* programming — the practice of writing programs in such a way that the

inevitable bugs are readily noticeable to both programmer and user. Effective arguments are presented against the most common objections to this antibugging technique. Following the presentation of a comprehensive list of aspects of a computer program which require checking, the author summarizes nine useful error-checking techniques. Although many of the antibugging techniques belong more properly in the realm of system, rather than program design, the discussion is valid at both the programming and coding levels.

Testing is reviewed in Chapter Seven. The magnitude of this effort can reach staggering proportions on projects which utilize many programmers, large numbers of manhours, and vast segments of code. Current module, system, and acceptance testing techniques expose most common types of error. These errors are divided into eight categories: logic, documentation, overload, timing, throughput and capacity, fallback and recovery, system hardware/software, and standards errors.

It is Mr Yourdon's contention that a program is economical to test and debug only if the team programming concept is used in combination with an antibugging programming style and an unambiguous, structured language. Also, because programmers use slow, tedious methods and are psychologically inclined to justify their output as correct, he advocates the removal of the human element from the testing process. Ideally, the testing process would be fully automated: the automatic test harness would collect the test input from the automatic test data generator, pass it to the program being tested, and use an automatic output checker to list the discrepancies. Upon program execution, the automatic testing monitor would print a report showing the portions of the program exercised by the test data. The program would be subjected to a thorough retesting if it is further modified. The chapter concludes with a review of some of the experimental techniques currently being evaluated for their abilities to increase program reliability.

Once the existence of a bug has been established, it is time to employ the technique of finding and correcting the error, known as debugging. The procedure is more art than science, and in Chapter Eight the reader is provided with both an explanation for 26 common bugs and 11 detailed suggestions to assist in the formulation of a workable debugging strategy. A terminal-oriented debugging system greatly reduces the frustration of using memory dumps and program traces. The system is called DDT or Dynamic Debugging Technique. After describing the general features of the process, the author expands his explanation on the currently available stand alone and sophisticated timesharing and realtime packages. The chapter concludes with the implementation of a simple version of DDT.

The four programming exercises in the appendices illustrate the principles of program design and structured programming, and allow the reader to apply the techniques presented in the book to real problems. The two management system problems are quite complex and can best be attacked by a team of three to four programmers. The master file update and tic-tac-toe problems are more simple and are suitable for individual programmers.

This highly informative book is packed with information for both the commercial and personal aspects of programming. The book's heavy concentration on the general philosophy and techniques of good programming deserves the highest accolades. *Techniques of Program Structure and Design* should be a part of every dedicated computer user's library.

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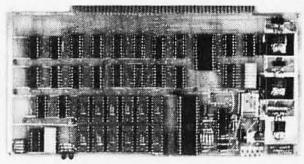

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Book Reviews

Top-down Structured Programming Techniques
by Clement L McGowan and John R Kelly
Mason/Charter Publishers
Brown University,
New York 1975
288 pages hardback
$15.95

This book provides a good introduction to the top-down structured programming concept. This concept requires, as a first step, that a problem's functional specifications be determined. The problem is then refined until that programming code directly expresses the resulting subfunctions, or modules. The authors believe that programmers who use the top-down structured methodology are more productive, and consistently produce a reliable product which works despite continuous testing or future modification. The book also details recent programming advances in the large system, multiprocessing environment.

Chapter 1 presents an overview of structured programming with an emphasis on the development of a language-independent methodology whose principal goal is program reliability. Of special interest is the section on the importance of developmental and modification software (in terms of time, cost, and reliability). Following a preview of the remaining chapters, the authors discuss their reason for illustrating programming concepts with code fragments in the PL/I language.

Chapter 2 emphasizes program reliability. The data processing industry spends a great amount of time and money to insure that programs are developed with as few flaws as possible. The current doctrine of testing programs for reliability is gradually giving way to a more efficient method of checking for correctness. Finally, the DO-WHILE construct is introduced by emphasizing the importance of properly initializing conditional loops, and explicit guidelines for programming conditional iterations are given.

In the next chapter, the SEQUENCE and IF-THEN-ELSE programming tools are discussed. Correctness questions, which the programmer should pose while using these constructs, are used as an aid in determining the functional specifications of the program. Program specifications must be determined prior to commencing the actual coding process because the authors consider inaccurate specifications to be the most important source of software errors. The ITERATIVE-DO, SELECT-CASE, REPEAT-UNTIL, and LOOP-EXITIF-ENDLOOP constructs are formed by combining the basic figures.

Unfortunately, the authors elect to leave the related correctness questions as an exercise for the reader, feeling that ". . .the reader is now sufficiently aware of the correctness considerations to properly examine his use of the nonbasic figure." Although the authors admit to writing for the computer professional, rather than the mathematician or newcomer to the computer field, I feel they did their readers a disservice. These correctness questions are vital (without them, the book suffers from a lack of comprehensiveness which limits its usefulness to both the salaried professional and computer hobbyist). Chapter 3 concludes with an interesting section on how to impose structure on programs written in FORTRAN and COBOL. The examples are illuminating.

The advantages of the top-down structured approach to program design, coding, and integration are discussed in Chapter 4. Top-down segmented implementation is compared (somewhat one-sidedly) with the more standard bottom-up strategy. Among the advantages discussed is the following: the effectiveness of top-down structured programming in eliminating construct errors (missing paths, inappropriate path selection, and inappropriate action under a given condition). The top-down method concentrates on the more time-consuming and error prone aspects of programming during the initial, rather than the final stages of development. A structured program has the advantage of becoming its own principal documentation. And the final advantage, especially associated with large systems pro-

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grams, is that integration and debugging are easier to implement under the top-down strategy. The programming technique of recursion is introduced in the concluding sections of the chapter.

The remaining two chapters and two appendices are of less interest to the computer hobbyist. Chapter 5 examines IBM's innovative "chief programmer team" organization and its managerial approach to the operation of software projects. Chapter 6 provides extended examples of the top-down structured approach to program design, with the primary focus on parallel processes (whereby several computations proceed either simultaneously on separate processors, or by multiprogramming on a single processor) and multiprocessing resource management. The chapter concludes with the specification and top-down design in pseudocode, of a hypothetical multiprogrammed, multiprocessing operating system. The REPEAT-UNTIL, SELECT-CASE, and LOOP-EXITIF-ENDLOOP structured modules are implemented in PL/I in Appendix A. In Appendix B, six of the seven structured programming constructs are specified in 360/370 assembly language macros.

As a result of the omission mentioned earlier, I have qualms about recommending this book as a mandatory reference resource. If you are interested in using structured techniques to increase your programming productivity and reliability, I would recommend that you get a copy of the book through a nearby college or computer club library and spend a few hours reading the material. I found the authors' style lucid, although on occasion I had difficulty following some of their examples due to my unfamiliarity with the PL/I language.

Overall, the book successfully presents the authors' contention that structured coding, top-down design, formal and informal proofs of correctness, chief programmer team organizations, and code reading result in reliable, flexible software. I fully concur with their belief that "...top-down structured programming is one way to make programming the enjoyable activity it should be."

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Ralph Owens
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The following are several functions which allow the user to manipulate individual bits and nybbles (groups of four bits) using BASIC. I like to use these functions with the PEEK and POKE commands.

Nybble functions	A contains the value of the byte. N contains the value of the nybble.
FNU(N)=INT(A/16)	Reads upper nybble.
FNL(N)=A−16*FNU(N)	Reads lower nybble.
FNA(N)=16*N+FNL(N)	Sets upper nybble to value of N.
FNB(N)=FNU(N)+N	Sets lower nybble to value of N.
Bit functions	A contains the value of the byte. N (0 thru 7) is number of desired bit.
FNQ(N)=INT(A/2↑N)−2*INT(A/2↑(N+1))	Reads Nth bit.
FNR(N)=A−FNQ(N)*2↑N	Resets Nth bit to zero.
FNS(N)=A+(1−FNQ(N))*2↑N	Sets Nth bit to one.
FNT(N)=FNR(N)+FNS(N)−A	Toggles the Nth bit.

Here are two examples of the use of these functions:

```
1000  REM FIND LOWER NYBBLE VALUE
1010  A=PEEK(16422)
1020  V= FNL(A)
1030  PRINT "VALUE OF LOWER NYBBLE
      IS"; V
9999  END

2010  A=PEEK(16422)
2020  REM SET EIGHTH BIT OF DECIMAL
2030  REM LOCATION 16422 TO ONE
2050  A= FNS(8)
2060  POKE 16422, A
9999  END ■
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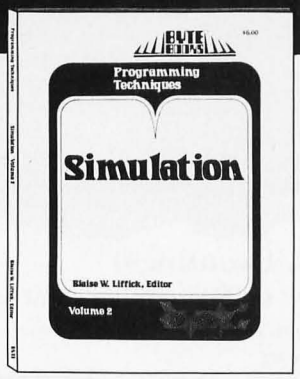

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Because of this, our industry has received a black eye, and many of us, BYTE included, are apparently out of substantial amounts of money. Acting on a tip received April 25, the Pima County Attorney's Office promptly investigated and, within a few days, had sufficient evidence of illegal activities to obtain warrants for the arrest of those responsible for the operation. An arrest was made, goods were seized and impounded, and others, who were out of Tucson at the time, are being sought by the authorities.

The question that all of us must be asking is "How can we prevent this from happening again?"

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In summary, there is no absolute protection in any industry against well-planned and well-executed frauds. Prompt communication between (1) consumers, (2) reputable companies, (3) the media, and (4) the authorities can nip poorly planned frauds in the bud and limit the damage that is done.

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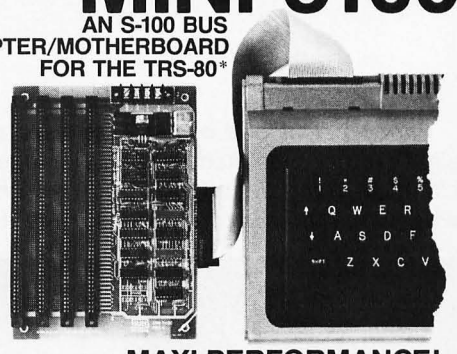

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Photo Essay: Physical Hardware of a New Computer Backplane

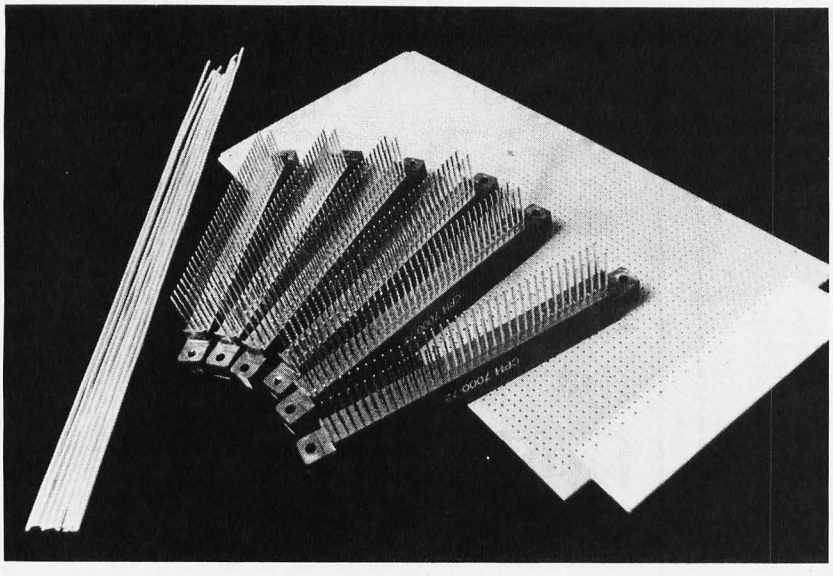
by Carl Helmers

As noted in a recent editorial, I am in the process of designing and building a new computer system based on the 6809 processor. It is my intention, as this design evolves, to provide a fairly complete set of plans in the form of an irregular series of articles in BYTE. The building and developing of the software systems of homebrew computers is, after all, the basis from which personal computing has developed. This series of articles will document the development of an up-to-date design that utilizes contemporary components which were unavailable to me when I first started building crude and imperfect homebrew computers in 1974.

The regularity of this documentation will be dependent upon the time that is available to engineer, build and test the component parts. I will try to provide an update on the progress of the project with each future issue of BYTE. From time to time there will be gaps in the series since, like all people, I have only 24 hours each day in which to work. Having issued this caveat concerning the irregularity of the information, let us turn to the starting point of my documentation; a physical basis for a bus oriented homebrew computer.

The following is documentation of a key part of any homebrew computer; its backplane. At this stage, the computer system is depicted in photographs 1 through 5, which I took while assembling the backplane on a recent evening. For the photographers among our readers, all these pictures were taken with a 35mm single lens reflex (SLR) camera, highly stopped down (f/32, f/22, depending on lens) to emphasize depth of field, and using lots of light (1200 W).

Photo 1: This pile of parts represents the beginning of the project's physical hardware assembly. At left is a set of eight copper rods made from #12 gauge household electrical wire. After stripping the insulation, one end of the wire is clamped in my bench vise, and the other end is clamped in "Vise-Grip" pliers. Five uniform, careful rotations of the wire while holding tension suffice to make the rods as straight as those shown in the photo. This torsion straightening process gives amazing results. These rods will be the bus wires of the power and ground distribution.



The matrix for assembly of the backplane is one Vector Electronic Co #3719—4 "P" pattern prototyping board. This board was chosen as standard for the new computer because it has a 0.1 inch (.254 mm) square grid consistent with integrated circuit sockets, and an identical 0.1 inch spacing for the edge connector sockets. Thus, the same board style that will be used for the assembly of the computer modules can also be used for assembly of this motherboard.

The final part that is going into the physical assembly of the backplane is a set of 6 edge connector sockets for the circuit modules. The sockets have 72 circuit connections in two rows of 36 pins.

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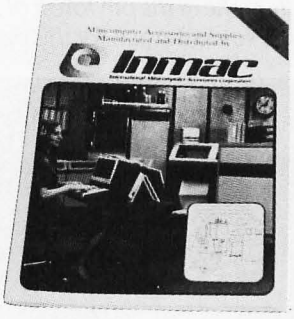

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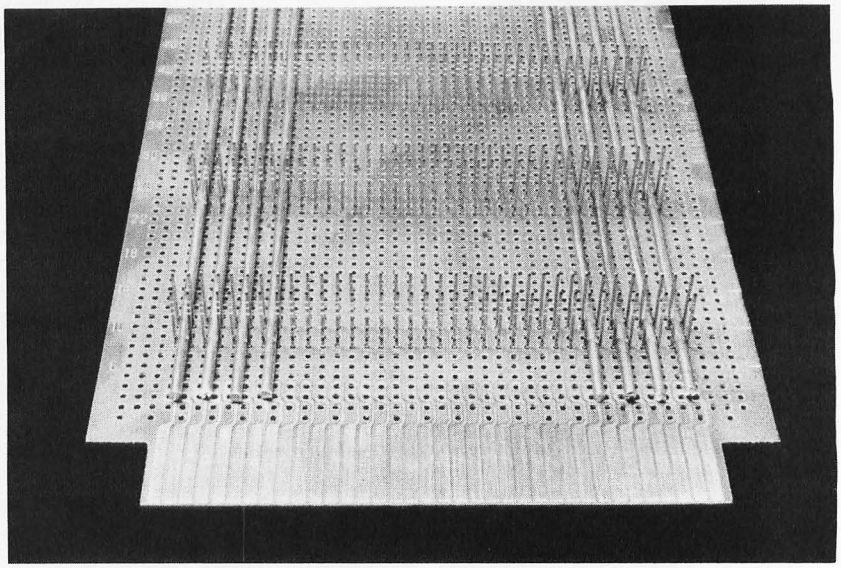


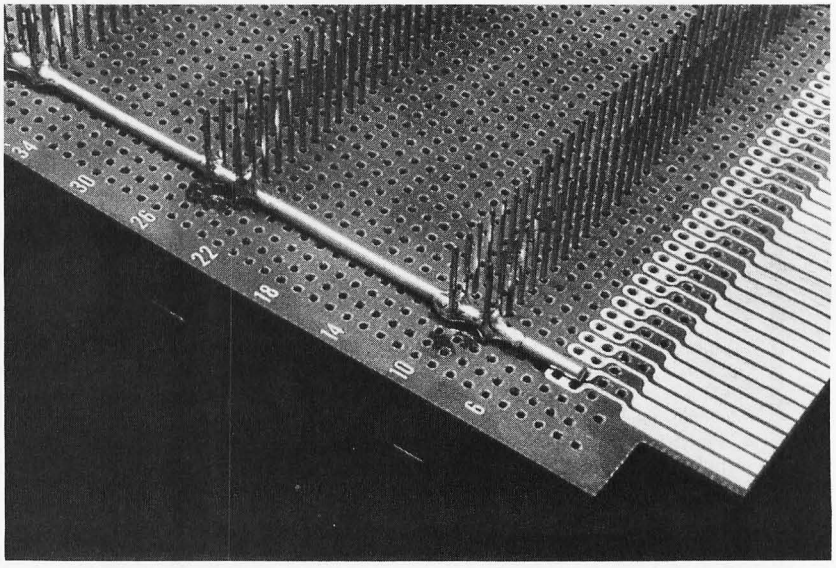
Photo 2: The physical assembly of the backplane begins by noting the fact that a single #12 guage wire will fit quite nicely between a set of four pins on a 0.1 inch grid. Thus, if we insert all the sockets in the backplane board, we can drop one copper bus connection across four corresponding pins of all six sockets. The 12 gauge wire size for the buses is just slightly larger than the 0.06 inch spacing between the wire wrap socket pins of a 0.1 inch grid. This fact causes the pins to spread just a bit, locking the sockets in place prior to soldering. In this photo we show eight bus wires occupying 32 pins of the backplane socket.

Looking ahead to the design of my computer and basing my conclusion on previous experience, I will need a total of four power supply buses. A standard +5 V is the main power supply, used by most of the digital integrated circuits. Ground is the common point for all power supplies. Two symmetrical supplies of −12 V and +12 V will be used by analog circuits.

Noting that a symmetrical arrangement of the backplane prevents power supply destruction through inadvertent reversal of boards, two sets of four buses are used. As we will see later (photo 4), the innermost buses will become the basis for the ground distribution grid.

With four power voltages occupying a total of 32 pins, the 72 pin sockets of the backplane have 40 uncommitted pins available for communications between boards. This is more than adequate for a good general purpose computer system based on an 8 bit microprocessor, such as the 6809 I will be using with this design.

Photo 3: Assembly begins with the outermost bus, laying it down in its niche in the pin forest of all six sockets. It is then soldered to each set of four pins, as depicted in this photo. I used a 120 W light-duty soldering gun for this operation, since the extremely high heat carrying capacity of the copper wires made my 25 W soldering iron impossible to use.



After each bus wire is soldered in place, the four pins at each socket are clipped off just above the copper wire and solder bead. This process is repeated for each of the eight bus wires assigned to the power voltages of the new computer.

Care must be taken while soldering to avoid forming a bridge between adjacent buses. The last step in soldering a bus wire is incomplete in this photo: the wire is just resting on the four holes in the tab from the backplane's edge connector. When soldering this part, be extremely careful about forming bridges from one bus wire to the next.

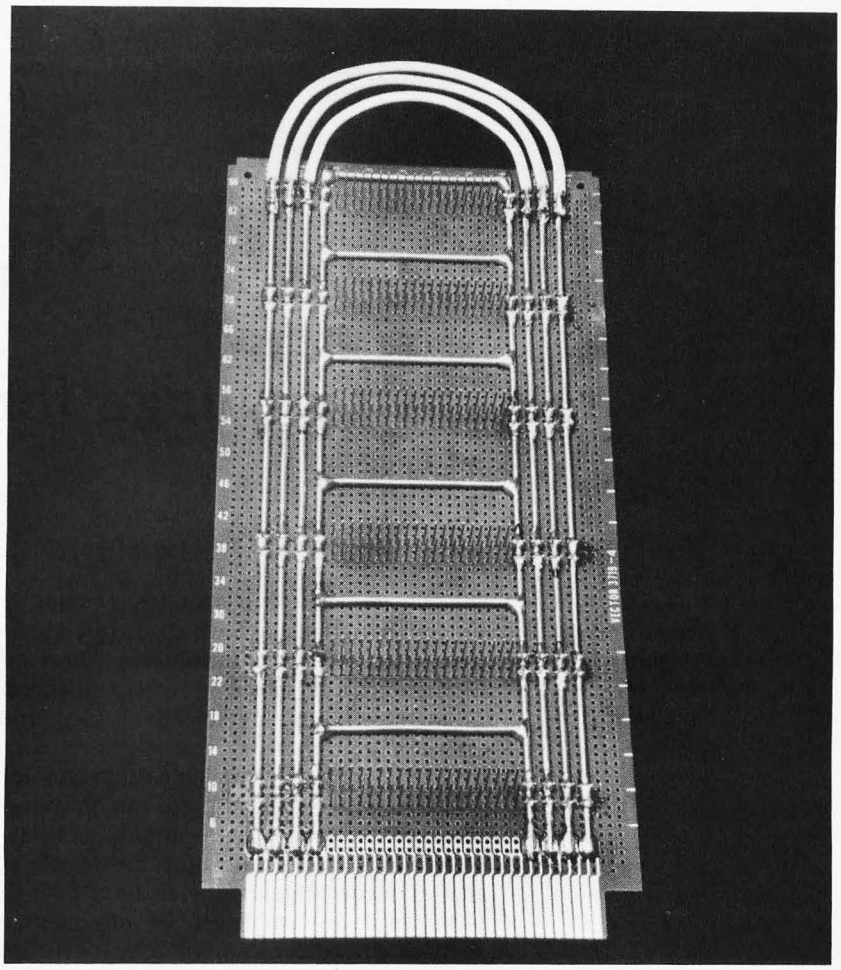
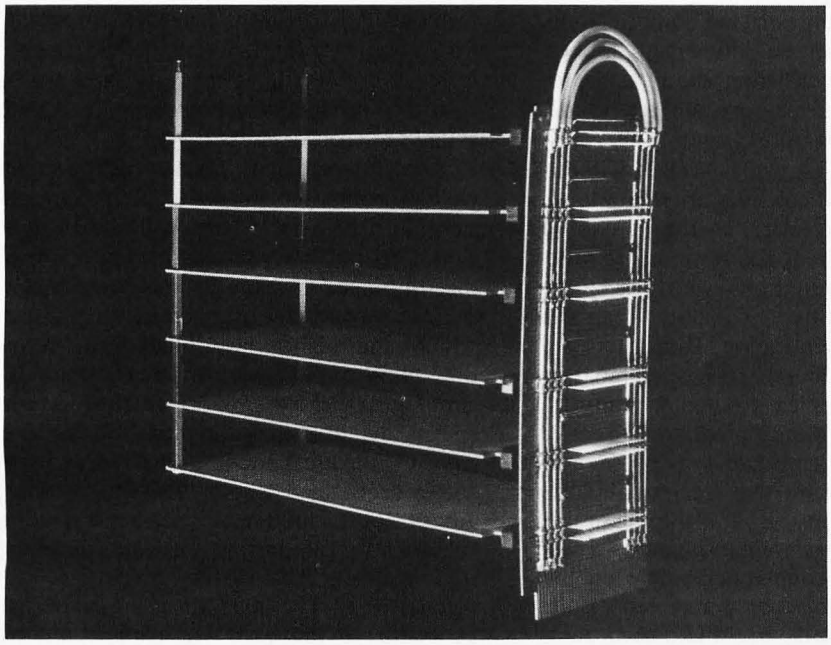


Photo 4: The completed backplane assembly includes a set of jumpers bridging the symmetrically arranged power supply voltages. Six bus wire jumpers connect the inner ground buses across the socket area. Three heavy insulated stranded wire jumpers create an aesthetically pleasing, but electrically useless arch form at one end of the board.

The bus wires in this photo of the assembly process have been soldered to the edge connector pins corresponding to power distribution voltages. Not shown at this stage is a set of bypass capacitors installed between the three voltages and ground. On each voltage, six 0.1 μF ceramic capacitors and one 3.3 μF tantalum electrolytic were installed for local bypass of the power supply voltages.

Photo 5: No backplane idea is complete without a discussion of the physical support of the boards in the final assembly. Here we show the newly completed backplane together with six boards and a set of 1.375 inch (1⅜ inch) spacers.

Readers wishing to duplicate this board should learn from an imperfection I introduced. If the boards in this picture appear to be a little crooked, rest assured that this is true, and not caused by the wide angle lens. The actual center to center spacings I finally used (count the holes in photo 4 if you wish) were 1.4, 1.5, 1.7, 1.4, and 1.5 inches! The spacing between backplane sockets should be 1.4 inches, center to center. In my final assembly, I will have to use extra washers as spacers due to this flagrant indiscretion during initial assembly.



Physically, this completes the motherboard and its power supply electrical connections. In part II of this description of the physical assembly of my new computer system we will complete the wiring of the backplane (by using a homebrew adaptation of a Vector "Slit-N-Wrap" tool to my electric eraser), wooden cabinetry which forms a base for the computer while hiding its power supply modules, and the final assembly of the computer system's basic hardware. ■

Mouse

A Language for Microcomputers

Peter Grogono
73 Roxton Crescent
Montreal West
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H4X 1C7

This article describes Mouse, a computer programming language which can be implemented on most microcomputers. The word Mouse is not an acronym, merely an appropriate description for something small and active.

There are many available languages for microcomputers already, so the introduction of a new language warrants some explanation. The justification for Mouse is that it incorporates many features of high level languages, yet it can be implemented without the resources needed by most high level languages. More specifically, Mouse programs demonstrate the use and implementation of arrays, functions, procedures, nested control structures, local variables, recursion, and several methods of passing parameters from one procedure to another. Mouse also embodies some of the principles of structured programming, in that it uses nested, single entry control structures, and does not allow unrestricted jumps. Nonetheless, Mouse can be implemented on a minimal system consisting of a microprocessor, 4 K bytes of memory, and a terminal.

All of these features cannot be incorporated into a simple language without making some sacrifices. Identifiers in Mouse consist of a single letter, so that a symbol table is not required. Expressions are written in postfix notation, which is more easily interpreted by a computer than the conventional infix notation. Parameters are passed to subroutines as strings, eliminating the need for complex parameter transmission mechanisms. Mouse programs are easier to write than to read, and it is possible to write Mouse programs that are very obscure. Although readability is a highly desirable feature of a programming language, a language cannot be condemned solely on the grounds that obscure programs can result: witness the popularity of APL. The extraordinary thing about Mouse is that so much can be achieved with such a small amount of implementation effort.

Mouse is descended from an older programming language called Musys. In 1970 I was working for Electronic Music Studios (London) Limited, the company which now manufactures the SYNTHI series of electronic music equipment. At that time the company, under the direction of Peter Zinovieff, was exploring the possibilities of using minicomputers to control electronic music instruments. The studio had two DEC PDP-8 computers, but very little software. My job was to write software which would relieve composers of the tedious chore of entering musical compositions in the form of strings of octal numbers. Since the older PDP-8 was already connected to a variety of digitally controlled oscillators, filters, envelope shapers, and other musical equipment, we decided to use the newer and faster PDP-8 to do the language processing. Space was very limited: the PDP-8 had only 4 K 12 bit words of memory, and a very restricted instruction set by comparison with today's microprocessors.

The system that I designed for the studio enables composers to write their compositions in a high level language called Musys. The heart of Musys is a simple yet powerful macroprocessor. A Musys composition consists of a hierarchy of macroinstructions, in which the higher level macroinstructions determine the overall form of the composition, and the low level macroinstructions specify details such as the pitch and duration of the individual sounds. The Musys interpreter contained about 700 instructions. About 600 additional instructions were required for supporting software, including disk control. The system is described in reference 1. The idea of using a macroprocessor as the basis for a minicomputer

Note: The examples of the Mouse language which appear in the *text* of this article have been italicized for the sake of clarity. Examples of the language appearing on *lines by themselves* have not been italicized, however.

language occurred to me after I had read a paper by the late Christopher Strachey (reference 2).

The remainder of this article consists of two main sections: the first describes the language Mouse; the second describes the implementation of a Mouse interpreter.

Mouse User's Guide

A Mouse program is a string of characters. Blanks may be inserted anywhere in the program, but they are ignored by the interpreter, except in a few contexts which are defined below. The last two characters of a program are always *$$*. The interpreter starts executing at the first character of the program and processes one character at a time until it encounters the character *$*, at which point it stops. This processing sequence is broken only by specific control strings: conditions, loops, macro calls, and formal parameters. These are described below.

When the interpreter encounters the quote character ", it prints or displays characters up to, but not including, the next quote character. For example, the program:

```
"JACQUELINE" $$
```

will print the message:

```
JACQUELINE
```

The quoted string may contain blanks, which are printed, and the exclamation point *!* that prints a carriage return/line feed. Thus the program:

```
"FIRST LINE!SECOND LINE" $$
```

will print:

```
FIRST LINE
SECOND LINE
```

Mouse performs calculations using a stack. An operand pushes a value onto the stack, and an operator removes one or two values from the stack and may replace them with other values. The question mark *?* is an operand which tells the interpreter to read a number from the keyboard or input file and push it onto the stack. The operator *!* removes the top value from the stack and prints it. (Do not confuse the use of *!* as an operator with its use within quotes.) The following program reads one number from the keyboard and prints it:

```
? ! $$
```

The stack is a *last in, first out* data structure. The program:

```
? ? ? ! ! ! $$
```

reads three numbers and prints them in reverse order. For example, if the input file contained:

```
45 46 47
```

then the program would print:

```
474645
```

If we wanted them to be printed in the order in which they were read, we would have to write:

```
? ! ? ! ? ! $$
```

This program, using the same data as before, would print:

```
454647
```

A decimal integer is another kind of operand. When the interpreter reads an integer, it pushes its value onto the stack. This program prints *365*:

```
365! $$
```

We can push two numbers onto the stack by writing them one after the other, with a *blank* in between. This program prints *7 5*:

```
5 7 ! " " ! $$
```

This is the only context in Mouse where a blank character is required; without it, *5 7* would be read as the single number *57*. However, we often insert blanks into Mouse programs to improve their readability. Furthermore, Mouse does not print leading or trailing blanks when it prints a number, so we must include a blank string " " between print operators if we want numbers separated in the output. Note also that Mouse does not process floating point numbers: all operands have integer values.

Mouse has 26 variables, the names of which are *A, B, C,. . .Z*. The name of a variable is an operand, and when the interpreter encounters a variable name, it pushes the address of that variable onto the stack. This program prints the addresses of A and T:

```
A! T! $$
```

The operator . (period) replaces an address on the stack by the value stored at that

Peter Grogono's first computer experience consisted of feeding a short piece of paper into EDSAC II at Cambridge University. He joined a group conducting research into automatic pattern recognition in 1965, and has spent the ensuing 13 years writing computer programs of various kinds in England, Australia, and Canada. The programs include a package for highway design, an operating system for an electronic music studio, and an accounting system for travel agencies. Peter is currently working for the Computer Centre of Concordia University, and his interests are programming language design and text processing.

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address. If we want to print the value of A we write *A.!* .

The assignment operator is =. An assignment is performed in three steps:

- An address is pushed onto the stack;
- A value is pushed onto the stack;
- The assignment operator is applied.

Thus in order to give the value 17 to X we write:

X17=

This statement has the effect that X := 17 would have in a Pascal program. Similarly, we write *XY.=* to assign the value of Y to X in Mouse. The most common programming error in Mouse is to forget the period; no error will be reported, but the calculation will use the address rather than the value of a variable, and the result will probably be wrong.

The arithmetic operators in Mouse are *+*, *–*, ***, and */*, denoting addition, subtraction, multiplication, and division, respectively. Because operands in Mouse have integer values, / means divide and truncate. A Mouse operator is always written after its operands. The resulting notation is called *postfix* notation or reversed Polish notation, in contrast to the conventional algebraic notation which is called *infix* notation. Postfix notation may be confusing at first, but it does have some advantages. The infix expression A+B is written in Mouse as *A.B.+*; the periods signify that we are adding values, not addresses. One of the advantages of postfix notation is that parentheses or brackets are not required. The infix expression A+B*C, in which the multiplication is performed before the addition, is written *A.B.C.*+* in Mouse. The infix expression (A+B)*C, in which the parentheses indicate that the addition is to be performed first, is written *A.B.+C.**.

It is not hard to translate expressions into postfix notation if you remember these two rules:

- Operands appear in the same order in both expressions;
- Operators are written as soon as both operands have been written in full.

As an example, consider the conversion to postfix form of the infix expression (A+B)/(C–D). First write down the operands in sequence:

A. B. C. D.

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The addition is performed after *B.*, and the subtraction after *D.*. The division cannot be performed until both its operands have been computed, so the complete expression in postfix notation is:

A.B.+ C.D.– /

The arithmetic operators always have two operands in Mouse. The infix expression –X means 0–X, and it must be written in the form *0X.–*.

The top value in the stack may be used as an *anonymous variable.* In fact, we have already used the stack in this way, in the program *? ! $$*. Here is a more subtle use of this feature:

A A5= . A6= ! $$

These five steps have the following effect:

- *A* puts the address of A on the stack;
- *A5=* assigns the value 5 to A (this uses the stack, but leaves it unchanged);
- . converts the address of A to the value of A, which is 5;
- *A6=* changes the value of A to 6;
- *!* prints the value, 5, from the stack.

Care must be taken, of course. If you are writing programs in this fashion, you must at all times know what is supposed to be in the stack. The following example uses the stack to interchange the values of two variables, X and Y. In most languages this interchange can only be done with a temporary variable. For example, in Pascal we would write:

T := X; X := Y; Y := T

In Mouse we can write:

X Y. Y X. = =

The addresses of A, B, C,. . .Z are 1, 2, 3, . . .26. This means that B, for instance, can be regarded as either a variable in its own right, or as the second element of the array A. The address of B can be written as either *B* or *A1+*, and its value as *B.* or *A1+.* . A general element of the array A, written A[I] in Pascal, can be written as *AI.+.* in Mouse, for 0 ⩽ I ⩽ 25. Any letter can be used in this way: thus *K5+* is equivalent to *P*, and *Z3–.* is equivalent to *W.* . You must be careful not to use the same address for two different purposes. If you decide to use A as an array with ten components, you cannot use the variables B, C,. . .J in the

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same program. The following illustrates these points:

A7= BA.= A.! B.! A1+.! $$

A7= assigns the value 7 to A, and *BA.=* copies the same value to B. This value is then printed three times: *A.!* prints the value of A; *B.!* prints the value of B; and *A1+.!* prints the value of A[1].

Before we pass on to a discussion of the control structures of Mouse, we need one more concept: *clause*. A clause is a string which contains quoted strings and expressions, which have been defined above; and complete control structures, which are defined below.

Control Structures

A *condition* in Mouse is written *E[C]*; E is an expression, and C is a clause. The condition itself is a clause. E is evaluated, and if its value is greater than zero, C is executed. If E is zero or negative, C is skipped. The Pascal statement:

if X > 0 **then** Y := X

becomes in Mouse:

X.[YX.=]

Since Mouse distinguishes only E > 0 and E ⩽ 0, more complicated expressions must be devised for different conditions. For example, X ⩾ 0 is equivalent to X+1 > 0, and so the Pascal statement:

if X ⩾ 0 **then** C

becomes in Mouse:

X.1+[C]

Similarly, X = 0 is equivalent to (1+X > 0) **and** (1−X > 0), and so Pascal:

if X = 0 **then** C

becomes in Mouse:

1X.+[1X.− [C]]

Now, reconsider the definition of clause. A complete condition *E[C]* is both a clause itself, and contains a clause, *C*. Suppose C is itself a condition, *F[D]*. If we replace C by *F[D]* in the clause *E[C]*, we obtain the clause *E[F[D]]*. This demonstrates that the nested condition *1X.+[1X.−[C]]* of the last example is a legitimate Mouse construction.

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A loop in Mouse is written:

$$(C_1\ E\uparrow\ C_2)$$

where E is an expression and C_1 and C_2 are clauses. This loop is a clause; it may be paraphrased as follows:

```
START:  C1
        if E ⩽ 0 goto EXIT
        C2
        goto START
EXIT:
```

In other words, the loop is executed for as long as $E > 0$, and the exit test may appear anywhere within the loop. Either C_1 or C_2 may be omitted. *(E↑ C_2)* is equivalent to Pascal:

$$\text{while } E > 0 \text{ do } C_2$$

and *(C_1 E↑)* is equivalent to Pascal:

$$\text{repeat } C_1 \text{ until } E \leqslant 0$$

There may be more than one exit test in a loop. For example, *(C_1 E↑ C_2 F↑ C_3)*, in which E and F are expressions, is allowed.

We now consider some simple Mouse programs which use these control structures. The following program reads a number N, and prints its factorial, 1*2*3*. . .*N:

```
N?= F1= ( N.↑ FF.N.*= NN.1–= ) F.! $$
```

We can shorten the factorial program by using the top of the stack instead of the variable F. The program then becomes:

```
N?= 1 ( N.↑ N.* NN.1–= ) ! $$
```

In this version, *1* puts the value one on the stack; *N.** multiplies the value on top of the stack by N; and *!* removes the value from the top of the stack and prints it. We can expand this program so that it continues to ask for data until it reads a number which is less than or equal to zero. Note the nested loop:

```
( "ENTER A NUMBER" M?= M.↑
   NM.= 1 ( N.↑ N.* NN.1–= )
"FACTORIAL ( " M.! " ) = " ! "!" )
$$
```

Here is a dialogue produced by this program:

```
ENTER A NUMBER 3
FACTORIAL (3) = 6
ENTER A NUMBER 7
FACTORIAL (7) = 5040
ENTER A NUMBER 0
```


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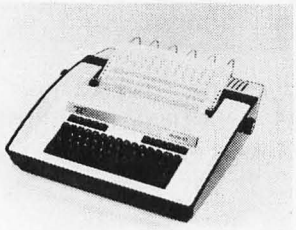

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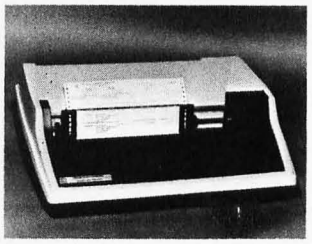

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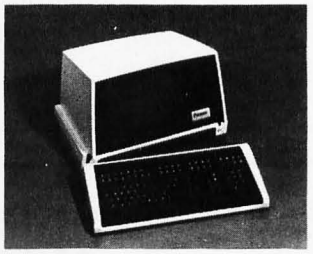

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The program which follows reads numbers into an array and then prints them in reverse order. A is used as an array index, and B is the array. The input is terminated by a negative number.

```
A0=
( BA.+.?= BA.+.1+↑ AA.1+= )
( A.↑ AA.1–= BA.+.! )
$$
```

We can improve this program so that it will read no more than 25 numbers, the maximum capacity of the array B. Note the use of two exit conditions in the first loop:

```
A0=
( BA.+.?= BA.+.1+↑ AA.1+=
A.25– [ "ARRAY FULL!" 0↑ ] )
( A.↑ AA.1–= BA.+.! )
$$
```

Macroinstructions

A complex algorithm always has a hierarchical structure, and a programming language must provide the means of defining and calling procedures and functions so that programs which have an analogous hierarchical structure can be written. In Mouse, procedures and functions are implemented by macroinstructions. A macroinstruction call is written like this:

```
#M;
```

This is a call to macroinstruction M. There must not be a blank between # and the macro name. In this example there are no actual parameters. When there are actual parameters, they follow the macro name and are preceded by commas. The following is a call to macroinstruction M with parameters X and Y:

```
#M,X,Y;
```

A macro name is a single letter, so a program may use up to 26 different macroinstructions.

Macro definitions come between the main program and the terminating *$$*. A macro definition starts with the character *$* and the name of the macroinstruction, and is terminated by the character @. There must not be any blanks between *$* and the name of the macroinstruction being defined. The definition must be a clause, and definitions cannot be nested. The following program uses a macroinstruction, M, to print a message:

```
#M;
$M "A MESSAGE" @
$$
```

Note that the main program code is terminated by *$*, which introduces the first macro definition. As usual, the entire program is terminated by *$$*. When the interpreter encounters *#M;* in the program, it substitutes the definition of the macroinstruction, excluding *$M* or @. Thus when the program above is interpreted, it prints:

```
A MESSAGE
```

Each macroinstruction has its own complete set of local variables, A, B, C,. . .Z. Assignments to these variables do not affect the values of main program variables. The program which follows will print the number 3, despite the assignment to N in macroinstruction X:

```
N3= #X; N.!
$X N99= @
$$
```

A macro definition may have up to 26 formal parameters, written %A, %B, %C, . . .%Z, with no blank between % and the letter. When a formal parameter is encountered in a definition, the actual parameter is

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substituted as a string. Macroinstruction P in the following program prints the value of its parameter:

```
#P,3; A5= #P,A.; #P,A;
$P %A! @
$$
```

The call *#P,3;* is equivalent to *3!*, and prints *3*. The call *#P,A.;* is equivalent to *A.!* and prints the value of A, which is 5. These are known as *calls by value,* be ause the macroinstruction can obtain only the value of the parameter. The final call, *#P,A;*, is equivalent to *A!*, and prints the address of A. It is known as a *call by reference,* because the parameter is an address. Calls by reference can be used to return values to the calling program. Macroinstruction A in the following program adds the values of its first two parameters, and returns the result as the third parameter:

```
#A,2,3,X; #A,3,4,Y; #A,X.,Y.,Z;
$A %C %A %B + = @
$$
```

This program adds 2 and 3, giving X, then adds 3 and 4, giving Y, then adds X and Y, giving Z. Note that the actual parameters in the last call are the values *X.* and *Y.* and the address *Z*.

You must know, when writing a macro call, whether the macroinstruction expects a value or an address. The device mentioned before for exchanging two values can be incorporated into a macroinstruction:

```
$E %A %B. %B %A. = = @
```

In this case, both actual parameters must be addresses. To use this macroinstruction to interchange the values of X and Y write:

```
#E,X,Y;
```

An array can be passed to a macroinstruction by the address of its first component. The following macroinstruction sums %B components of the array %A, and returns the result as %C:

```
$S %C0= N0=
( %BN.–↑ %C%AN.+.%C.+= NN.1+= )
@
```

The call *#S,A,3,Z;* would store the value of A+B+C in Z.

A macroinstruction which leaves a value on the stack acts as a function. We can rewrite macroinstruction A, which was defined above, as a function:

```
$A %A%B+ @
```

The call *#A,2,3;* is now an operand which leaves the value 5 on the stack. This macroinstruction evaluates the factorial function:

```
$F N%A= 1 ( N.↑ N.* NN.1– ) @
```

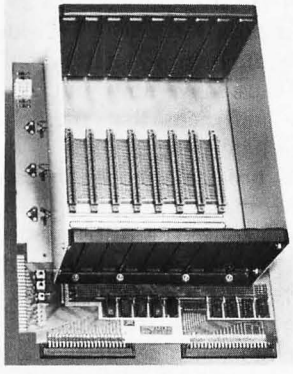
The clause *#F,5; #F,6; + !* prints 840 (=5!+6!).

A macro definition may include macro calls. Moreover, a macroinstruction may call itself, either directly or indirectly, so that it is possible to define recursive macroinstructions. The factorial function can be defined recursively in this way:

```
$F %A [ %A #F,%A1–; * ]
1%A– [ 1 ]
@
```

The character @ acts like a RETURN statement in BASIC or FORTRAN, and we can use it more than once in a macro definition. Here is a slightly shorter version of the recursive factorial macro that exploits this fact:

```
$F %A [ %A #F,%A1–; * @ ] 1 @
```

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This definition may be paraphrased in ALGOL:

```
F(N) :=
if N > 0
then N * F(N–1)
else 1
```

If %A > 0, the conditional clause is executed, and the macroinstruction is terminated by the @ between the brackets. If %A ≤ 0, the value *1* is placed on the stack and the macroinstruction is terminated by the final @.

If there is no actual parameter corresponding to a formal parameter, the formal parameter is processed as a null string. Actual parameters for which there are no formal parameters are ignored. A call to an undefined macroinstruction is also processed as a null string. These points are illustrated by the following program:

```
#T; #T, "A"; #T, "A", "B";
#T, "A", "B", "C"; #U;
$T "<" %A%B ">!"@
$$
```

This program prints:

```
<>
<A>
<AB>
<AB>
```

In the first call, *#T;*, there are no actual parameters. In the second call, *#T,"A";*, there is one actual parameter, *"A"*, which is printed. In the third call, both parameters are printed. In the fourth call, there are three actual parameters, of which the third, *"C"*, is ignored because there is no formal parameter *%C*. The last call is to an undefined macroinstruction U, and has no effect.

Now that all of the control structures of Mouse have been described, we can define *clause* more precisely. A clause may be: an expression, a literal string, a condition, a loop, a macro call, or a clause followed by another clause. Actual parameters and macro definitions must be clauses. These rules are not precise enough to formally define the syntax of Mouse, but they serve as a guide for the Mouse programmer. Their principal purpose is to ensure that all of the components of a control structure are on the same level. They forbid, for example, the use of *(* or [without the matching *)* or] at the same level in a condition, loop, macro definition or actual parameter.

Example Programs

We conclude this section of the article with some sample Mouse programs. The first program illustrates mutual recursion. Two macroinstructions are said to be *mutually recursive* if each one calls the other. The square numbers S_n (1, 4, 9, 16,. . .) and the triangular numbers T_n (1, 3, 6, 10,. . .) can be defined in terms of each other in the following way:

$S_1 = 1$
$S_n = T_n + T_{n-1}$ for $n > 1$
$T_1 = 1$
$T_n = (S_{n-1} + 3n - 1)/2$ for $n > 1$

The program, which appears in listing 1, uses mutually recursive macroinstructions S and T to compute S_n and T_n.

The second program, which appears in listing 2, prints prime numbers. It loops indefinitely, calling macroinstruction P for each integer N in turn. Macroinstruction P prints N, if N is prime. The expression *%AF./F.*%A–1+* is equivalent to 1 – %A **mod** F.; it is positive only if F divides %A exactly. The program will fail when incrementing N causes overflow, but the algorithm is so inefficient that there is little danger of this happening.

The third program, shown in listing 3, uses recursive macroinstruction V to print the words of a song. The British and American versions of this song are different, and I am not sure that the words printed by the program are a correct statement of either version. The limit of nine verses is a restriction imposed by the interpreter described in this article, not an inherent limitation of Mouse.

```
"SQUARE AND TRIANGULAR NUMBERS"
( "ENTER A NUMBER" N?= N.↑
    "S(" N.! ") = " #S,N.; !
  "  T(" N.! ") = " #T,N.; ! "!" )

$S %A1 – [ #T,%A; #T,%A1 –; + @ ] 1 @
$T %A1 – [ #S,%A1 –; 3%A*1 – + 2/ @ ] 1 @

$$
```

Listing 1: This Mouse program reads an integer and prints the corresponding square number S_n and triangular number T_n. It uses two mutually recursive macroinstructions S and T.

```
"PRIME NUMBERS!" N1 = ( NN.1 += #P,N.; )

$P F1 = N1 =
   ( FF.1 += %AF. –1 %AF./F.*%A–1+ [ N0= 0↑ ] )
   N. [ %A! "!" ] @

$$
```

Listing 2: This program prints a list of prime numbers. Macroinstruction P determines whether its parameter N is a prime number and, if it is, prints it.

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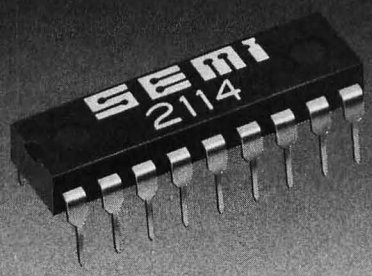

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The program which appears in listing 4 prints the moves required to solve the Towers of Hanoi problem for a given number of disks. It uses recursion, and demonstrates the use of strings as actual parameters.

```
( "HOW MANY VERSES?"
  S? = S.↑ 10S . – [ #V,S . 1 +; ] )

$V %A1 – [ #N,%A; #B; #W; ",!"
           #N,%A; #B; ";!" #F; ",!"
           #N,%A1 –; #B; #W; " . !!"
           #V,%A1 –;                    ] @

$B " GREEN BOTTLES" @
$W "STANDING ON THE WALL" @
$F "IF ONE OF THOSE BOTTLES SHOULD HAPPEN TO FALL" @

$N %A9 – [ "NINE"    @ ]
   %A8 – [ "EIGHT"   @ ]
   %A7 – [ "SEVEN"   @ ]
   %A6 – [ "SIX"     @ ]
   %A5 – [ "FIVE"    @ ]
   %A4 – [ "FOUR"    @ ]
   %A3 – [ "THREE"   @ ]
   %A2 – [ "TWO"     @ ]
   %A1 – [ "ONE"     @ ]
   %A    [ "NO"      @ ] @

$$
```

Listing 3: Macroinstruction V calls macroinstructions B, W, F, and N to print one verse of a song, and then calls itself recursively to print the next verse. The number of verses is limited to nine, but the interpreter is quite easily modified to enable the program to print more verses.

```
"TOWERS OF HANOI!HOW MANY DISKS?" D? =
D . [ #H,D . ,"LEFT","RIGHT","CENTER"; ]

$H %A [ #H,%A1 –,%B,%D,%C;
        "MOVE " %B " TO " %C "!"
        #H,%A1 –,%D,%C,%B;          ] @

$$
```

Listing 4: The famous Towers of Hanoi problem. The program prints a list of the moves required to solve the problem for a specified number of rings.

```
"BUBBLE SORT!" #P,A;

$P "HOW MANY NUMBERS?" N? = N . 26 – [ "TOO MANY!" @ ]
   "ENTER " N . ! " NUMBERS!" NN . 1 – =
   #F,M,0,N . ,%AM . + ? =;
   "INPUT ARRAY!" #F,M,0,N . ,%AM . + . ! " "; "!"
   #B,%A,0,N . ;
   "SORTED ARRAY!" #F,M,0,N . ,%AM . + . ! " "; "!" @

$B #F,I,%B1 +,%C,
     #F,J,%C,I . ,
       %AJ . 1 – + .  %AJ . + .  –
            [ #E,%AJ . +,%AJ . 1 – +; ] ; ; @

$F %A%B = %C%A . – 1 +
   [ ( %C%A . – 1 +↑ %D %A%A . 1 + = ) @ ]
     ( %A . %C – 1 +↑ %D %A%A . 1 – = ) @

$E %A %B . %B %A . = = @

$$
```

Listing 5: This is the most elaborate Mouse program presented in this article. The main program contains one macro call (#P,A;) only, and so all 26 variables at the lowest level can be used to store an array. The program sorts the array using the bubble sort algorithm, and then prints it.

The last program, shown in listing 5, is the most elaborate. It reads an array, prints it, sorts it into ascending sequence, and prints the sorted array. The main program prints the title and then calls macroinstruction P to do everything else. The address of A is given to P, and since no variables are used in the main program, all 26 components of array A can be used to store the input data. Thus, the program can sort up to 26 numbers. The program makes extensive use of macroinstruction F, which simulates a **for** statement. The effect of a call to F is:

for %A := %B **to** %C **do** %D

If %B > %C then the index variable %A will be decremented rather than incremented. Macroinstruction E is the exchange macroinstruction introduced earlier. Macroinstruction B does the actual sorting in two nested loops, using the bubble sort algorithm.

Implementation

The Mouse interpreter is presented in listing 6 in the form of a Pascal program. It is not intended, however, that Mouse should be implemented by that program. Listing 6 is intended to be a machine independent guide to the implementation of Mouse in assembly or machine language. Accordingly, the explanation which follows contains hints as to how the Pascal statements can be translated into machine language. Numbers in parentheses refer to line numbers in listing 6. Some explanation of the meaning of the Pascal statements is given here. (If you need more, consult either Jensen and Wirth (reference 3) or my book (reference 4)).

The program starts with a heading (1). This line merely states that the program is called Mouse and that it uses two files, INPUT and OUTPUT. Lines 12 thru 18 declare the global variables of the program. Global variables can be used anywhere in a Pascal program, even in subroutines. The first five declarations (12 thru 16) define arrays. PROG is an array of 500 characters used to store the text of the Mouse program. The components of PROG are written PROG[1], PROG[2] . . .PROG[500]. DEFINITIONS is an array of 26 integers. Each nonzero component of DEFINITIONS forms an index for the start of a macro definition in the array PROG. The array CALSTACK is the stack used for calculations. The array STACK is the main stack, used to store the status of the program during the expansion of a macro call, a formal parameter, or a loop. Each component of STACK is a variable of type

FRAMETYPE. This type is defined in lines 5 thru 9. A FRAMETYPE variable has three components: TAG, POS, and OFF. A TAG has one of three values: MACRO, PARAM, or LOOP; these values can be coded as 0, 1, 2, or −1, 0, +1. POS and OFF are both integers. The most convenient way to represent STACK is as a block of 20 units, each unit having three words. Within a unit, the word required is addressed by its offset: 0 for TAG, 1 for POS, and 2 for OFF. For example, the address STACK [N].OFF (the address of component OFF of the Nth unit) is STACK+3*(N−1)+2. Finally, the array DATA is used to store the values of both local and global variables of the Mouse program. The sizes of the arrays are adequate for simple Mouse programs, including all programs in this article. The choice of array sizes is discussed below in greater detail.

Lines 17 and 18 declare global scalar variables. CAL is a pointer to CALSTACK; it is an index for the next free stack word. LEVEL performs the same function for STACK, the main stack. CHPOS is a pointer to the array PROG; it indexes the character currently being processed. The current character itself is stored in CH. Assuming that a single byte is used to store a character, and two bytes are used to store an integer, global data for the interpreter occupies 1248 bytes of memory.

Lines 20 thru 84 define the subroutines used by the interpreter. The function NUM (20 thru 23) maps letters into integers. The Pascal function ORD means simply *ordinal value of*. The ordinal value of a character is its ASCII (or other) code. For example, if the code for A is 65, then ORD('A') = 65. Thus, NUM('A') = 1, NUM('B') =2, and so on. The interpreter assumes that the letters have consecutive codes, and hence that NUM('Z') = 26. The function VAL performs a similar task for digits. VAL('0') = 0, VAL ('1') = 1, and so on. In machine language, these functions can be implemented by a single instruction which subtracts the appropriate constant from the character value. The procedure GETCHAR (30 thru 33) increments the character pointer CHPOS and sets CH to the next character in the array PROG. The Mouse program is accessed by means of this procedure only.

PUSHCAL (35 thru 38) and POPCAL (40 thru 43) are used to store and remove values from the calculation stack CALSTACK. The parameter of PUSHCAL is the value which is to be pushed onto the stack. The value returned by POPCAL is the value removed from the stack. In a machine language implementation, these values can be passed in a register. PUSH (45 thru 51) and POP (53

Listing 6: The Mouse interpreter expressed as a Pascal program.

```
 1  program MOUSE (input,output);
 2
 3  type
 4     TAGTYPE = (MACRO,PARAM,LOOP);
 5     FRAMETYPE =
 6        record
 7           TAG : TAGTYPE;
 8           POS,OFF : integer
 9        end;
10
11  var
12     PROG        : array [ 1..500 ] of char;
13     DEFINITIONS : array [ 1..26  ] of integer;
14     CALSTACK    : array [ 1..20  ] of integer;
15     STACK       : array [ 1..20  ] of FRAMETYPE;
16     DATA        : array [ 1..260 ] of integer;
17     CAL, CHPOS, LEVEL, OFFSET, PARNUM, PARBAL, TEMP : integer;
18     CH : char;
19
20  function NUM (CH : char) : integer;
21     begin
22        NUM := ord(CH) - ord('A') + 1
23     end;
24
25  function VAL (CH : char) : integer;
26     begin
27        VAL := ord(CH) - ord('0')
28     end;
29
30  procedure GETCHAR;
31     begin
32        CHPOS := CHPOS + 1; CH := PROG[CHPOS]
33     end;
34
35  procedure PUSHCAL (DATUM : integer);
36     begin
37        CAL := CAL + 1; CALSTACK[CAL] := DATUM
38     end;
39
40  function POPCAL : integer;
41     begin
42        POPCAL := CALSTACK[CAL]; CAL := CAL - 1
43     end;
44
45  procedure PUSH (TAGVAL : TAGTYPE);
46     begin
47        LEVEL := LEVEL + 1;
48        STACK[LEVEL].TAG := TAGVAL;
49        STACK[LEVEL].POS := CHPOS;
50        STACK[LEVEL].OFF := OFFSET
51     end;
52
53  procedure POP;
54     begin
55        CHPOS := STACK[LEVEL].POS;
56        OFFSET := STACK[LEVEL].OFF;
57        LEVEL := LEVEL - 1
58     end;
59
60  procedure SKIP (LCH, RCH : char);
61     var CNT : integer;
62     begin
63        CNT := 1;
64        repeat
65           GETCHAR;
66           if CH = LCH
67              then CNT := CNT + 1
68           else if CH = RCH
69              then CNT := CNT - 1
70        until CNT = 0
71     end;
72
73  procedure LOAD;
74     var THIS, LAST : char; CHARNUM : integer;
75     begin
76        for CHARNUM := 1 to 26 do DEFINITIONS[CHARNUM] := 0;
77        CHARNUM := 0; THIS := ' ';
78        repeat
79           LAST := THIS; read(THIS);
80           CHARNUM := CHARNUM + 1; PROG[CHARNUM] := THIS;
81           if (THIS in [ 'A'..'Z' ] ) and (LAST = '$')
82              then DEFINITIONS[NUM(THIS)] := CHARNUM
```

Listing 6 continued on page 210

Listing 6 continued from page 209:

```
83          until (THIS = '$') and (LAST = '$')
84       end;
85
86    begin
87       LOAD;
88       CHPOS := 0; LEVEL := 0; OFFSET := 0; CAL := 0;
89       repeat
90          GETCHAR;
91          case CH of
92
93             ' ', ']', '$' : ;
94
95             '0','1','2','3','4','5','6','7','8','9' :
96                   begin
97                      TEMP := 0;
98                      while CH in [ '0'..'9' ] do
99                         begin
100                           TEMP := 10 * TEMP + VAL(CH); GETCHAR
101                        end;
102                     PUSHCAL(TEMP); CHPOS := CHPOS - 1
103                  end;
104
105            'A','B','C','D','E','F','G','H','I','J','K','L','M',
106            'N','O','P','Q','R','S','T','U','V','W','X','Y','Z' :
107                  PUSHCAL(NUM(CH) + OFFSET);
108
109            '?'  : begin
110                      read(TEMP); PUSHCAL(TEMP)
111                   end;
112
113            '!'  : write(POPCAL : 1);
114
115            '+' : PUSHCAL(POPCAL + POPCAL);
116
117            '-' : PUSHCAL(-POPCAL + POPCAL);
118
119            '*' : PUSHCAL(POPCAL * POPCAL);
120
121            '/'  : begin
122                      TEMP := POPCAL;
123                      PUSHCAL(POPCAL div TEMP)
124                   end;
125
126            '.' : PUSHCAL(DATA[POPCAL]);
127
128            '=' : begin
129                      TEMP := POPCAL;
130                      DATA[POPCAL] := TEMP
131                   end;
132
133            '"' : repeat
134                      GETCHAR;
135                      if CH = '!'
136                         then writeln
137                      else if CH ≠ '"'
138                         then write(CH)
139                   until CH = '"';
140
141            '['  : if POPCAL ≤ 0 then SKIP('[',']');
142
143            '('  : PUSH(LOOP);
144
145            '!'  : if POPCAL ≤ 0
146                      then
147                         begin
148                            POP; SKIP('(',')')
149                         end;
150
151            ')'  : CHPOS := STACK[LEVEL].POS;
152
153            '#'  : begin
154                      GETCHAR;
155                      if DEFINITIONS[NUM(CH)] > 0
156                         then
157                            begin
158                               PUSH(MACRO);
159                               CHPOS := DEFINITIONS[NUM(CH)];
160                               OFFSET := OFFSET + 26
161                            end;
162                      else SKIP('#',';')
163                   end;
```

Listing 6 continued on page 212

thru 58) perform similar functions for the main stack, but they are more complicated because each stack entry has three words. The data placed on the stack by PUSH consists of the parameter, TAGVAL, and the values of the two global variables, CHPOS and OFFSET. The procedure POP restores the values of CHPOS and OFFSET but ignores the stacked value of TAG.

The procedure SKIP (60 thru 71) is used to skip over nested pairs of characters. For example, SKIP('[',']') is used to skip over conditional clauses. SKIP uses a local variable CNT to count occurrences of left and right brackets so that it can correctly skip over sequences such as:

[. . . [. . .] . . .]

On entry, SKIP assumes that the first character, [, in the example, has been read, so CNT is initially set to 1. Subsequently, [increments CNT and] decrements CNT. The procedure terminates when CNT = 0. This procedure is used for skipping over [. . .], (. . .), and #. . .;.

The procedure LOAD (73 thru 84) has two functions: it reads the program from the input file into the array PROG, one character at a time; and it stores pointers to macro definitions in the array DEFINITIONS. It uses local variables THIS, LAST, and CHARNUM (74), and it initializes all components of the array DEFINITIONS to zero (76), so that the interpreter can later recognize a call to an undefined macro. LOAD recognizes a macro definition by the sequence *$<letter>* and the end of the program by the sequence *$$*.

In this version of the interpreter, both the Mouse program and its input data are read from the system input file. If you have auxiliary storage, such as disks or cassette tapes, it is probably better to store the Mouse program there. If you use disks or tapes, READ(THIS) on line 79 will call a procedure that reads one character from the chosen device. It is much easier to develop a Mouse program if it is stored on an external medium where it can be attacked with a text editor, rather than keying it directly into memory. Alternately, if you have room in memory, you can elaborate the procedure LOAD into a Mouse editor, rather than using it simply as a loader.

The main program begins at line 86. Initialization consists of loading the program (87) and setting various global variables to zero (88). The rest of the interpreter consists of a single **repeat** statement (89 thru 197). The body of the **repeat** statement contains two statements: GETCHAR (90),

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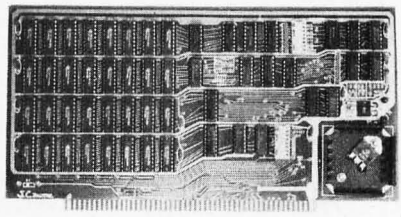

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Listing 6 continued from page 210:

```
164
165             '@' : begin
166                     POP; SKIP('#',';')
167                   end;
168
169             '%' : begin
170                     GETCHAR; PARNUM := NUM(CH); PUSH(PARAM);
171                     PARBAL := 1; TEMP := LEVEL;
172                     repeat
173                       TEMP := TEMP - 1;
174                       case STACK[TEMP].TAG of
175                         MACRO : PARBAL := PARBAL - 1;
176                         PARAM : PARBAL := PARBAL - 1;
177                         LOOP :
178                       end
179                     until PARBAL = 0;
180                     CHPOS := STACK[TEMP].POS;
181                     OFFSET := STACK[TEMP].OFF;
182                     repeat
183                       GETCHAR;
184                       if CH = '#'
185                         then
186                           begin
187                             SKIP('#',';'); GETCHAR
188                           end;
189                       if CH = ',' then PARNUM := PARNUM - 1
190                     until (PARNUM = 0) or (CH = ';');
191                     if CH = ';' then POP
192                   end;
193
194             ',',';' : POP
195
196         end
197       until CH = '$'
198   end.
```


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and a **case** statement (91 thru 196) which selects an action according to the character obtained by GETCHAR. The **repeat** statement, and hence the interpreter, terminates when CH = '$'. The operation of the interpreter can therefore be described solely in terms of the action taken for each character returned by GETCHAR. The **case** statement can be implemented by comparing CH to each legal character in turn. A jump table addressed by the ordinal value of CH is more efficient, but it may use more memory.

The characters (blank),], and $ require no action by the interpreter (93). If the character is $, the **repeat** statement terminates, otherwise control returns to GETCHAR (90) which gets the next character.

If the character is a digit (95), this digit and succeeding digits are read, and the value of the corresponding number is accumulated in TEMP (97 thru 101). The value of TEMP is then pushed onto the stack (102). The interpreter has now read one character past the last digit, which it has to do in order to recognize the end of the number, so the character pointer is backspaced (102). If the character is a letter (105 and 106), its address NUM(CH)+OFFSET is pushed onto the stack. If OFFSET = 0, the address of A is 1, the address of B is 2, and so on. (The use of OFFSET will be explained later.) The remaining operand is *?* (109 thru 111), which reads a number from the input file and pushes its value onto the stack. The Pascal statement READ(TEMP) reads a signed number from the input file, having skipped over leading blanks.

Lines 113 thru 131 define the actions taken when an operator has been read. Operators use the calculation stack CALSTACK. The character ! (113) pops the top value off the stack and prints it. The Pascal statement WRITE(POPCAL : 1) prints the value of POPCAL without leading or trailing blanks. If blanks are required to separate numbers, they must be explicitly coded in the Mouse program.

The arithmetic operators (115 thru 124) remove two operands from the stack, apply the appropriate operation, and push the result onto the stack. Note that the second operand is on top of the stack, but must be used after the first operand in the noncommutative subtraction and division operations. The Pascal operator **div** means "divide and truncate" (123). The operator . (period) replaces the address on the stack by the corresponding component of the array DATA (126). The assignment operator (=) uses the address and value on the stack to update a component of the array DATA (128 thru 131).

All of the operations on CALSTACK are

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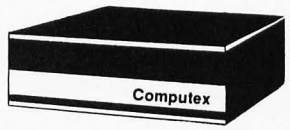

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coded using the subroutines PUSHCAL and POPCAL. They can be coded more efficiently without these subroutines. For example, the action required for division can be written:

```
CAL := CAL – 1;
CALSTACK[CAL] := CALSTACK[CAL]
div CALSTACK[CAL+1]
```

The advantage of using the subroutines PUSHCAL and POPCAL is that they can check for stack underflow (CAL $\leqslant$ 0 in POPCAL) and stack overflow (CAL $\geqslant$ 20 in PUSHCAL), although these checks are not shown in this listing.

When the double quote character " is encountered, the interpreter prints successive characters up to, but not including, the next quote character (133 thru 139). The Pascal procedure WRITELN writes a carriage return/line feed to the output file, and WRITE(CH) writes the single character CH.

The left bracket [introduces a conditional clause. The value on top of the stack is removed and examined. If it is positive and nonzero, no action is taken, and the interpreter proceeds to execute the bracketed clause. If the value on the stack is zero or negative, the interpreter skips to the matching right bracket]. The use of the procedure SKIP enables the interpreter to process nested conditions correctly.

Loops are implemented by lines 143 thru 151. The effect of the left parenthesis (is simply to push a stack frame of type LOOP onto the main stack. This stores the current value of CHPOS on the stack. (It also stores the current value of OFFSET, but OFFSET is not used for loops.) When the interpreter encounters the up arrow symbol (↑), it removes and examines the value on top of the calculation stack. If this value is positive and nonzero, there is nothing to do, but if it is zero or negative, the interpreter must exit from the loop. It does this in two steps (148). First, the main stack is popped. This restores the value of CHPOS, which now points to the left parenthesis (at the beginning of the loop. Then the procedure SKIP is used to skip over the body of the loop and leave CHPOS pointing to the closing right parenthesis). This is a slightly inefficient method of terminating the loop, because the entire body of the loop is skipped, rather than just the section from ↑ to). When the right parenthesis is encountered during the execution of the loop, CHPOS is set to the stacked value POS, which causes the interpreter to jump back to the opening parenthesis. The stack is used for loops to allow loops to be nested.

The rest of the **case** statement, lines 153 thru 194, handles macro expansion and parameter substitution. When the interpreter encounters the character # (153), it reads the character which follows. This character should be a letter (154). If there is a definition for the macroinstruction (DEFINITIONS[NUM(CH)] > 0), the interpreter pushes a MACRO entry onto the main stack (158) and assigns new values to CHPOS (159) and OFFSET (160). CHPOS now points to the first character of the macro definition. The effect of adding 26 to OFFSET is to allocate 26 local variables in the array DATA for the use of the macro. The address of the local variable A is NUM('A')+OFFSET (see line 107); in the main program this is 1, in a macroinstruction called from the main program it is 27, and so on. If there is no definition for the macroinstruction, the interpreter skips to the semicolon which terminates the call (162). The procedure SKIP must be used to find the semicolon because the actual parameters of the macro call may include macro calls. The interpreter continues to process the macro definition until it encounters an @, at which point it pops the main stack (166). Popping the stack resets OFFSET

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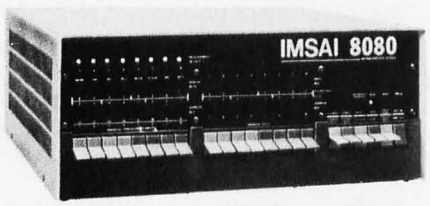

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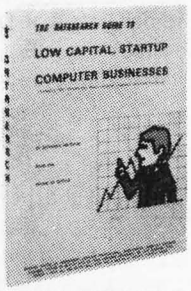

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correctly, but it leaves CHPOS pointing at the macroinstruction name. The call to SKIP (166) moves CHPOS past the macro call so that processing can continue.

The most difficult task for the interpreter is processing a formal parameter (169 thru 192). First, the interpreter reads the parameter name and sets PARNUM to the corresponding numeric value (170). For example, if it reads *%A*, PARNUM is set to 1. A new entry is created in the main stack. The next problem is to find, in the stack, the stack frame created by the corresponding macro call. This would be easy if the call frame was at the top of the stack, but this is not necessarily the case.

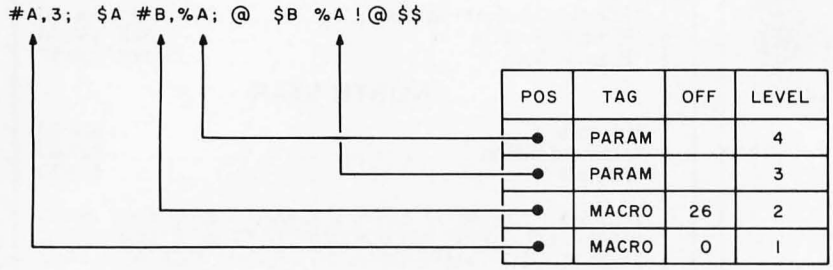

Figure 1: The interpreter has read the formal parameter %A *in the call* #B,A; *and is looking for the actual parameter* 3. *Level 1 of the stack, shown at the right, contains a pointer to the corresponding macro call* #A,3; . *The interpreter finds this pointer by searching the stack for a MACRO frame matching the PARAM frame at stack level 4.*

Consider the situation shown in figure 1, which shows a simple Mouse program and the main stack during its execution. The interpreter reads *#A*, creates the stack frame at level 1, and moves CHPOS to *$A*. It then reads *#B*, creates the stack frame at level 2, and moves CHPOS to *$B*. Now it encounters *%A*, creates a PARAM stack frame at level 3, and sets CHPOS to the actual parameter. The actual parameter is *%A* (in the call *#B,%A;*) and so it creates a new stack frame at level 4. Now the interpreter has to find the actual parameter corresponding to this *%A*.

In order to do this it must locate the stack frame at level 1, which contains a pointer to *#A*. It can find the correct frame by using the fact that MACRO and PARAM frames in the stack are nested. (The situation is slightly more complicated when an actual parameter contains a macro call, but the same strategy works.) The search is implemented by lines 171 thru 179 of the interpreter. LOOP frames on the stack are ignored (177).

When the interpreter has found the correct stack frame, it sets the values of CHPOS and OFFSET from it (180 and 181). The stacked value of OFFSET must be used because variables in an actual parameter belong to the level of the macro call, not to the level of its definition. CHPOS now points to the name of the macro in the macro call. The interpreter finds the correct parameter by counting PARNUM commas (182 thru 190).

The counting process is complicated by two factors. One is that the actual parameter may contain macro calls; this contingency is handled by SKIP (184 thru 188). The other complication is that there may be no actual parameter corresponding to the formal parameter. In this case, the interpreter will encounter a semicolon (190), and must pop the stack frame that it just created (191).

An actual parameter is terminated by either a comma or a semicolon. The action of the interpreter is simply to pop the main stack (194).

Improving the Implementation

The Mouse interpreter that is presented here has been pared to the bare essentials. It is complete and accurate, and was used to test the example programs of listings 1 thru 5. Mouse is easier to use, however, if the interpreter does some error checking.

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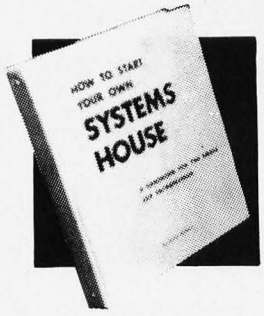

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Some of the errors which it can easily detect are listed here:

- Stack underflow and overflow (both stacks). Underflow is always the result of an error in the Mouse program; overflow may be due to an error in the Mouse program, but it is more likely that the stack is not large enough for the program. Checks for underflow should be incorporated into POP and POPCAL, and checks for overflow should be incorporated into PUSH and PUSHCAL.
- Illegal characters. The interpreter should check the program for illegal characters; this can be done during loading.
- Division by zero. TEMP = 0 at line 122.
- Illegal address. The value of the stack at line 126 should satisfy 1 ⩽ POPCAL ⩽ OFFSET+26; the same test can be made at line 129. A stricter address check would be preferable, but is not easy to devise, since a macroinstruction can access the variables both at its own level and at lower levels by means of parameters.
- Context errors. The characters # and % must always be followed by a letter.
- Undefined macroinstruction or missing actual parameter. These would be regarded as errors in a stricter implementation of Mouse.

A tracing option is a powerful aid to debugging Mouse programs. The easiest way to trace the execution of a Mouse program is to make the interpreter display the value of each character it processes. This can be done by inserting WRITE(CH) after GETCHAR at line 90 of the interpreter (listing 6). It is also useful to trace the results of assignments. This can be done by printing the value of TEMP at line 129.

The size of the arrays (12 thru 16) can be adjusted to suit your requirements. Most expressions can be evaluated with a small stack of two or three entries, and you may find it surprising that CALSTACK has space for so many entries. The reason is that some recursive macroinstructions (such as S and T in listing 1) create an entry in the calculation stack at each level of recursion, and CALSTACK must be large enough to hold these. The array DATA makes the poorest use of space; 26 words are allocated at each level of macrocall. This implementation allows ten calling levels, which is not as generous as it sounds if you are using recursive macroinstructions. You can reduce the space requirement to ten variables (A,B. . .J)

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at each level, by changing line 160 to OFFSET := OFFSET + 10. Note that a macroinstruction with no local variables needs space in the array STACK but not in the array DATA, so recursive macros such as S and T in listing 1, V in listing 3, and H in listing 4, are limited only by the size of the arrays STACK and CALSTACK.

Improving the Language

It is easy to add features to Mouse. A random number generator is useful, particularly for programming games. Probably the simplest method is to use a unary operator which multiplies the number on the top of the calculation stack by a real random number R such that $0 < R < 1$, truncates the result, and increments it. If the character *:* (colon) is used to denote the operator, then *6:* would leave a simulated die throw on the stack.

The most severe restriction of this particular version of Mouse is that it cannot process character data. A more powerful version of Mouse can be obtained by redefining *?* and *!* so that they read and write a single character. The disadvantage is that macroinstructions are then required to read and print numbers – not a large price to pay for the greater generality achieved.

It is quite easy to add a case construction to the language. The following syntax is suitable:

$$E<C_1,C_2...C_n>$$

Each C_i is a clause. When the interpreter reads <, it performs the following actions:

- skip to the matching > and push a CASE frame onto the main stack;
- return to <;
- if $E \geqslant 1$, then scan the clause list until the (n–1)th comma is encountered, otherwise pop the stack. If the character > is encountered during this scan, then $E > n$, and the case clause is null or illegal.

The action for comma, which is already defined to be POP, is correct. This construction will select and execute one of the clauses $C_1,C_2...C_n$, according to the value of E. It is very easy to write a random sentence generating program in a version of Mouse to which a random number generator and a case construction have been added.

The facilities for annotating Mouse programs are very limited. Strings in quotes may be used in the main program outside loops. These serve as comments to the program

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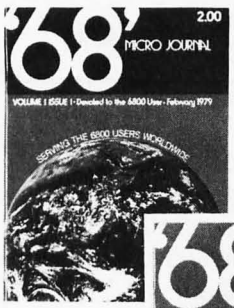

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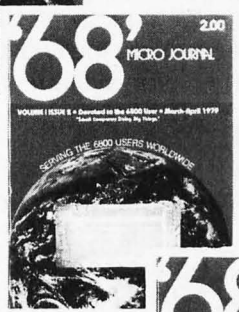

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text and also as a guide to progress when the program is running, since they are printed by the interpreter. The interpreter ignores text between macro definitions, so macroinstructions can be titled. However, these methods use up valuable space in the array PROG. A better solution is to use a special symbol such as ' (apostrophe), or a pair of symbols such as { and } , and to modify the loader so that it does not store comments in memory.

Conclusion

Mouse is simple enough to be implemented on a small computer system in a few days, yet it is rich enough to give insight into the mechanisms used by much higher level languages. The Mouse interpreter can be used by itself or as part of a larger system. The General Purpose Macrogenerator is considerably more powerful than Mouse, but nonetheless I think that Strachey's appraisal of the GPM provides an apt conclusion:

> It has been our experience that the GPM, while a very powerful tool in the hands of a ruthless programmer, is something of a trap for the unsophisticated one. It contains in itself all the undesirable features of every possible machine code – in the sense of inviting endless tricks and time-wasting though fascinating exercises in ingenuity – without any of the irritating *ad hoc* features of real machines. It can also be almost impenetrably opaque, and even very experienced programmers indeed tend to spend hours simulating its action when one of their macro definitions goes wrong. Furthermore, it is remarkably good at using up machine time – fortunately the programs written for it are usually rather short. ■

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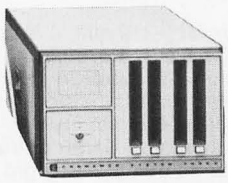

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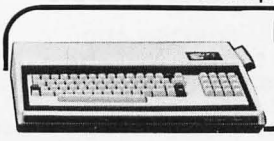

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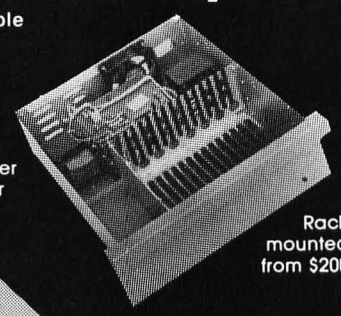

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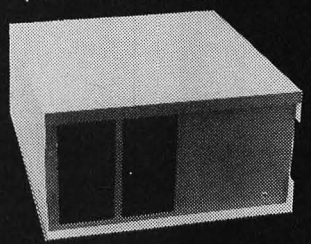

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Intel 8080 Microprocessor Instruction Set

Technical Forum

In my work with the 8080 microprocessor, I have found the accompanying instruction set summary very useful. The instructions are grouped in five tables according to function, with a single line summary being given for each instruction. In addition, there is an explanatory table of nomenclature and symbols. The order of the instructions is the same as given in the *Intel 8080 Microcomputer Systems User's Manual*. The method of tabulation makes it very clear which registers and flags are affected by the execution of each instruction.

R S Clist PhD, Scientist,
Electronics Group, Dept of Scientific and Industrial Research, POB 2225, Auckland
NEW ZEALAND.■

Symbol	Meaning
A	8 bit accumulator
B, C, D, E, H, L	8 bit general purpose registers
F	Condition code flags Z, S, P, CY, AC (Zero, Sign, Parity, Carry, and Auxiliary Carry)
PSW	16 bit Processor Status Word (comprising A and F)
rp	One of the register pairs B representing BC; D representing DE; H representing HL; SP representing 16 bit stack pointer
PC	16 bit program counter register
M	Memory location whose address is in HL
r, r1, r2	One of the registers A, B, C, D, E, H, L, or M
r_m	bit m of the register r (7 6 5 4 3 2 1 0)
data	8 bit data quantity
addr, data16	16 bit address or data quantity (note: low byte is stored *first*)
pp	8 bit port number
n	Restart number 0 thru 7
cc	One of the condition code tests: NZ not zero (Z = 0); Z zero (Z = 1); NC no carry (CY = 0); C carry (CY = 1); PO parity odd (P = 0); PE parity even (P = 1); P plus (S = 0); M minus (S = 1)
( )	indirect reference
−(SP)	stack push operation
(SP)+	stack pop operation
←	is replaced by
↔	is exchanged with
−	boolean NOT (bar above symbol)
Λ	boolean AND
V	boolean OR
⊻	boolean Exclusive − OR
+	addition
−	two's complement subtraction

Data Transfer Group

Flags affected Z S P CY AC	Registers affected	Bytes	Op code	Operands	Meaning	Action	
	r2	1	MOV	r2, r1	Move register r1 to register r2	r2 ← r1	
	r	2	MVI	r, data	Move immediate data	r ← data	
	rp	3	LXI	rp, data16	Load register pair immediate	rp ← data16	
	A	3	LDA	addr	Load accumulator direct	A ← (addr)	
		3	STA	addr	Store accumulator direct	(addr) ← A	
	HL	3	LHLD	addr	Load HL direct	HL ← (addr)	
		3	SHLD	addr	Store HL direct	(addr) ← HL	
	A	1	LDAX	rp*	Load A indirect	A ← (rp)	
		1	STAX	rp*	Store A indirect	(rp) ← A	
	HL, DE	1	XCHG		Exchange HL with DE	HL ↔ DE	*B or D only

Arithmetic Group

√ √ √ √ √	A, F	1	ADD	r	Add register	A ← A + r	
√ √ √ √ √	A, F	2	ADI	data	Add immediate	A ← A + data	
√ √ √ √ √	A, F	1	ADC	r	Add register with carry	A ← A + r + CY	
√ √ √ √ √	A, F	2	ACI	data	Add immediate with carry	A ← A + data + CY	
√ √ √ √ √	A, F	1	SUB	r	Subtract register	A ← A − r	
√ √ √ √ √	A, F	2	SUI	data	Subtract immediate	A ← A − data	
√ √ √ √ √	A, F	1	SBB	r	Subtract register with borrow	A ← A − r − CY	
√ √ √ √ √	A, F	2	SBI	data	Subtract immediate with borrow	A ← A − data − CY	
√ √ √ √	r, F	1	INR	r	Increment register	r ← r + 1	
√ √ √ √	r, F	1	DCR	r	Decrement register	r ← r − 1 *	
	rp	1	INX	rp	Increment register pair	rp ← rp + 1	*binary subtraction
	rp	1	DCX	rp	Decrement register pair	rp ← rp − 1 *	
√	HL, CY	1	DAD	rp	Add register pair to HL	HL ← HL + rp	
√ √ √ √ √	A, F	1	DAA		Decimal adjust accumulator	The 8 bit number in A is adjusted to form two 4 bit BCD digits.	

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Logical Group

Flags affected Z	S	P	CY	AC	Registers affected	Bytes	Op code	Operands	Meaning	Action
√	√	√	0	√	A, F	1	ANA	r	AND register	A ← A ∧ r
√	√	√	0	√	A, F	2	ANI	data	AND immediate	A ← A ∧ data
√	√	√	0	0	A, F	1	XRA	r	Exclusive –OR register	A ← A ⊻ r
√	√	√	0	0	A, F	2	XRI	data	Exclusive –OR immediate	A ← A ⊻ data
√	√	√	0	0	A, F	1	ORA	r	OR register	A ← A ∨ r
√	√	√	0	0	A, F	2	ORI	data	OR immediate	A ← A ∨ data
√	√	√	√	√	F	1	CMP	r	Compare register	A – r (Z = 1 if A = r) (CY = 1 if A < r)
√	√	√	√	√	F	2	CPI	data	Compare immediate	A – data (Z = 1 if A = data) (CY = 1 if A < data)
		√			A, CY	1	RLC		Rotate left	$A_{n+1} \leftarrow A_n, A_0 \leftarrow A_7, CY \leftarrow A_7$
		√			A, CY	1	RRC		Rotate right	$A_n \leftarrow A_{n+1}, A_7 \leftarrow A_0, CY \leftarrow A_0$
		√			A, CY	1	RAL		Rotate left through carry	$A_{n+1} \leftarrow A_n, CY \leftarrow A_7, A_0 \leftarrow CY$
		√			A, CY	1	RAR		Rotate right through carry	$A_n \leftarrow A_{n+1}, CY \leftarrow A_0, A_7 \leftarrow CY$
					A	1	CMA		Complement accumulator	$A \leftarrow \overline{A}$
			√		CY	1	CMC		Complement carry	$CY \leftarrow \overline{CY}$
			1		CY	1	STC		Set carry	CY ← 1

Branch Group

Flags affected Z	S	P	CY	AC	Registers affected	Bytes	Op code	Operands	Meaning	Action
					PC	3	JMP	addr	Jump	PC ← addr
					PC	3	Jcc	addr	Conditional jump	PC ← addr (if cc true)
					PC, SP	3	CALL	addr	Call	–(SP) ← PC, PC ← addr
					PC, SP	3	Ccc	addr	Conditional call	–(SP) ← PC, PC ← addr (if cc true)
					PC, SP	1	RET		Return	PC ← (SP)+
					PC, SP	1	Rcc		Conditional return	PC ← (SP)+ (if cc true)
					PC, SP	1	RST	n	Restart	–(SP) ← PC, PC ← 8n
					PC	1	PCHL		Jump HL indirect	PC ← HL

Stack, I/O, and Machine Control Group

Flags affected Z	S	P	CY	AC	Registers affected	Bytes	Op code	Operands	Meaning	Action
					SP	1	PUSH	rp*	Push register pair	–(SP) ← rp
					SP	1	PUSH	PSW	Push processor status word	–(SP) ← A, F
					SP, rp	1	POP	rp*	Pop register pair	rp ← (SP)+
√	√	√	√	√	SP, A, F	1	POP	PSW	Pop processor status word	A, F ← (SP)+
					HL	1	XTHL		Exchange stack top with HL	HL ⟷ (SP)
					SP	1	SPHL		Move HL to SP	SP ← HL
					A	2	IN	pp	Input	A ← (pp)
						2	OUT	pp	Output	(pp) ← A
						1	EI		Enable interrupts	Enable interrupts after execution of *next* instruction.
						1	DI		Disable interrupts	Disable interrupts after execution of *this* instruction.
						1	HLT		Halt	Stop the processor (may be started again only by interrupt or hardware restart).
						1	NOP		No Operation	No operation is performed.

* B, D, or H only

Technical Forum

Headwind Progress Made

In "Computer Assisted Flight Planning" (March 1979 BYTE, page 206), the author did, indeed, identify a problem suited for the computer. One aspect of the article is unclear and I would like to suggest a solution to the headwind/tailwind limitation described by the author.

The unclear aspect of the article relates to the *two pass* system. Such a system is not really necessary as the author has already solved the problem. The *drift* equation is the exact solution of the velocity vector triangle for the crab angle (angle at which the plane must be turned so that the resultant forces of the wind and airplane produce travel in the desired direction). In other words, the *drift* plus the *true course heading* yields the *true heading* to be taken. The given equation is instructive in that all elements are included for students to identify. However, for programmable calculators with very limited program steps, this equation can be shortened by using the identities:

$\sin(-x)=-\sin(x)$
and
$\sin(x\pm180)=-\sin(x)$.

This yields:

$$\text{drift}=\sin^{-1}\left[\frac{\text{wind}}{\text{true}}\times\sin(\text{wind-true})\right]$$

where *wind direction* is defined as the direction from which the wind is coming.

The author, in solving the velocity vector triangle for the ground speed, uses the Law of Sines. This introduces the limitation that the equation cannot be used for direct tail wind or head wind situations, since a non-physical answer results from division by zero (sin (0) = 0). The use of the Law of Cosines avoids this problem and yields:

$$GS=\sqrt{(TAS)^2+W^2-2(W)\,(TAS)\cos(WD-TC-CA)}$$

where:

GS = ground speed,
TAS = true air speed,
W = wind speed,
WD = wind direction (the direction *from* which the wind is coming),
TC = true course heading,
CA = crab angle ■

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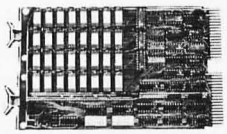

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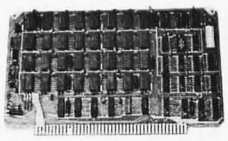

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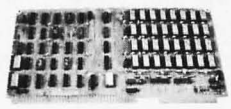

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Subroutine Parameters

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If you've written computer programs in any language, you must be aware by now what a subroutine is, although you might not have written any. The basic concept of a subroutine is present in all computer languages, although every language implements it a bit differently from the others. In systems based on the 8080, the 8085, or the Z-80, you write CALL SUB to call the subroutine called SUB. On the 6800 and the 6502, it's JSR SUB, while in BASIC it's GOSUB α where the first statement of the subroutine SUB is on line number α. But regardless of the language, the concept is the same: you have something in your program that you want to do more than once. It may be looking up an element in a table; it may be printing out a list; it may be making an access to a data structure; but whatever it is, you need it at various times in your program. You don't want to have to write out the same instructions over again every time you need that particular job to be done, because this is wasteful of memory space. So, therefore, you group together the instructions that do this job into a *subroutine*, and then, at any point that you want the job to be done, you put in an instruction to *call* the subroutine. When the subroutine is finished, it *returns* to the point immediately following the place where it was called; and this is also done differently in different programming languages – one writes RETURN in BASIC, RET for the 8080 and Z-80, and RTS (return from subroutine) for the 6800 and 6502.

All this is fine if the job you want to do repeatedly is exactly the same every time you want to do it. But, in practice, this is usually not the case. For example, if you are looking up an element in a table, you are probably looking up a different element each time. If you are multiplying two 16 bit quantities – a very common subject for a small system subroutine – the quantities you are multiplying are probably not the same from one multiplication to the next, and the result is also probably not the same variable. This is true even though the logic of multiplication does stay the same. It is this that has led to the idea of subroutine parameters, the subject of this article.

Parameters

In applied mathematics, there is a concept of parameter which will be familiar to those small system users who have backgrounds in engineering or physical science. Consider, for example, the graph of a function. You are usually expressing y in terms of x, but if you are constructing the graph of a circle, it is sometimes more useful to introduce another variable θ to represent the angle, and then to express both x and y in terms of θ. The variable θ, in this context, is called a parameter. In computer programming, however, whether on large systems or small ones, the word "parameter" has a more general meaning, and one which does not require any knowledge of applied mathematics; it is simply any variable which is used by a subroutine, and which is supplied to that subroutine by the program that calls it.

Parameters of subroutines are related to *arguments* (sometimes also called parameters or formal parameters) of functions. If you have a function $f(t)$ or $g(a, b)$ or $h(x, y, z)$, then t, a, b, x, y, and z are the arguments. On a computer, the value of a function is computed by a subroutine, and this must be considered as one special kind of subroutine. Some languages allow you to use functional notation for functions; thus $h(x, y, z)$ might be FNH(X, Y, Z) in BASIC, for example (provided that the definition of h was simple enough). In assembly language, however, one generally uses the same instructions (CALL, JSR, or whatever), whether one is calling a subroutine to calculate the value of a function, or a more general subroutine.

Those who work with big computers have laid out a considerable amount of terminology dealing with parameters and how they are supplied, or *passed*, to a subroutine by the program that calls it (and sometimes vice versa). One of the purposes of this article is to lay out this terminology for the small system user so that he or she will not have to reinvent the wheel. It should be emphasized that, for a long time, mathematicians be-

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lieved that there ought to be a single concept of parameter that would work well in all situations. Gradually we have come to realize that there are at least four, and probably a good deal more, reasonable implementations of parameter passing. These will be detailed in what follows.

Two Examples

To illustrate why the concept of parameter differs from one situation to another, let us consider two simple subroutines: an output subroutine and a multiplication subroutine. The output subroutine will be called OUTPUT(X), and its job will be to output the character X. The multiplication subroutine will be called MULT16(I, J, N), and its job will be to multiply the two 16 bit quantities I and J, producing the result N. The problem we are to solve is how to call OUTPUT(Z), OUTPUT(Q), and so on, for various characters we wish to output, and similarly MULT16(A, B, C), MULT16(U, V, W), and so on, for various multiplications we wish to perform.

Consider first the case of the output subroutine. Suppose that in this subroutine there is a variable called X. In order to output Z, for example, we move Z to X just before calling OUTPUT. The same sort of thing will work for Q, or any other character we wish to output. This method of passing parameters is known as call by value. It may be defined more formally as follows. Suppose we have a subroutine such as OUTPUT(X), where X stands for *any* parameter, such as Z or Q, that might actually be supplied. Here Z and Q are called the *actual* parameters, and X is called the *formal* parameter. Then call by value consists of:

1. Moving the value of the actual parameter to the formal parameter. (If there is more than one formal parameter – as in the case of a function *h(x, y, z)* – then they must all be moved.)
2. Calling the subroutine.

In assembly language it is very common for X, in a situation such as the above, to be a register. Then all we have to do is to load the register before we call the subroutine; the subroutine assumes that Z, or Q, or whatever stands for X, is in that register. (On the 8080, the Z-80, the 6800, and the 6502, the most common register used for this purpose is the A register, although ISIS, the operating system for the Intellec, which is an 8080 based system, uses the C register.)

If we now look at MULT16, however, we can see without too much trouble that call by value doesn't work. Let us see why not by laying out a specific example. Suppose we are calling MULT16(U, V, W), where MULT16 has been defined as a subroutine with parameters I, J, and N. That is, I, J, and N are the formal parameters, while U, V, and W are the actual parameters. To use call by value, we would first have to move the values of U, V, and W into I, J, and N. That is, U would be moved to I; V would be moved to J; and W would be moved to N. Now we would call the subroutine; and the subroutine, we are assuming, multiplies the 16 bit quantities I and J and sets N equal to the result.

What is wrong with this? Since we were calling MULT16(U, V, W), what we presumably wanted was to multiply the two 16 bit numbers U and V, and set W equal to the result. It is not too hard to see that we did, actually, multiply U by V, because we set I equal to U, and J equal to V, and then we multiplied I by J. But what happens to W? We set N equal to the result of multiplying U by V; but we didn't set W equal to anything. (We also, earlier, set N equal to W – an unneeded and useless operation.) The general situation here is that whenever we have a *formal* parameter that is *set* to some new value by a subroutine, call by value will not work; the formal parameter will not be set to the new value (or to any new value).

Because of this, people who work with big computers came up with three alternative methods of passing parameters. The first of these is known as call by value and result (or sometimes, informally, as "copy-restore"). The second is known as call by reference (or sometimes "call by address" or "call by location"). The third is known as call by name. We shall take up each of these in turn.

Call by Value and Result

Call by value and result is a rather straightforward way of fixing the bug in call by value that should be evident from the preceding discussion. In fact, what we wanted to do in our MULT16 subroutine was as follows:

1. Set I equal to U and J equal to V.
2. Call the subroutine (which multiplies I by J, giving N).
3. Set W equal to N.

In other words, there are two parameter-passing operations – one just before the subroutine starts, the second one after it ends – and one is the reverse of the other. In the first operation, we move *actual* parameters to *formal* parameters. In the second opera-

tion, we move *formal* parameters to *actual* parameters. The parameters we move the first time are the ones that are *used* by the subroutine; the parameters we move the second time are the ones that are *set* by the subroutine.

But how can we tell which parameters are used and which ones are set? It won't always be the case that the first two are used and the last one is set (if there are three altogether). They might all be used, or two of them might be set, or any number of possible combinations. Again, there is more than one reasonable solution to this problem.

The solution chosen by the designers of a number of computer languages in widespread use by the American military establishment (NELIAC, JOVIAL, CMS-2) was to build the distinction between used and returned parameters into the syntax of the language. In other words, when you call a subroutine in any one of these languages, you would have to specify, in some way, which of these you intended to be used and which you intended to be returned. (JOVIAL, for example, uses a semicolon; we would speak of MULT16(U, V; W), for example, where the semicolon separates the used parameters U and V from the returned parameter W.) This certainly solves the problem, although only if you are going to use call by value and result, at the cost of making life a trifle more complicated for those who don't want to have to worry about how parameters are passed.

The other solution, chosen by IBM, is to regard *all* parameters as *both* used and returned at all times. This may seem a bit wasteful, but in fact, compared to call by reference (to be described below), it is more efficient, most of the time. It does, however, lead to some strange and unusual results, the most famous of which may be illustrated as follows. Suppose we have a subroutine D(X, Y), where X and Y are the formal parameters, and suppose that this sets X to zero and does not change Y. Now suppose that we call D(L,L). Of course, we would like this to set L equal to zero. But see what happens:

1. Since X and Y are treated as both used and returned, our first step is to set X equal to L and Y equal to L.
2. Now we call the subroutine, which sets X equal to zero and does not change Y.
3. Finally, we return the actual parameters. First we return X by setting L equal to X. Since X is now zero, this will set L equal to zero, which is exactly what we wanted. But now we return Y by setting L equal to Y. Since Y is still the original value of L, this will undo the previous result, and the final outcome will be that L is the same after calling D as it was beforehand!

The behavior illustrated above can be avoided simply by setting L1 equal to L and then calling D(L, L1), rather than D(L, L). In general, when using call by value and result, with all parameters used and returned, one should never use two actual parameters which are the same. The problem above actually happened to a student of this author, who wrote a big FORTRAN program that ran on the CDC 6400, a computer using call by reference – to be described below – but mysteriously failed to run on the IBM 360, a computer using call by value and result. Many hours of analysis traced the bug to a subroutine call like D(L, L) above.

Call by Reference

Call by reference, historically, preceded call by value and result, although it was not known by that name at that time. The idea of call by reference is to give the subroutine the *addresses* of its parameters, rather than their values. Then, when the subroutine either uses or sets one of its formal parameters, it does so by making a *reference* to that address. Let us see how this would work on a small system:

1. On the 8080, you can load the HL register pair with the address of the parameter α with the instruction LXI H, α just before calling the subroutine. Then, in the subroutine, if you need to load this parameter into any register *r*, you can use MOV *r*,M; if you need to operate on it arithmetically, you can use ADD M, SUB M, ANA M, and the like; if you need to set it to a new value which is now in register *r*, you can use MOV M,*r*. If you need the HL register pair for other purposes in your routine, you can do an XCHG if you don't need the DE register pair, or you can PUSH H while you use HL and POP H afterward. If there are two parameters, you can load one into HL with LXI H, α as before, and load the other one into BC or DE. If there are several parameters, you can push their addresses onto the stack before calling the subroutine, and pop them back within the subroutine.
2. On the 6800, you can load the X register with the address of the parameter α with the instruction LDX # α (where the # specifies an immediate addressing instruction) just before calling the subroutine. You can now use indexed addressing instructions to manipulate the parameter by loading it (LDAA 0,X or LDAB 0,X), storing it (STAA 0,X or STAB 0,X), or performing arithmetic operations such as ADDA 0,X or ANDB 0,X.

If there is more than one parameter, you can move the addresses of all the actual parameters to fixed locations within the subroutine before calling it. The subroutine can then load each of these into the X register when needed, after which any of the indexed instructions discussed above may be used.

3. On the 6502, there is a general method involving loading the X register, just before calling the subroutine, with the address of a table of addresses of actual parameters. That is, we execute LDX #α where we have written (in page zero):

```
α    DFB    U MOD 256
     DFB    U/256
     DFB    V MOD 256
     DFB    V/256
     DFB    W MOD 256
     DFB    W/256
```

for example, defining a byte for the low order address and then for the high order address of each of the parameters U, V, and W. One can then make reference to the actual parameters by indexed indirect addressing: LDA (0,X) for U, LDA (2,X) for V, and LDA (4,X) for W. This is perfectly general, since LDA (load) can be replaced by STA (store), ADC (add with carry), CMP (compare), AND, and so on.

4. On the Z-80, you can (as always) mimic the 8080, or you can use registers IX and IY to contain the addresses of parameters.

An additional advantage of call by reference is that it allows you to have, as a parameter, the name of an array. For example, you might be writing a subroutine to compare two character strings to see if they are the same. There would be two parameters, namely the two character strings. If you used call by value, you would have to move these entire strings into new locations just before calling the subroutine. This would be wasteful of both time and space, and is, in fact, never done; even systems that use call by value or call by value and result, if they allow array names as parameters, use call by reference (or call by name, to be discussed below) for these. Thus you would only be passing, from the program to the subroutine, the two string starting addresses; that is, for each string, the address of its first byte.

One important source of confusion, when call by reference is used, has to do with how to return a parameter. A large number of programmers try, when they are writing a subroutine, to have it put its answer "somewhere" and then furnish the main program with the address of where that "somewhere" is. This never works, because the main program has no way of using that information. It is not up to the *subroutine* to tell the main program where the information is to be returned; it is up to the main program to tell the subroutine *where to return* the information, and then the subroutine *must* return the information to that point. In particular, the subroutine will never be right if it returns a parameter to a fixed location. When writing a subroutine, if call by reference is used, it should be remembered that this subroutine can be called more than once, with different actual parameters each time, and therefore, when it changes the value of one of its actual parameters, that change must be made by storing this new value in an *indexed* location – where the index is normally the HL register pair on the 8080, the X register on the 6800 and 6502, and (possibly) the IX or IY register on the Z-80.

Call by reference is, in general, more inefficient than call by value and result, particularly if we make reference to a parameter inside a loop. One technique that has been tried on big computers, and works rather well for subroutines that take large amounts of time, is address modification. This involves storing the addresses which are passed as parameters directly into the instructions that use them. Unfortunately, this technique is inappropriate in most microcomputer systems, where the instructions are in read only memory and thus cannot be modified as the program is running. It should also be mentioned that on some systems which use both call by reference and call by value and result, the second of these is implemented as a special case of the first. That is, it is always the addresses, or references, that are passed (so that there is only one kind of standard subroutine protocol rather than two), but, whenever call by value and result is to be used, the subroutine – rather than the main program – performs the setting of formal parameters to actual parameter values and vice versa.

Call by Name

This brings us, finally, to call by name – the easiest to define, and yet the hardest to understand, of the better known parameter passing methods. For years, call by name was a *pons asinorum* among big computer software people; that is, the way of distinguishing the bright from the dumb, or the "with-it" from the "not-with-it," was whether you understood call by name. Lately there has been a bit less interest in call by name among practical computer people, since, although it was used in ALGOL 60, one of the first big computer

languages (in both senses – big [computer languages] and [big computer] languages), it has not been used in most languages developed since then. But an understanding of it, and of some of the problems that arise with it, is still essential to the amateur as well as the professional computer scientist.

Call by name is defined as follows. Suppose I have a subroutine with a formal parameter X. Suppose I call this subroutine, with actual parameter Y. Then call by name implies that the subroutine is executed as if we had gone through it and substituted Y for every occurrence of X.

There is one important proviso to the above, which may be illustrated as follows. Suppose that in the subroutine we have A = B·X. Suppose now that the actual parameter is not Y, but rather U+V. (It is quite permissible to call SUB(U+V), for example, where SUB is the name of a subroutine.) Now we would like to proceed as if A = B·X really means A = B·(U+V); but if we substitute U+V for X, as in the above definition, we obtain A = B·U+V, which is not quite the same. Therefore we need to change the definition so as to specify the insertion of parentheses. On the other hand, it should also be clear that we do not want to insert parentheses all the time. For example, the variable A could have been the formal parameter, rather than X. In this case, the actual parameter could not be U+V, because then A = B·X would be interpreted as (U+V) = B·X, which makes no sense. But suppose the actual parameter is Y, just as before; we still don't want to write (Y) = B·X (with parentheses) in BASIC or any other algebraic language. Therefore the rule is that the actual parameter is substituted for the formal parameter, *inserting parentheses wherever syntactically possible* (this is the phrase used in the definition of ALGOL 60).

So long as the actual parameters are not expressions like U+V (or like A(I), which could be either a subscripted variable or a reference to a function), call by name is almost identical to call by reference. Therefore, in studying the differences between the two, we have to look at the general rules for handling actual parameters which are expressions. These are that an actual parameter cannot be an expression (other than a single variable, either subscripted or not) when the corresponding formal parameter is *returned*, as we have illustrated above with the formal parameter A and the actual parameter U+V; and, of course, a *formal* parameter can never be an expression.

Suppose now that in our subroutine we have S = S+X, where X is a formal parameter, and the corresponding actual parameter is A(I). (This is a simplification of an actual example given with the definition of ALGOL 60.) Therefore S = S+X becomes S = S+A(I). But now suppose that we want to do this for I = 1 to 10. That would be, presumably, a way of adding the numbers A(1) through A(10), if S were originally set to zero. If we use call by reference, however, this won't work. In call by reference, the address of the actual parameter – in this case, the address of A(I) – would be given to the subroutine. When the subroutine does S = S+X, it would get X from the location which has that address. But that location is a *constant* location – the location, in fact, of A(I) where the variable I has whatever value it had before the subroutine was called. This means that we add X ten times, whatever X is, and in this case we add the *same* value of A(I) ten times, rather than adding A(1) through A(10).

How would we implement call by name? In the above case, when the subroutine does S = S+X, it has to have a way of finding out whether X will stand for a different variable each time. Therefore it loads S and then calls a subroutine to find the value of X, which it then adds and stores the result in S. This means that it is *the address of the start of this subroutine* that is passed, rather than the address of X itself as in call by reference. (This is known as Jensen's device, after a programmer at Regnecentralen, or the National Computer Center of Denmark, who used it in implementing ALGOL 60.) We should remark that there is another entirely different way of implementing call by name, which is to replace each *call* to a subroutine, separately, by the subroutine with the substitutions performed as discussed above. This won't work for ALGOL 60, because it won't work, in general, for recursive subroutines, and it also takes up quite a bit of space if the subroutines are long.

Call by name is considerably less efficient than the other methods we have discussed, which is a big reason for its general decline. Nevertheless, it has its own unexpected advantages. Let us consider a subroutine like D(X, Y), which we discussed earlier, but this time suppose that it simply *uses* X and does not use Y, and let us call D(A, F(B)), where F(B) is a reference to a function. Suppose further that the calculation of F(B) (for some reason) gets the computer into an endless loop. If we use call by name, then, since we never use Y, we have no occasion to call the subroutine that calculates Y – that is, we never call F(B). If we use call by value, however, the first thing we do is to set X equal to A and Y equal to F(B). The result is that we get into the endless loop, in this case, if we use call by value, but not if we use call by name. ■

Languages Forum

A "Tiny" Pascal Source Creator

Thomas W Phillips MD
RD 1-551
Chenango Lake Rd
Norwich NY 13815

I would like to thank you for publishing "A 'Tiny' Pascal Compiler" by Kin-Man Chung and Herbert Yuen (September, October and November 1978 BYTE). I now have the compiler working without problems on my 8080 system (Altair with North Star Disk). It is a fascinating way to learn about compilers and Pascal.

I am not sure how Mr Chung and Mr Yuen create their Pascal source programs; however, listing 1 shows my method of creating the Pascal source. Editing is easy with North Star BASIC.

Listing 1

```
100  DATA " ! CALCULATE SQUARE. ! "
110  DATA " VAR A,B:INTEGER; "
120  DATA " BEGIN "
130  DATA " READ (B#); "
140  DATA " A:=B*B; "
150  DATA " WRITE (13,10); "
160  DATA " WRITE (B#,' SQUARED IS ',
     A#,13,10); "
170  DATA " CALL (%0800) "
180  DATA " END. "
190  DATA " "
200  DATA " XX "'
210  DIM A$(100)
220  A$=" "
230  OPEN #1,"A"
240  READ A$
250  IF A$ (1,2)="XX" THEN 290
260  WRITE #1,A$,NOENDMARK
270  A$=" "
280  GOTO 240
290  CLOSE #1
300  CHAIN " PASCAL "
READY
RUN

PASCAL & PASCAL 2

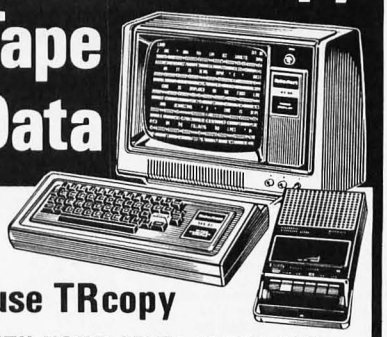
P-CODES STARTS AT 0000


0 $A
0 ! CALCULATE SQUARE. !
0 VAR A,B:INTEGER;
1 BEGIN
1 READ (B#);
```

Listing 1 continued on page 232

Circle 96 on inquiry card.

See and Copy Tape Data



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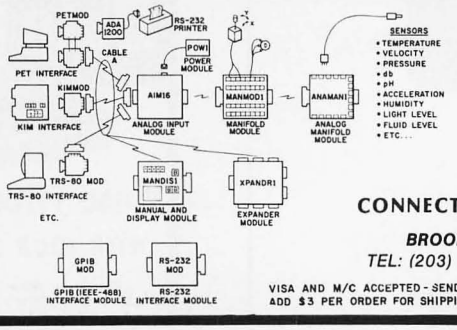

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Listing 1 continued from page 231:

```
4 A:=B*B;
8 WRITE (13,10);
12 WRITE (B#,'SQUARED IS',A#,13,10);
34 CALL(%0800)
36 END.


PCODTR & PCODTR2
*** P-CODE TO 8080 TRANSLATION ***
PAS.LIB=1A00
P-CODE=0000
8080 OUTPUT=0800
STACK START ADDRESS=8000
STACK END ADDRESS=A000
2 REFERENCES
2 ACTUAL LABELS
0 0809 09 0F 12 18 1A 1D 20 26 2C 2F 35 38 3E 41
15 0847 4D 53 59 5F 65 6B 71 77 7D 83 89 8F 52 58
30 085B 61 64 6A 6D 73 76 79
0 FORWARD REFERENCES
P-CODE.. 37 INSTRUCTIONS
8080.. 121 BYTES
P-CODE:8080 = .81756757
* END TRANSLATION *
READY
BYE
*LF PAS.LIB 1A00
*JP0800
?1
1 SQUARED IS 1
?2
2 SQUARED IS 4 ■
```


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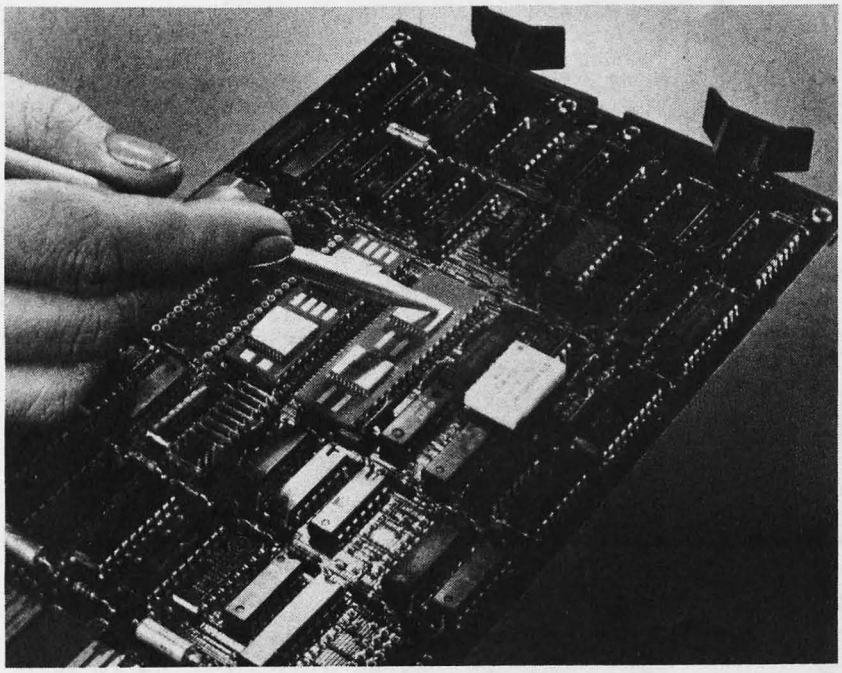
What's New?

Digital Introduces LSI-11/23 and PDP-11/23 Microcomputers

This new microcomputer called the LSI-11/23 from Digital Equipment Corp, 146 Main St, Maynard MA 01754 has the funtionality and software compatibility of a midrange minicomputer, yet it consists of two 5.2 by 8.9 inch (13.42 by 22.61 cm) boards and backplane. A rack mountable, packaged version, the PDP-11/23, has also been announced. Both versions can run the RSX-11M and 11S operating systems that were previously available only on mid to high-range PDP-11 minicomputers.



The LSI-11/23 features 256 K bytes of memory capacity. It uses the full instruction set of the PDP-11/34 minicomputer, and software supported memory segmentation and protection features of the RSX-11M and 11S multitasking, multiuser operating systems. The LSI-11/23 has the same small size circuit boards as the LSI-11/2, which permit easier placement in instruments and specialized systems. The LSI-11/23 has an optional floating point processor integrated circuit.

Besides accommodating RSX-11M and 11S software, the LSI-11/23 and PDP-11/23 run all software developed for the LSI-11 family without modification. This includes the RT-11 operating system and high level languages such as BASIC, FORTRAN IV and FOCAL. The LSI-11/23 is at least twice as fast as previous LSI-11 family members.

The system is plug compatible with the entry level LSI-11/2. It is also software compatible with the LSI-11/2 and PDP-11 minicomputers.

In 100 unit quantities, the LSI-11/23 and PDP-11/23 are priced at $1,758 and $4,500 respectively. The single unit price of the PDP-11/23 is $6,800. A new programmable read only memory board for $300 and programmable read only memory programmer for $1,975 have also been introduced.

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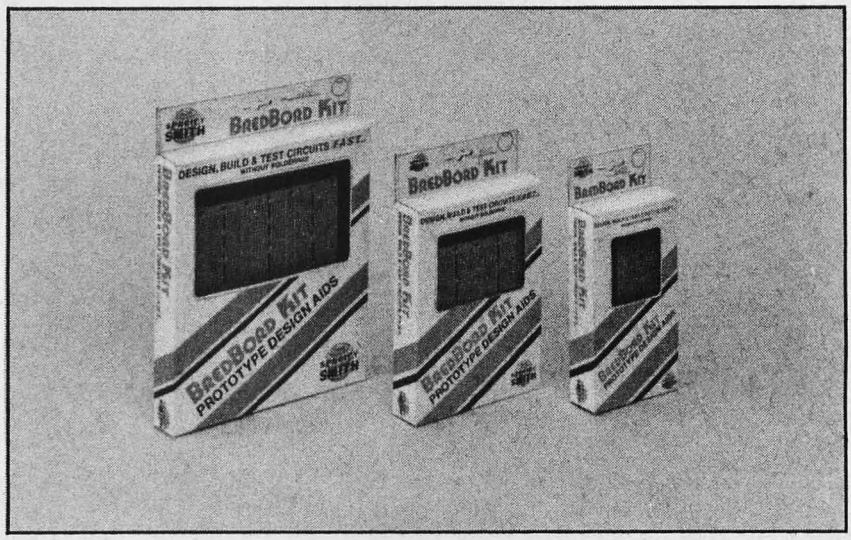

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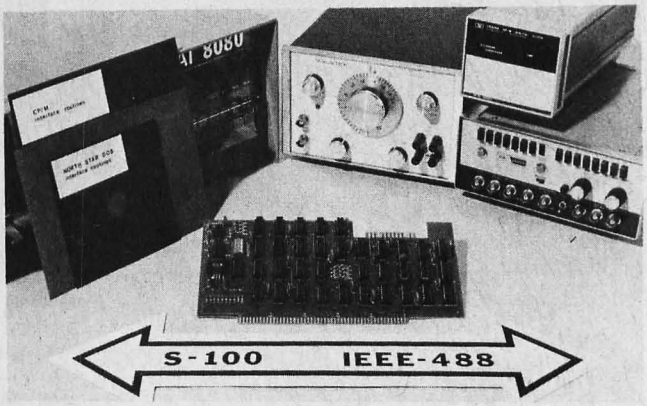

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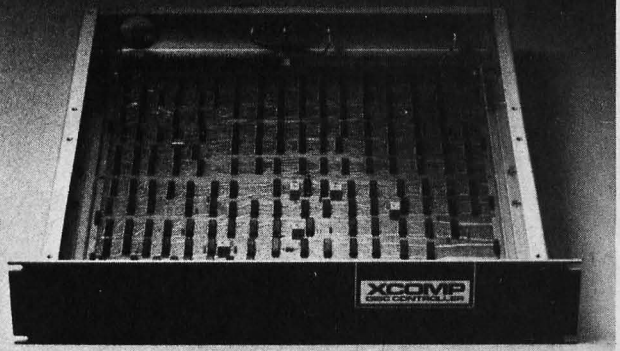

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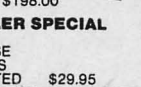

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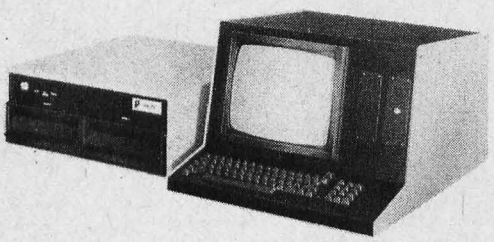
Key-to-Disk Software Available for Microcomputers



A new key-to-disk software (P1-KTDS), designed to run on 8080 and Z-80 microcomputers, has been announced by Phone 1, POB 1522, Rockford IL 61110. The software supports four video terminals, four floppy disk drives, line printer, and 3780 communications. The P1-KTDS package allows up to four video users to define and select as many as four screen formats per user. Each format may contain as many as 40 user specified fields. Constant data fields may also be specified.

In addition to data entry, data verification is also included as a feature of the system. Verification is done on each field specified as a verify field whenever the verify option is enabled. Each of the four users has a separate disk drive that stores the formats and data records for the particular video assigned to the drive.

The P1-KTDS software is currently shipping on Phone 1's P1-5 Data Concentrator product which utilizes the 8080 microcomputer, 8214 and 8259 interrrupt controllers, 8251 terminal and printer controllers. Mylar decals, which attach to the front edge of the video keytops, guide the user in efficiently entering data.

P1-KTDS source module on CP/M or FDOS III compatible disk, limited use license, users manual, and four sets of keyboard decals are priced at $2,500. The users manual is available separately for $35.

Circle 629 on inquiry card.

Business Software Packages

A line of 21 fully integrated and auto-chaining business software packages is available from Univair International, 10327 Lambert International Airport, St Louis MO 63145. Some of the major programs include General Ledger, Accounts Payable, Accounts Receivable, Payroll, Inventory, Dental Management System, Medical Management System, Real Estate Multi-List, Insurance Agency, Credit Union, Data Base Management, and Word Processing. All programs are run under CP/M or IMDOS with commercial BASIC and 31 K bytes of programmable memory. A system of automatic chaining, posting, file backups, and updates is incorporated.

The cost of each program on an eight inch soft-sectored floppy disk is $395. Complete source code and operators manual are provided. Programs are also available on five inch Northstar or five inch Micropolis disks.

Circle 630 on inquiry card.

Software for the Apple II Computer

Softape, 10756 Vanowen St, North Hollywood CA 91605 has an extensive selection of software available for the Apple II computer. One such program, Appletalker accepts voice or audio information through the cassette input port, digitizes the information, and stores it in numbered tables in the computer's memory. The stored information can then be played back using the Apple's on board speaker.

Apple-Lis'ner allows the user to communicate with the Apple II computer via spoken words. By using a cassette recorder and microphone, Apple Lis'ner will listen for the words or phrases it has learned and respond under program control.

For more information on these and other Apple II programs, write to Softape at the above address.

Circle 631 on inquiry card.

8080 Simulator for the 6502

Now available in a KIM-1 version, the 8080 Simulator for the 6502 processor executes the entire 8080 instruction set. All internal 8080 registers are maintained, ready for convenient examination or modification of their contents. In its minimum configuration on the KIM-1, the 8080 Simulator supports register single step, program counter single step and run modes. It also offers an input and an output port, breakpoint operation, and rejection of illegal opcodes.

The 8080 Simulator runs in less than 1 K of memory, leaving up to 224 bytes of 8080 programming space on an unexpanded KIM-1. The Simulator may be relocated in read only memory and can be adapted to other 6502 based systems.

Well suited to all but time sensitive applications, the 8080 Simulator may be used to assist in the design and testing of 8080 software, used as a training aid or used for running most 8080 application software. The package consists of a KIM-1 format cassette tape, a user manual and a complete, commented assembly level source and object listing. The price is $18 plus $1.50 for postage and handling. For further information, contact Dann McCreary, 4758 Mansfield St #2B, San Diego CA 92116.

Circle 633 on inquiry card.

Software for the Micropolis Floppy Disk System

The Basically Speaking Co has announced the availability of software for the Micropolis five inch floppy disk systems. Statpak includes the ability to create a data file and to do multiple statistical analyses on a data base. Available statistical functions include Chi Square, analysis of variance and linear regression.

Gradebook allows school teachers to use their computer as a gradebook. Multiple classes are allowed, as well as missing assignments, excused absences, and addition and deletion of student records. A grade figuring program called Reportcard is included.

The Personal Accounts Ledger (PAL) program keeps not only a checkbook ledger, but a savings ledger, a small business ledger, and an investment ledger, and allows these ledgers and their accounts to be fully integrated. Selected account printing is also supported.

The price is $45 for a Micropolis MDOS (Model I or II) or Micropolis CP/M disk and documentation. The documentation includes full instructions for use, suggestions for modification, and complete listings. For further information contact Basically Speaking, 719 Anna Lee Ln, Bloomington IN 47101.

Circle 632 on inquiry card.

Word Processing System for Z-80 Based Computers with North Star Disk

The Wordsmith is a word processor for Z-80 based computers with North Star floppy disk systems, an RS-232 terminal and a Diablo 1620 or equivalent printer. It provides complete cursor control, block movements, string searches and alterations, insertion and deletion of text, and other editing functions through the use of control commands.

Print formatting commands are entered along with the text and allow the format to be changed while the printing is taking place. The format commands include right justification, setting of margins, automatic paging and headers, four types of paragraphs, insertion of variable data into the text, and operator instructions. Form letters are easily produced, each one personalized for the recipient, through the use of simple text commands. Disk file creation, deletion and updating are handled automatically.

The Wordsmith is priced at $299. For further information contact Southwest Micro-Systems, POB 20088, Riverside CA 92516.

Circle 634 on inquiry card.

ITHACA AUDIO

THE OEM MARKETPLACE

Assembled and Tested Added at Ithaca Audio

Field-proven reliable engineering

Over 15,000 boards worldwide prove Ithaca Audio provides the quality and reliability you demand.
Ithaca Audio Boards are fully S-100 compatible, featuring gold edge connectors and plated-through holes. All boards (except the Protoboard) have fully buffered data and address lines, DIP switch addressing, solder mask and parts legend.

- **Z-80 CPU Board** still the most powerful 8 bit central processor available. Featuring power-on-jump, provision for on-board 2708. Accepts most 8080 software.

A&T 4 mHz	**$205.00**
A&T 2 mHz	**$175.00**
Blank PC	**$ 35.00**

- **Disk Controller Board** controls up to 4 single or double sided drives. Supported by a host of reliable software packages: K2 FDOS, Pascal, Basic and complete diagnostics.

A&T	**$175.00**
Blank PC	**$ 35.00**

- **K2 FDOS** Disk software in the DEC tradition. Includes character oriented text editor (TED), File Package (PIP), Debugger (HDT), Assembler (ASMBLE), HEXBIN, 1 COPY, System Generator (SYSGEN) and more. Command syntax follows Digital's OS-8/RT-11 format. First in a family of high level software. Basic and Pascal available now. Soon-to-be-released Fortran.

K2 Disk	**$ 75.00**

- **Video Display Board** features the full 128 upper/lower case ASCII character set. Easy-to-read 16 line x 64 character format can be displayed on an inexpensive video monitor or modified TV set. Includes TTY software. Add our powerful K2 FDOS to create a versatile operator's console.

A&T	**$145.00**
Blank PC	**$ 25.00**

- **8K Static RAM Board** High speed static memory at a reasonable cost per bit. Includes memory protect/unprotect and selectable wait states.

A&T 250 ns	**$195.00**
A&T 450 ns	**$165.00**
Blank PC	**$ 25.00**

- **2708/2716 EPROM Board** Indispensable for storing dedicated programs and often used software. Accept up to 16K of 2708's or 32K of 2716's.

A&T (less EPROMs)	**$ 95.00**
Blank PC	**$ 25.00**
2708 EPROMs	**$ 11.00**

The leading manufacturer of blank S-100 boards is adding a new wrinkle—now all their boards are available assembled and tested. "This is a natural progression for the company" according to Mr. James Watson, President. "Actually we've been supplying assembled and tested for some time to our volume customers and OEM's, particularly those overseas. Our production staff is now fully up to speed, so just about everything is available from stock." The company scheduled 6 months to phase in assembled and tested to allow time to build base inventories, before offering the boards to the public. "We feel this is quite important. A lot of companies have earned themselves a bad name in this business by announcing products they can't really deliver. We simply won't do that." Mr. Watson further explained that Ithaca Audio intends to remain leader in blank boards and expects to release a minimum of 6 new designs by August, which will be offered both blank and assembled and tested.

Memory Prices Tumble

Ithaca Audio first to break 1¢/Byte Barrier

By cutting prices for 32K of RAM to $319 Ithaca Audio becomes the first computer vendor ever to offer high speed memory for less than a penny a byte. Commenting on the announcement, Steve Edelman, Director of Engineering said "Just a few years ago people were wishing for a penny a *bit*, and even now memory for most large computers costs about 2¢/byte and that's only in 1 Megabyte chunks." In fact it's the relative modest capacity of the 32K board that makes it so interesting. Users need not buy the full 64K to take advantage of the low price per bit. Furthermore, the board is available both as a kit and assembled and tested.
Delivery is stock to two weeks. Pricing is:

• 32K kit	**$319**
• 32K A&T	**$359**
• 64K kit	**$645**
• 64K A&T	**$695**

8" Disk Drives

Shugart compatible Memorex 550's are in stock.
Single and double density compatible, 330K bytes capacity with our controller or use your own.

Either way	**$456**

- **Protoboard** Universal wire-wrap board for developing custom circuitry. Room for three regulators. Accepts any size DIP socket.

Blank PC	**$ 25.00**

Pascal/Z Ready

The first Pascal Compiler for the Z80, and the fastest Z80 Pascal ever is now ready. Over one year in development, Ithaca Audio was obviously pleased with the results. "We really have outperformed them" states Jeff Moskow, Director of Software Engineering, beaming over the recently released benchmarks, in which Pascal/Z averaged better than five times the speed of a recent P-code implementation.

"Pseudo-code means a vendor only has to supply one compiler to lots of people using lots of different machines, and that makes his life very easy, but it also means users' programs execute significantly slower. Therefore, we chose to write a native compiler that delivers fast re-entrant ROMable code, with no need for an intermediate language and interpreter. That's where our speed comes from." As a matter of fact, Pascal/Z is often twenty times as fast as UCSD's implementation and may well be faster than dedicated Pascal machines such as the recently announced Western Digital Pascal Microengine.™ Unlike the Microengine, Pascal/Z does not require any new special CPU hardware and has the added benefit of compatibility with existing Z80 software.

Operational requirements of Pascal/Z are the Ithaca Audio K2 Operating system and 48K of memory during compiles. The output is standard Z80 Macrocode which is linked and run through the Ithaca Audio Macroassembler. Binary files may be as small as 2.5K, or even less if the full library is not used. The compiler, including the Macroassembler, is available on an 8" K2 floppy disk. Price including full documentation is $175.00. The Macroassembler is available separately for $50.00. Delivery is from stock.

More Software:

For those that don't require the speed of a compiler like Pascal/Z, Ithaca Audio also offers the convenience of BASIC. BASIC/Z, an extended version of TDL's Super Basic, runs in slightly over 12K and is supplied on an 8" K2 disk for $75.00.

SAVE Even More -

When you buy your software as a package

K2 and Pascal/Z	**$225**
	SAVE $25
K2, Pascal/Z and Basic/Z	**$275**
	SAVE $50

HOW TO ORDER

Send check or money order, include $2.00 shipping per order. N.Y.S. Residents include tax.

For technical assistance call or write to:

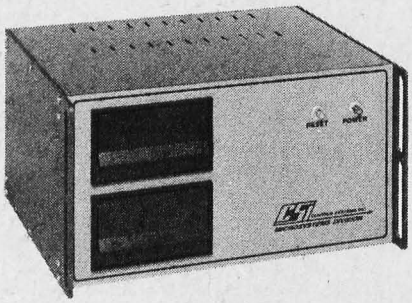
ITHACA AUDIO
P.O. Box 91
Ithaca, New York 14850
Phone: 607/257-0190

Circle 191 on inquiry card.

Home Computer From Bally

The Bally Computer System contains the built-in "Bally Brain," a microprocessor that has a 12 K byte memory. Each optional Bally Videocade cassette adds up to 8 K additional bytes. Also built into the system are a five function, ten memory register calculator, 256 color display variations, stop-action pause control, and automatic shut-off. The unit is available in two player and four player models and has a 16,000 dot picture image. With three arcade games and a 24 key calculator built in, the two player model has a retail price of $299.95 and the four player model is $329.95. Both an optional Bally BASIC programming cassette and an audio cassette interface are priced at $49.95. For further information contact Bally Consumer Products Div, 10750 W Grand Av, Franklin Park IL 60131.

Circle 639 on inquiry card.



Microcomputer Offers Pascal in Programmable Read Only Memory

This new microcomputer designed for use with Pascal is being marketed by Control Systems Inc, Drawer EE, Williamsburg VA 23185. The UDS 470 offers Pascal in programmable read only memory as an alternative to assembly language and BASIC for low and medium volume applications where power and fast development are important. They make available a version of UCSD Pascal specifically designed for read only memory and programmable read only memory operation for use in dedicated applications when the development cycle would be slow with assembly language. The Pascal in programmable read only memory feature makes high level programming as easy as assembly language programming. A Pascal program is compiled (instead of assembled) and compiler output (P-code) is burned into programmable read only memory and erasable read only memory.

The UDS 470 is a rack mountable system designed for industrial environments (high temperature, vibration, etc). It currently uses the 6800 microprocessor, but can be upgraded to the 6809 or 68000 when they become available. The UCSD system was designed to be machine independent. UCSD's 2.0 version is currently being supplied, but the 3.0 version will be used when UCSD releases it. The standard UDS 470 package includes a processor with 1 K bytes of programmable memory and 2 K bytes of erasable read only memory; serial I/O (input/output) port with automatic reset and VCC monitor; 48 K bytes programmable memory; 16 K bytes erasable read only memory; 5 inch double density floppy disks with interface; 5 V power supply; and a case. The approximate price of the standard UDS 470 is $4000.

Circle 640 on inquiry card.

Where Do New Products Come From?

The information printed in the new products pages of BYTE is obtained from "new product" or "press release" copy sent by the promoters of new products. If in our judgment the information might be of interest to the personal computing experimenters and homebrewers who read BYTE, we print it in some form. We openly solicit releases and photos from manufacturers and suppliers to this marketplace. The information is printed more or less as a first in first out queue, subject to occasional priority modifications. While we would not knowingly print untrue or inaccurate data, or data from unreliable companies, our capacity to evaluate the products and companies appearing in the "What's New?" feature is necessarily limited. We therefore cannot be responsible for product quality or company performance.

North Star Word Processor With Extras

IDSWORD is a comprehensive word processing package available in North Star BASIC Version 6, under North Star disk operating system release 4.0. Prompts are given as complete English sentences, and responses are accepted as words, rather than numbers. Imbedded commands are not required since IDSWORD formats the text interactively. Some of the features are insertion, deletion, and block moves of text; global searches; complete text editing on video terminal or printer; control of margin size and justification; merging of up to ten files; sorting and printing of mailing labels.

Block editing capability on the video terminal is available by a linked list of all lines of text in memory, coupled with full cursor control over the entire text display. The amount of text in memory is automatically adjusted to the available memory. About 25 pages of text may be stored on a single density disk. Longer documents may be developed and printed in segments.

IDSWORD will run with one or two disk units. It is presently configured to run with the Soroc, Lear Siegler ADM-3a, Hazeltine, and Intertube terminals, and the IBM Selectric, Qume, Diablo, and Spinwriter printers. IDSWORD is a modular system starting at $125 for the basic configuration. The complete word processor is priced at $245 for the video screen edit capability, or $220 for the editing on the printer capability. The form letter, labels, name and address file maintenance, and sort modules are $50. For further information, contact CW Applications, 1776 E Jefferson St, Rockville MD 20852.

Circle 641 on inquiry card.

California Digital

Post Office Box 3097 B • Torrance, California 90503

Sankyo Magnetic Card Reader

$59

These Sankyo I/O units are capable of storing and retrieving over 400 characters of data in under two seconds.
The flexability of this device lends itself to numerous applications. As an input reader to a computerized security system, the computer has the ability of identifying the card holder and admitting only those individuals who are authorized to enter the premises during specified time frames. The device is also suitable for maintaining customer information files, or any other application where small amounts of information must be quickly entered into a data processing system.
Accepts 2" by 4" HP style mag-cards. (Similar to bank cards.)
Motorized feeder pulls the magnetic card across the four channel read/write head. NEW surplus, original cost $200. Full documentation

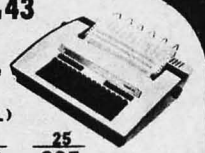
S-100 Mother Board

Quiet Buss

$29.95
8803-18
18 slot
IMSAI

The Quiet Buss from California Industrial is quality engineered. No short cuts have been taken to produce this mother board. Active termination circuitry prevents noise and crosstalk. Manufactured from extra heavy FR-4 epoxy glass

TELETYPE® MODEL 43



Even if we have to give them away, we're going to ship more 43's in 1979 than the aggregate of all our competitors.

Model 43AAA TTL)

EACH	3	10	25
$925.	875.	850.	825.

RS-232 Interface "K" Add $75.00 plus shipping

HEXADECIMAL KEYBOARD

$34.95

Maxi-Switch hexadecimal keyboards are designed for microcomputer systems that require 4-bit output in standard hex code.

Each assembly consists of 16 hermetically sealed reed switches and TTL "one shot" debounce circuitry.

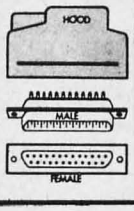
Reliable low friction acetal resin plungers are credited for the smooth operation and long life of this premium keyboard.

Requires single +5 volt supply.

$29.95 BOX of 10 DISKETTES

Verbatim. APPLE/TRS-80 Mini-Soft sector

CONNECTORS



your choice
DB25P male plug & hood
or
DB25S female

$3.95

Qty.	fe.	male	hd.
10	3.45	2.45	1.15
25	3.15	2.25	1.05
100	2.85	1.90	.95
500	2.25	1.60	.85
1K	1.97	1.37	.73

Edge Connectors

GOLD
100 PIN
IMSAI/ALTAIR

Imsai solder .125x.250	$3.95 3/$ 9.00
Imsai w/w .125 centers	$4.95 3/$13.00
Altair soldertail .140 row	$5.95 3/$15.00
SPECIALS	
22/44 Kim eyelet .156"	$1.95 3/$5.00
25/50 solder tab .156"	$1.09 3/$2.00
36/72 wide post w/w .156	$1.95 3/$5.00

$24.88

SPERRY UNIVAC

KEYBOARD

The famous Sperry Univac 1710 Hollerith keyboard assembly is now available from California Industrial for only $24.88 The ideal computer input device for accountants and mathematicians. The numeric keys are placed on the lower three rows to resemble a ten key adding machine. This format allows one handed numeric data entry.
Original cost was $385. Used but guaranteed in excellent condition. Complete with documentation.

Apple Owners: TEN KEY Data Entry Pad

$79.50

Plugs directly into you Apple II. Allows you to enter numerics, punctuation and upper case alpha characters, all from the data entry pad. Sold assembled in walnut finished enclosure.

SPECIAL

APPLE II 16K MEMORY

COLOR • GRAPHICS • SOUND

$1024 PLUS SHIPPING

Mfg. Sug. Retail.... $1195

TEN for $4.50+$3.85 Scotch® BRAND Certified Digital CASSETTES

Won't drop a BIT!

$5.50

CALIFORNIA INDUSTRIAL is an Authorized Dealer of Scotch Brand Data Products

DISKETTES

8 inch Soft (IBM)
8 inch 32 sector
Mini Soft sec.
Mini 10 sector
Mini 16 sector

Shugart Associates

SA800-R Floppy Disk Drive

The most cost effective way to store data processing information, when random recall is a prime factor. The SA800 is fully compatible with the IBM 3740 format. Write protect circuitry, low maintenance & Shugart quality.

$449.50

CALIFORNIA DIGITAL 16 BiT 8086 S-100 CPU Board

Directly addresses one megabyte. 8 bit unidirectional & 16 bit bi-directional. 4K of static memory is supplied on board. $650.00

DigiCast A/V-100 R.F. MODULATOR

$29.95 Broadcast both audio and vidio on your existing color television. Recommended for the Apple II.

MEMORY

TRS-80 $ APPLE II 65
16k memory (8) 4116's

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To obtain the best pricing on memory we have made volume commitments to our suppliers, which in turn affords us the opportunity to sell these circuits at the most competitive prices. Please contact us if you if you have a demand for volume state of the art memory products.

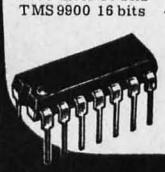
STATIC	1-31	32-99	100-5C	-999	1K+
21L02 450nS.	1.49	1.19	1.05	.95	.89
21L02 250nS.	1.69	1.49	1.45	*	*
2114 1Kx4 450	6.95	6.50	6.25	6.00	5.75
2114 1Kx4 300	8.95	8.50	8.00	*	*
4044 4Kx1 450	5.95	5.50	5.00	*	*
4044 4Kx1 250	9.95	9.50	9.00	*	*
4045 1Kx4 450	8.95	8.50	8.00	*	*
4045 1Kx4 250	9.95	9.50	9.00	*	*
5257 low pow.	7.95	7.50	7.05	6.75	6.45

SPECIAL CIRCUITS

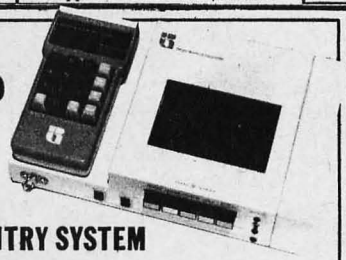
Z80A 4 MHz.	24.95	AY5-1013A UART	4.95
8080A CPU	9.95	Floppy Disc Controllers	
8085	22.50	WD 1771 single D.	39.95
8086 Intel 16 bits	*	WD 1781 Double D	65.00
TMS 9900 16 bits	49.95	WD 1791 D/D 3740	*

EPROMS

		1-15	16-63	64+
1702A	2K	4.95	4.50	4.00
2708	8K	9.95	9.50	9.00
2716 5v	16K	49.95	45.00	42.50
2532	32K	*	*	*



$139.50



PORTABLE DATA ENTRY SYSTEM

These used data terminals were originally designed for chain store inventory control and order entry systems. The operator enters the inventory control number, merchandise on hand and the unit price. After all pertinent data has been entered into the recorder, the main warehouse is telephoned, the handset is placed in the acoustic coupler and all the recorded information is transmitted back to the master computer.
With a little imagination and one of these portable entry systems, you should be able to exchange programs and computer information with associates across the country.
All units were removed from service in working condition. Original cost $2,500.
Each system comes complete with:

- Portable Cassette Drive Unit
- Removable Entry Keyboard with LED Display
- Five Gould "D" NiCads
- Acoustical Coupler
- Battery Charger
- DB25 Cable
- Shoulder starp
- Full Documentation

MINIATURE SWITCHES

your choice

	10	50	100	1k
$.98	$.88	.81	.73	.66

SPDT Miniature Toggles

7101 C&K ON-NONE-ON
7107 jbt ON-OFF(mnt.ON)
7108 CK ON-(moment.ON)
Rocker JBT ——— DPDT
Rotary 3P-4-Pos.
Rotary 3P-6-Pos.
Push B (N.O.) $.39 ea. 4/$1

DIP Switch

$1.49 ea.	10	25	100	1k
	$1.29	1.15	.97	.83

specify 4 7 or 8 pos.

SPST

SYSTEM X-10

It's not offen that California Digital ventures into the distribution of consumer products, but we have resently come accross a product that appears so unique that we just had to add it to our product line. This is the System X-10 manufactured by the BSR turntable company. This space age system will remotely control any light or appliance in your home or office. Command signals are transmitted from the command console over your existing wiring. From your bed or easy chair you can control up to 16 different electrical devices inside and outside your home. Use the System X-10 to control your stereo, television or any light fixture on the premises.
The basic sampler package comes complete with command console, battery operated ultrasonic controller, one each of the appliance module, lamp module and wall switch. The basic package is priced at only $99.50 Additional modules are available for $13.95 each.

DISCOUNT Wire Wrap Center

IC SOCKETS

pin	wire wrap ea.	25	50	low profile ea.	25	50
8	——			17¢	16	15
14	37¢	36	35	18	17	16
16	38	37	36	19	18	17
24	99	93	85	36	35	34
40	169	155	139	63	60	58

50ft. $.98

KYNAR WIRE WRAP 500 $9. 1,000 $15. 11,000 $105.

Battery wire wrapping tool $24.95

$29.95 BW 630

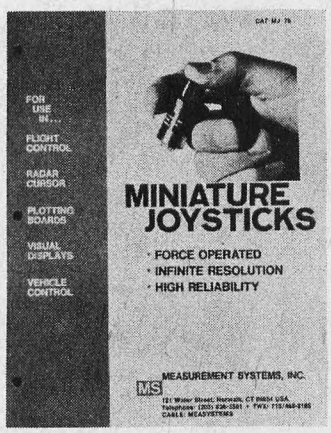
OK HOBBY WRAP-30 wire wrap & strip tool $54.95

(213) 679-9001

All merchandise sold by California Digital is premium grade. Sorry, no CCD's. Orders are shipped the same day received. California residents add 6%. Foreign orders add 10%. Orders over $25, when accompanied by payment, are shipped at our expense. Otherwise, please add $2.

VISA master charge

Circle 39 on inquiry card.



Miniature Joystick Catalog

Measurement Systems Inc announces publication of their new 16 page catalog, *Miniature Joysticks*. These joysticks are used for cursor positioning of many displays including interactive terminals, computer aided drafting, and radar systems. They are also used for mechanism positioning such as microcircuit production equipment and vehicle control. These joysticks are offered for control of one, two, or three axes. They are offered in commercial, industrial and military grades. For further information contact Measurement Systems Inc, 121 Water St, Norwalk CT 06854.

Circle 642 on inquiry card.

Buyers Guide Offered Free of Charge

This buyers guide of microcomputer software, accessories, and supplies is available from Wallace Electronics Inc, 4921 N Sheridan Rd, Peoria IL 61614. Software and accessories for the Apple II and TRS-80, as well as a wide range of computer supplies, are listed on these sheets. The guide is updated weekly. The buyers guide is free of charge, although .50 should be included to cover postage and handling.

Circle 646 on inquiry card.

EPROM Bulletin Shows Erase Times

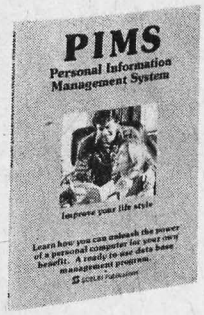
An in-depth technical bulletin showing erase times and energy characteristics for various popular erasable read only memories is available at no charge from Adco Electronics, 2182 DuPont, Suite 222, Irvine CA 92715. It contains two charts which make it easier for the user to be sure of proper erasure of ultraviolet (UV) erasable programmable read only memories. The brochure, *Ultraviolet Erasing of EPROMS* (# A78286), has been prepared by the engineering staff of Spectronics Corp to take the guess work out of making sure that various programmable read only memories are empty of data. By quickly determining the specific energy level needed and required exposure time, the user can select the correct UV source.

Circle 643 on inquiry card.

Wintek Corp Offers New Catalog

This catalog contains a 6800 based single board computer plus 15 support and interface modules on industry standard 4½ by 6½ inch cards for process control and data acquisition. Additionally, 6800 development systems, resident and cross assemblers, and compilers are listed. For further information contact Wintek Corp, 902 N 9th St, Lafayette IN 47904.

Circle 644 on inquiry card.



Personal Information Management System

Personal Information Management System describes a data base management program designed for personal use on such small computer systems as the Radio Shack TRS-80 Level II, or other systems using a Microsoft compatible BASIC language. Along with complete source listings of the program and comprehensive operating instructions, this 88 page book discusses the microcomputer and its potential for personal use. Additionally, 15 comprehensive applications of the program are illustrated in detail. The publication is designed for the computer novice although the program may be beneficially used by anyone. The book is priced at $9.95. For further information contact Scelbi Publications, POB 133 PP STN, Milford CT 06460.

Circle 647 on inquiry card.

The Complete Motorola Microcomputer Data Library

The Complete Motorola Microcomputer Data Library presents technical data for microcomputer design and implementation. It is divided into three basic segments, each further subdivided into subordinate product categories. The three segments are:

- microcomputer components—microprocessor and microcomputer unit components, together with interface and peripheral components to implement microcomputer systems,
- memory products—basic memory components and add-in and add-on memory subsystems for computer applications,
- microcomputer development systems and subsystems—support products (hardware and software) to design microcomputer systems; board-level subsystems for system implementation.

The organization within each of these basic segments is by device families and application groupings rather than in alphanumeric sequence. Therefore, a comprehensive table of contents provides the reader with a sequential listing of the chapter by chapter content of each segment.

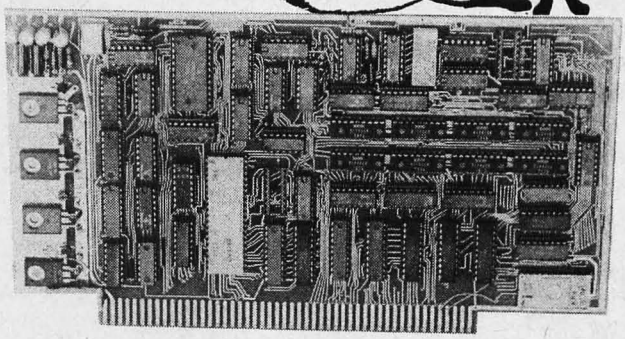
The book is priced at $6. For further information write to Motorola Semiconductor Products Inc, POB 29024, Phoenix AZ 85036.

Circle 645 on inquiry card.

Smart & Foxy Venus 2001 Video Board

Assembled and Tested $259.95 ● Complete Unit with 4K of Memory and Video Driver on Eprom assembled and tested $339.95

kit $199.95



OPTIONAL: • Sockets $10.00 • 2K Memory $30.00 • 4K Memory $60.00 • Video Driver Eprom $20.00 • Text Editor Eprom (Includes Video Driver $75.00)

S-100 Plug-In • Parallel Keyboard Port

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Display: 128 ASC11 Characters 64 X 32 or 32 X 16 Screen format (Jumper Selectable). 7 by 11 Dot Matrix Characters.

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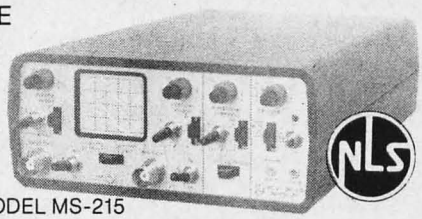

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P.C. BOARD BY WAMECO

Z-80 CPU $125. KIT

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Circle 648 on inquiry card.

Apple Software Directory

Over 700 software programs for the Apple computer have been compiled into the *Apple Software Directory*. All programs are listed alphabetically so that the same type of program produced by several sources can be compared. Listings include description, memory requirements, price, format and the source. All sources are listed with addresses.

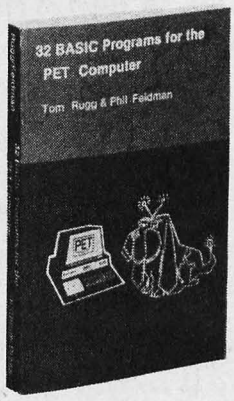
The directory is printed in two volumes. Volume 1 covers business and utility programs. Volume 2 covers games and entertainment programs. Each is priced at $4.95. For more information, write WIDL Video, 5325 N Lincoln, Chicago IL 60625.

Circle 649 on inquiry card.

Publication Lists 32 BASIC Programs for the PET

32 BASIC Programs for the PET Computer by Tom Rugg and Phil Feldman is precisely that...32 fully documented programs that are ready to run on an 8 K byte Commodore PET 2001 computer. The reader does have the option of making changes to these programs. This 267 page book covers application, educational, game, graphic display, mathematical and miscellaneous programs. The book is priced at $15.95. For further information, contact Dilithium Press, POB 92, Forest Grove OR 97116.

Circle 650 on inquiry card.



Software Magazine Devoted to Radio Shack TRS-80

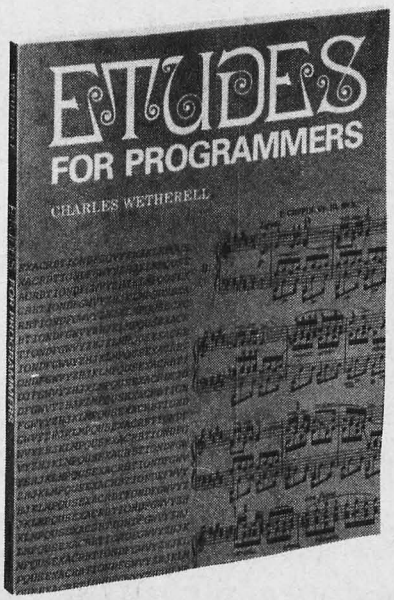
Owners of Level II Radio Shack computers will appreciate *SoftSide*, a magazine devoted to providing games and light application software in Level II BASIC. Owners of other personal computers using Microsoft BASIC will also find programs that can be readily converted for their systems.

The particular emphasis of the magazine is simulation games. Readers of recent issues have been able to play football, race a clipper ship around Cape Horn, rule a fifteenth century Italian city-state or chase wild animals on a photographic safari. Light application programs are also published, and have included an income tax program and a personal finance program complete with graphic pictures of checks on the screen. Hints for TRS-80 programmers regularly appear in various places throughout the magazine.

Softside is published monthly and is available by subscription for an annual rate of $15. A special cassette edition which includes the magazine and all the monthly programs in machine readable form is available for $38 for a six month subscription. For further information contact SoftSide Publications, POB 68, Milford NH 03055.

Circle 651 on inquiry card.

New Book Features Self-Contained Programming Problems



Circle 652 on inquiry card.

Etudes for Programmers by Charles Wetherell is a collection of large scale problems for learning by doing. Each problem includes a real world background discussion of appropriate programming techniques, detailed requirements for correct solution, extensions, and annotated bibliography. Two of the problems are completely solved by the author. The solutions concentrate on good programming techniques, measuring the quality of the program and the output, and possible extensions of the problem. They are models of what solutions to any programming job should be, and they contain many practical hints about writing good programs.

Additionally, this 200 page book offers references to sources for programming information and further reading about problem subjects. It includes a complete set of four projects for a programming language course: macro-interpreter, compiler, relocating loader and computer simulator.

Etudes for Programmers is priced at $12.95. For further information, contact Prentice-Hall Inc, Englewood Cliffs NJ 07632.

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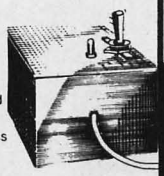

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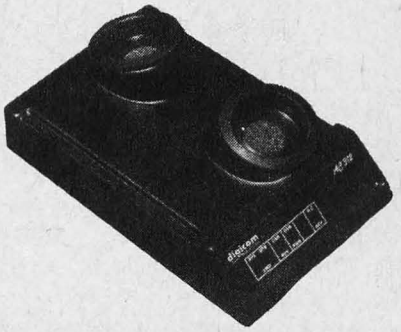
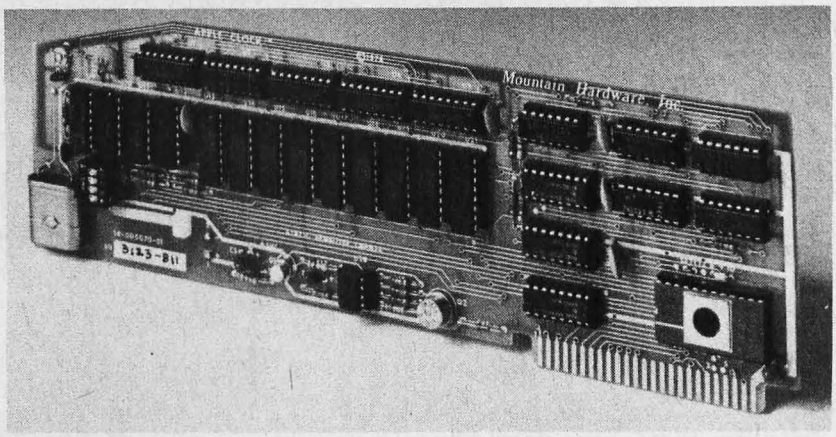
Answer and Originate Acoustic Coupler



The AC-312 answer/originate acoustic coupler operates at 300 bps. The device is 103 Western Electric compatible and is switch selectable between originate and answer modes. When in the answer mode, this unit will generate the answer tone necessary to communicate with 300 bps originate only couplers and modems. The AC-312 includes a single plugable printed circuit board for ease of field upgrading to 1200 bps operation and field service. Standard light emitting diode diagnostic indicators are also featured. The AC-312 answer/originate modem is priced at $295. For further information, contact Digicom Data Products Inc, 1440 Koll Circle, Suite 108, San Jose CA 95112.

Circle 653 on inquiry card.

Real Time Calendar and Clock for Apple II Computer



Mountain Hardware has announced the Real Time Calendar and Clock for Apple II computers. The Apple Clock keeps time and data in 1 ms increments continuously for over one year. Calendar, clock, and event timer functions are easily accessed from BASIC using routines contained in on board read only memory. Some of the features of the Apple Clock include crystal control, on board rechargeable battery to keep the clock running during computer down times; software for calendar and clock routines as well as an event timer contained in on board read only memory; and an interrupt feature which can be programmed to make efficient use of computer time. Sample applications include programming a morning printout of appointments; date of transactions; creating games in which elapsed time is important; and time events. The Apple Clock can be added to Mountain Hardware's Introl Remote Control System for real time control and monitoring of remote devices over regular AC wiring.

The price of the Apple Clock is $199 assembled and tested. For further information, contact Mountain Hardware Inc, 300 Harvey W Blvd, Santa Cruz CA 95060.

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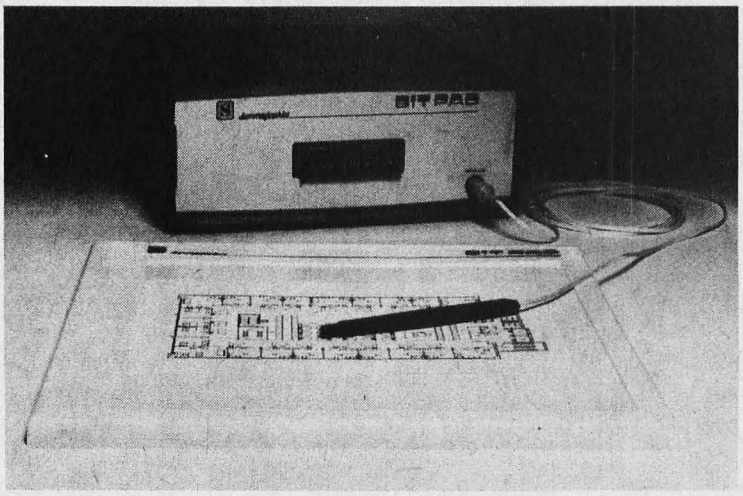
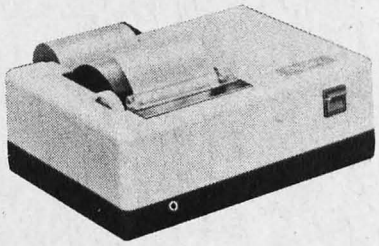


Interface TRS-80 to Summagraphics' Bit Pad

Summagraphics Corp has announced the availability of an interface for the company's digitizer, the Bit Pad, which allows connection to the Radio Shack TRS-80 microcomputer. This new interface permits the entry and transfer of X,Y coordinate values for graphics and data entry applications from the Bit Pad to the TRS-80 computer.

The interface is priced at $175, and a cassette containing software is provided. Data is transferred from the Bit Pad in groups of five bytes. The interface is contained in a small separate box that connects to the Bit Pad and the TRS-80. The interface allows use of all other TRS-80 accessories. For further information, contact Summagraphics Corp, 35 Brentwood Ave, Fairfield CT 06430.

Circle 655 on inquiry card.



Compact Low Cost Alphanumeric Printers

The DigiTec 6410 and 6420 small desktop printers print 20 columns of alphanumeric characters. Sixty-four different characters are produced in a 5 by 7 dot matrix. The printer can easily replace teletypewriter terminals in applications that don't need 80 column capability. An internal microprocessor makes these new printers reliable and easy to interface. The Model 6410 provides a serial interface to RS-232C and 20 mA current loop systems at 110 bps. The Model 6420 works with 8 bit parallel bus systems at up to 1000 characters per second. They both use the ASCII input format. The single unit price is $395. For further information and special OEM information, contact United Systems Corp, 918 Woodley Rd, Dayton OH 45403.

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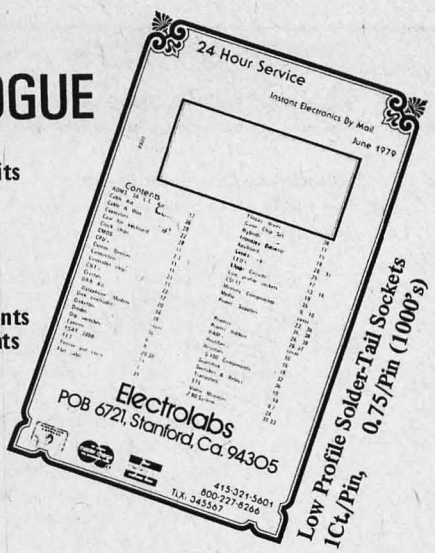

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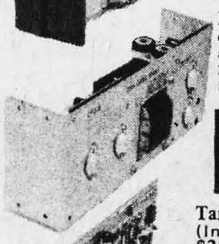

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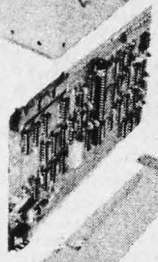

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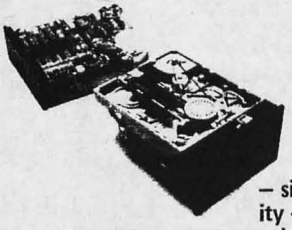

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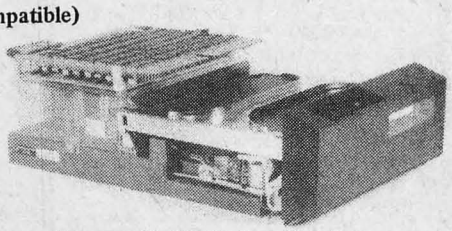

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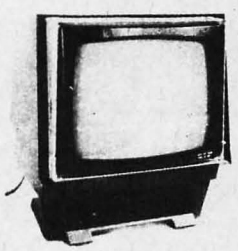

Used Sylvania 12" Video Monitors. Composite video 15mhz, 115vac, 50/60hz New Tube. As shown $109 OEM style without case: $99, Anti-glare tube option add $12. Specify p4 or p39

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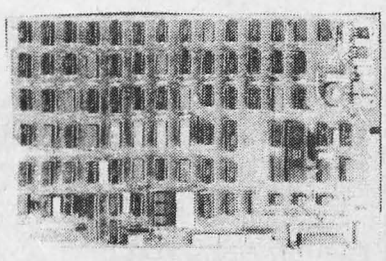

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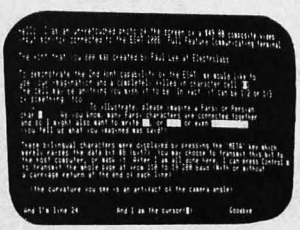

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Circle 115 on inquiry card.

Associative Computer Memory Available from Semionics Associates

Content addressable or associative computer memory is available from Semionics Associates, 41 Tunnel Rd, Berkeley CA 94705. Called REM (recognition memory), it differs from conventional memory by eliminating serial searching. An item may be accessed simply by being named. REM can be written into and read from like ordinary memory, but has parallel processing functions, including six types of recognize and multiwrite. The recognition operations replace serial searching, while multiwrite allows the processor to write into multiple locations with a single instruction. Individual bit masking may be applied to all of the operations, including ordinary (location accessed) read and write. A data processing system with these functions is known as a CAPP (content addressable parallel processor). Ideal for pattern recognition and information retrieval applications, it is also capable of performing parallel arithmetic operations.

Semionics' first product is an add-in recognition memory for microcomputers having the S-100 bus. Called REM S-100, the board converts the microcomputer to a CAPP by adding new instructions to the instruction set of the processor. The board is organized to make these additional instructions possible without any alteration to the processor.

Recognition memory is organized in 8 bit words and 256 word REM records. It is a static memory with an access time of 200 ns for a single memory location, and recognize or multiwrite time, for all REM records of 4 μs. This time does not increase with size of memory. In a system with multiple REM boards, all of these are accessed in parallel during a recognize or multiwrite operation.

The REM S-100 add-in recognition memory board has a capacity of 4 K bytes and is priced at $345.

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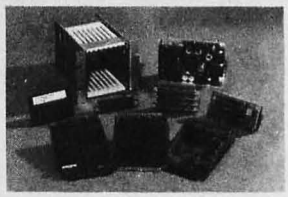

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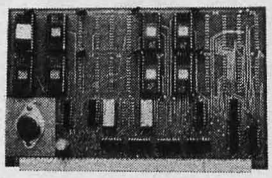

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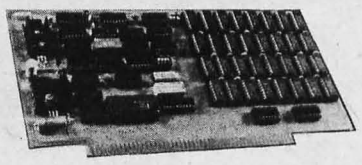

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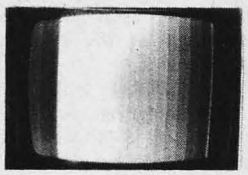

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4012	.20	4025	.18	4069	.45	74C161	1.05
4014	.75	4027	.37	4071	.20	74C174	1.05
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4017	1.05	4030	.33	4520	.70	74C902	.48
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7409	.18	7480	.31	74164	.85
7410	.15	7483	.65	74165	.95
7411	.18	7485	.87	74173	1.20
7412	.18	7486	.28	74174	.95
7413	.36	7489	1.25	74175	.85
7414	.60	7490	.42	74176	.75
7416	.22	7491	.58	74177	.75
7417	.25	7492	.43	74180	.65
7420	.18	7493	.43	74181	1.90
7425	.30	7494	.67	74190	1.00
7426	.22	7495	.65	74191	.85
7427	.28	7496	.65	74192	.79
7430	.18	74107	.28	74193	.79
7432	.22	74121	.30	74194	.80
7437	.22	74122	.40	74195	.50
7438	.22	74123	.45	74196	.86
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74LS20	74LS168	
74LS21	74LS169	
74LS22	74LS170	
74LS26	74LS173	
74LS27	74LS174	
74LS28	74LS175	
74LS30	74LS181	
74LS32	74LS190	
74LS37	74LS191	
74LS38	74LS192	
74LS40	74LS193	
74LS42	74LS195	
74LS51	74LS196	
74LS54	74LS197	
74LS73	74LS241	
74LS75	74LS257	
74LS76	74LS258	
74LS86	74LS259	
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565	.95
566	1.10
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PRV	1A	10A	25A
100	.40	.70	1.30
200	.70	1.10	1.75
400	1.10	1.60	2.60
600	1.70	2.30	3.60

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PRV	1.5A	6A	35A
100	.40	.50	1.20
200	.60	.70	1.60
400	1.00	1.20	2.20
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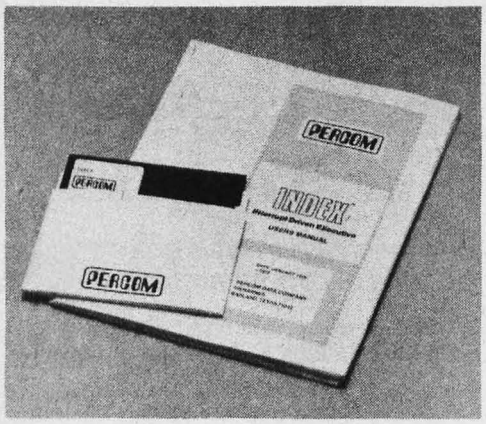

This disk operating and file management system, called INDEX (Interrupt Driven Executive), executes faster than most systems because the console and other I/O (input/output) devices are serviced by interrupt requests instead of by polling. INDEX supports unlimited disk commands. A user can expand INDEX by adding utility commands and driver routines. These reside on disk and are loaded into memory only when needed. With INDEX, files can be assigned an activity value as a parameter of the file name, and the user may thereby list or display only the file directory entries at or above the activity level specified in the DIR (directory listing) command.

INDEX handles both ASCII and binary files, and disk files are automatically created, allocated and de-allocated. Files are referenced by names, and file name parameters are addended for name extension, drive number, directory level and a file protection flag.

The INDEX operating system software also features a routine for copying files onto a disk. The console interface segment of INDEX software supports any standard serial ASCII terminal. It features program interrupt for runaway programs; operator start, stop and skip display control; interrupt-serviced, typed-ahead character queue buffer; and a secondary line editing queue buffer.

INDEX versions are available for the PerCom LFD-400, Southwest Technical Products' MF-68, Smoke Signal Broadcasting Company's BFD-68 disk systems, and Motorola's EXORciser development system.

INDEX is supplied on two 5 inch disks together with a users manual for $99.95. For further information contact PerCom Data Co, 318 Barnes, Garland TX 75042. Circle 658 on inquiry card.

New Self-Merchandising Software From ComputerLand

ComputerLand is now making personal computing software available through all participating ComputerLand stores. SoftSpot is a custom designed, self-merchandising fixture offering off-the-shelf programs for personal finance, time budgeting, education, games, stock analysis, stock portfolio evaluation, and more. SoftSpot programs start at $7.95.

Customer education about personal computers and their applications are offered through MainBrain. Books, self-study cassettes and video tapes, and "in person" lecture programs are available from well known publishers. MainBrain has self-service instructions to assist customers in making their own choice of multimedia educational products.

For further information contact ComputerLand, 14400 Catalina St, San Leandro CA 94577. Circle 525 on inquiry card.

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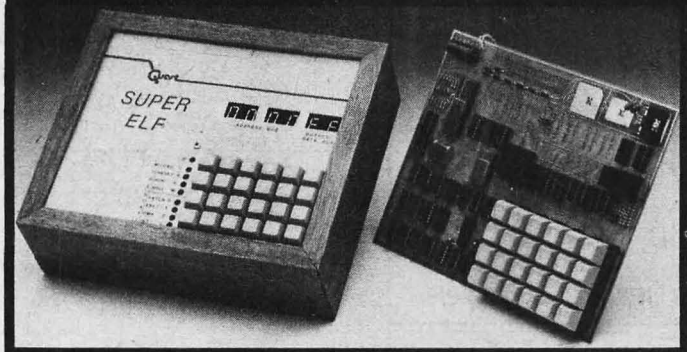

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An RCA 1861 **video graphics** chip allows you to connect to your own TV with an inexpensive video modulator to do graphics and games. There is a **speaker system** included for writing your own music or using many music programs already written. The speaker amplifier may also be used to drive relays for control purposes.

A 24 key **HEX keyboard** includes 16 HEX keys plus **load, reset, run, wait, input, memory protect, monitor select** and **single step**. Large, on board displays provide output and optional **high and low address**. There is a 44 pin standard connector for PC cards and a 50 pin connector for the **Quest Super Expansion Board**. Power supply and sockets for **all** IC's are included in the price plus a detailed 127 pg. instruction manual which now includes over 40 pgs. of software info. including a series of lessons to help get you started and a music program and graphics target game.

Remember, other computers only offer Super Elf features at additional cost or not at all. **Compare before you buy. Super Elf Kit $106.95, High address option $8.95, Low address option $9.95. Custom Cabinet** with drilled and labelled plexiglass front panel **$24.95. NiCad Battery Memory Saver Kit $6.95.** All kits and options also come completely assembled and tested.

Questdata, a 12 page monthly software publication for 1802 computer users is available by subscription for $12.00 per year.

Attention Elf Owners

New products in hardware and software coming soon.

Tiny Basic cassette $10.00, on ROM $38.00, original Elf kit board $14.95.

Super Expansion Board with Cassette Interface $89.95

This is truly an astounding value! This board has been designed to allow **you** to decide how you want it optioned. **The Super Expansion Board comes with 4K of low power RAM** fully addressable anywhere in 64K with built-in memory protect and a **cassette interface**. Provisions have been made for all other options on the same board and it fits neatly into the hardwood cabinet alongside the **Super Elf**. The board includes slots for up to 6K of **EPROM** (2708, 2758, 2716 or TI 2716) and is **fully socketed.** EPROM can be used for the monitor and Tiny Basic or other purposes.

A 1K Super ROM Monitor $19.95 is available as an on board option in 2708 EPROM which has been preprogrammed with a program loader/editor and error checking multi file cassette read/write software, (relocatible cassette file) another exclusive from Quest. It includes register save and readout, block move capability and video graphics driver with blinking cursor. Break points can be used with the register save feature to isolate program bugs quickly, then follow with single step. The Super Monitor is written with subroutines allowing users to take advantage of monitor functions simply by calling them up.

Improvements and revisions are easily done with the monitor. If you have the **Super Expansion Board** and **Super Monitor** the monitor is up and running at the push of a button.

Other on board options include **Parallel Input and Output Ports** with **full handshake**. They allow easy connection of an ASCII keyboard to the input port. **RS 232 and 20 ma Current Loop** for teletype or other device are on board and if you need more memory there are two **S-100** slots for static RAM or video boards. A Godbout 8K RAM board is available for $135.00. Also a 1K Super Monitor version 2 with video driver for full capability display with Tiny Basic and a video interface board. **Parallel I/O Ports $9.85, RS 232 $4.50, TTY 20 ma I/F $1.95, S-100 $4.50.** A **50 pin connector set** with ribbon cable is available at $12.50 for easy connection between the **Super Elf** and the **Super Expansion Board.**

The **Power Supply Kit** for the Super Expansion Board is a 5 amp supply with multiple positive and negative voltages $29.95. Add $4.00 for shipping. Prepunched frame $5.00. Case $10.00. Add $1.50 for shipping.

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7422N	1.39	LM733N	.67	74C14	2.10
7430N	.20	LM741CH	.35	74C20	.28
7442N	.50	LM741N	.25	74C30	.28
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7448N	.69	LM1303N	.82	74C76	1.40
7450N	.17	LM1304	1.10	74C90	1.15
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3 level wire wrap gold.
14 pin .25
2 level 14 pin ww .20

WIRE WRAP LEVEL 3

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2N3906	.18
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120000		10V	6.00

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DC clock with 4-.50" displays. Uses National MA-1012 module with alarm option. Includes light dimmer, crystal timebase PC boards. Fully regulated, comp. instructs. Add $3.95 for beautiful dark gray case. Best value anywhere.

RCA Cosmac VIP Kit $229.00

Video computer with games and graphics. Fully assem. and test. **$249.00**

Not a Cheap Clock Kit $14.95

Includes everything except case. 2-PC boards. 6-.50" LED Displays. 5314 clock chip, transformer, all components and full instructions. Orange displays also avail. **Same kit w/.80" displays.** Red only. **$21.95** Case **$11.75**

60 Hz Crystal Time Base Kit $4.40

Converts digital clocks from AC line frequency to crystal time base. Outstanding accuracy. Kit includes: PC board, IC, crystal, resistors, capacitors and trimmer.

Digital Temperature Meter Kit

Indoor and outdoor. Switches back and forth. Beautiful, .50" LED readouts. Nothing like it available. Needs no additional parts for complete, full operation. Will measure –100° to +200°F, tenths of a degree, air or liquid.

Very accurate.	**$39.95**
Beautiful woodgrain case w/bezel	**$11.75**

NiCad Battery Fixer/Charger Kit

Opens shorted cells that won't hold a charge and then charges them up, all in one kit w/full parts and instructions. **$7.25**

PROM Eraser

Will erase 25 PROMs in 15 minutes. Ultraviolet, assembled **$34.50**

Rockwell AIM 65 Computer

6502 based single board with full ASCII keyboard and 20 column thermal printer. 20 char. alphanumeric display, ROM monitor, fully expandable. $375.00. 4K version $450.00. 4K Assembler $85.00. 8K Basic Interpreter $100.00. Power supply assembled in case $60.00.

Multi-volt Computer Power Supply

8v 5 amp, ±18v .5 amp, 5v 1.5 amp, –5v .5 amp, 12v .5 amp, –12 option. ±5v, ±12v are regulated. Kit $29.95. Kit with punched frame $34.95. Woodgrain case $10.00.

Video Modulator Kit $8.95

Convert your TV set into a high quality monitor without affecting normal usage. Complete kit with full instructions.

2.5 MHz Frequency Counter Kit

Complete kit less case	**$37.50**

30 MHz Frequency Counter Kit

Complete kit less case	**$47.75**
Prescaler kit to 350 MHz	**$19.95**

79 IC Update Master Manual $35.00

Complete IC data selector, 2500 pg. master reference guide. Over 50,000 cross references. Free update service through 1979. Domestic postage $3.50. Foreign $5.00. 1978 IC Master closeout $19.50.

Stopwatch Kit $26.95

Full six digit battery operated. 2–5 volts. 3.2768 MHz crystal accuracy. Times to 59 min., 59 sec., 99 1/100 sec. Times std., split and Taylor. 7205 chip, all components minus case. Full instructions.

Hickok 3½ Digit LCD Multimeter

Batt/AC oper. 0.1mv–1000v. 5 ranges. 0.5% accur. Resistance 6 low power ranges 0.1 ohm–20M ohm. DC curr. .01 to 100ma. Hand held, ½" LCD displays, auto zero, polarity, overrange. $74.95.

S-100 Computer Boards

8K Static RAM Kit Godbout	$135.00
16K Static RAM Kit	265.00
24K Static RAM Kit	423.00
32K Dynamic RAM Kit	310.00
64K Dynamic RAM Kit	470.00
8K/16K Eprom Kit (less PROMS)	**$89.00**
Video Interface Kit	**$139.00**

Motherboard **$39.** Extender Board **$8.99**

TERMS: $5.00 min. order U.S. Funds. Calif residents add 6% tax.
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Shipping charges will be added on charge cards.

FREE: Send for your copy of our NEW 1979 QUEST CATALOG. Include 28¢ stamp.

Circle 311 on inquiry card.

7400 TTL

SN7400N	.16	SN7470N	.29	SN74160N	.89
SN7401N	.18	SN7472N	.29	SN74161N	.89
SN7402N	.18	SN7473N	.35	SN74162N	1.95
SN7403N	.16	SN7474N	.35	SN74163N	.89
SN7404N	.18	SN7475N	.49	SN74164N	.89
SN7405N	.20	SN7476N	.35	SN74165N	.89
SN7406N	.29	SN7479N	5.00	SN74166N	1.25
SN7407N	.29	SN7480N	.50	SN74167N	1.95
SN7408N	.20	SN7482N	.99	SN74170N	1.59
SN7409N	.20	SN7485N	.79	SN74172N	6.00
SN7410N	.20	SN7486N	.35	SN74173N	1.25
SN7411N	.18	SN7489N	1.75	SN74174N	.89
SN7412N	.25	SN7490N	.45	SN74175N	.79
SN7413N	.40	SN7491N	.59	SN74176N	.79
SN7414N	.70	SN7492N	.43	SN74177N	.79
SN7416N	.25	SN7493N	.43	SN74179N	1.95
SN7417N	.25	SN7494N	.65	SN74180N	.79
SN7420N	.20	SN7495N	.65	SN74181N	1.95
SN7421N	.29	SN7496N	.65	SN74182N	.79
SN7422N	.39	SN74100N	.89	SN74184N	1.95
SN7423N	.25	SN74107N	.35	SN74185N	1.95
SN7425N	.29	SN74109N	.59	SN74186N	9.95
SN7426N	.29	SN74116N	1.95	SN74188N	3.95
SN7427N	.25	SN74121N	.35	SN74190N	1.25
SN7429N	.39	SN74122N	.39	SN74191N	1.25
SN7430N	.20	SN74123N	.49	SN74192N	.79
SN7432N	.25	SN74125N	.49	SN74193N	.79
SN7437N	.25	SN74126N	.49	SN74194N	.89
SN7438N	.25	SN74132N	.75	SN74195N	.69
SN7439N	.25	SN74136N	.75	SN74196N	.89
SN7440N	.20	SN74141N	.79	SN74197N	.89
SN7441N	.89	SN74142N	2.95	SN74198N	1.49
SN7442N	.49	SN74143N	2.95	SN74199N	1.49
SN7443N	.75	SN74144N	2.95	SN745200	4.95
SN7444N	.75	SN74145N	.79	SN74251N	1.79
SN7445N	.75	SN74147N	1.95	SN74279N	.79
SN7446N	.69	SN74148N	1.29	SN74283N	2.25
SN7447N	.59	SN74150N	.89	SN74284N	3.95
SN7448N	.79	SN74151N	.59	SN74285N	3.95
SN7450N	.20	SN74152N	.59	SN74365N	.69
SN7451N	.20	SN74153N	.59	SN74366N	.69
SN7453N	.20	SN74154N	.99	SN74367N	.69
SN7454N	.20	SN74155N	.79	SN74368N	.69
SN7459A	.25	SN74156N	.79	SN74390N	1.95
SN7460N	.20	SN74157N	.65	SN74393N	1.95

C/MOS

CD4000	.23	CD4028	.89	CD4070	.55
CD4001	.23	CD4029	1.19	CD4071	.23
CD4002	.23	CD4030	.49	CD4072	.49
CD4006	1.19	CD4035	.99	CD4076	1.39
CD4007	.25	CD4040	1.19	CD4081	.23
CD4009	.49	CD4041	1.25	CD4082	.23
CD4010	.49	CD4042	.99	MC14409	14.95
CD4011	.23	CD4043	.89	MC14410	14.95
CD4012	.25	CD4044	.89	MC14411	14.95
CD4013	.39	CD4046	1.79	MC14419	4.95
CD4016	.49	CD4047	2.50	MC14433	19.95
CD4017	1.19	CD4048	1.35	MC14506	.75
CD4018	.99	CD4049	.49	MC14507	.99
CD4019	.49	CD4050	.49	MC14562	14.50
CD4020	1.19	CD4051	1.19	MC14583	3.50
CD4021	1.39	CD4053	1.19	CD4508	3.95
CD4022	1.19	CD4056	2.95	CD4510	1.39
CD4023	.23	CD4059	9.95	CD4511	1.29
CD4024	.79	CD4060	1.49	CD4515	2.95
CD4025	.23	CD4066	.79	CD4518	1.29
CD4026	2.25	CD4068	.39	CD4520	1.29
CD4027	.69	CD4069	.45	CD4566	2.25

74C00

74C00	.39	74C85	2.49	74C163	2.49
74C02	.39	74C90	1.95	74C164	2.49
74C04	.39	74C93	1.95	74C173	2.60
74C08	.49	74C95	1.95	74C192	2.49
74C10	.39	74C107	1.25	74C193	2.49
74C14	1.95	74C151	2.90	74C195	2.49
74C20	.39	74C154	3.00	74C922	5.95
74C30	.39	74C157	2.15	74C923	6.25
74C42	1.95	74C160	2.49	74C925	8.95
74C48	2.49	74C161	2.49	74C926	8.95
74C73	.89	74C162	2.49	80C95	1.50
74C74	.89			80C97	1.50

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LM300H	.80	LM340T-5	1.25	LM723N/H	.55
LM301CN/H	.35	LM340T-6	1.25	LM733N	1.00
LM302H	.75	LM340T-12	1.25	LM739N	1.19
LM304H	1.00	LM340T-15	1.25	LM741CN/H	.35
LM305H	.60	LM340T-18	1.25	LM741-14N	.39
LM307CN/H	.35	LM340T-24	1.25	LM747N/H	.79
LM308CN/H	1.00	LM340T-5	1.25	LM748N/H	.39
LM309H	1.10	LM340T-18	1.25	LM1310N	2.95
LM309K	1.25	LM340T-24	1.25	LM1458CN/H	.59
LM310CN	1.15	LM358N	1.00	MC1488N	1.39
LM311N/H	.90	LM370N	1.95	MC1489N	1.39
LM312H	1.95	LM373N	3.25	LM1496N	.95
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LM318CN/H	1.50	LM380N	1.25	MC1741SCP	3.00
LM319N	1.30	LM380CN	.99	LM2111N	1.95
LM320K-5	1.35	LM381N	1.79	LM2901N	2.95
LM320K-5.2	1.35	LM382N	1.79	LM3053N	1.50
LM320K-12	1.35	NE501N	8.00	LM3065N	1.49
LM320K-15	1.35	NE510A	6.00	LM3900N(3401)	.49
LM320K-18	1.35	NE529A	4.95	LM3905N	.89
LM320K-24	1.35	NE531H/V	3.95	LM3909N	1.25
LM320T-5	1.25	NE536T	6.00	MC5558V	.59
LM320T-5.2	1.25	NE540L	6.00	8038D	4.95
LM320T-8	1.25	NE544N	4.95	LM74540N	.49
LM320T-12	1.25	NE550N	1.30	75451CN	.39
LM320T-15	1.25	NE555V	.39	75452CN	.39
LM320T-18	1.25	NE556N	.99	75453CN	.39
LM320T-24	1.25	NE560B	5.00	75454CN	.39
LM323K-5	5.95	NE561B	5.00	75491CN	.79
LM324N	1.80	NE562B	5.00	75492CN	.89
LM339N	.99	NE565N/H	1.25	75493N	.89
LM340K-5	1.35	NE566CN	1.75	75494CN	.89
LM340K-6	1.35	NE567V/H	.99	RC4136	1.25
LM340K-8	1.35	NE570N	4.95	RC4151	2.85
LM340K-12	1.35	LM703CN/H	.69	RC4194	5.95
LM340K-15	1.35	LM709N/H	.29	RC4195	4.49

74LS00TTL

74LS00	.29	74LS47	.89	74LS138	.89
74LS01	.29	74LS51	.29	74LS139	.89
74LS02	.29	74LS54	.29	74LS151	.89
74LS03	.29	74LS55	.29	74LS153	.89
74LS04	.35	74LS73	.45	74LS157	.89
74LS05	.35	74LS74	.45	74LS160	1.15
74LS08	.29	74LS75	.59	74LS161	1.15
74LS09	.35	74LS76	.45	74LS162	1.15
74LS10	.29	74LS78	.49	74LS163	1.15
74LS11	.75	74LS83	.89	74LS164	1.25
74LS13	.59	74LS85	1.25	74LS175	.99
74LS14	1.25	74LS86	.45	74LS181	2.49
74LS15	.35	74LS90	.59	74LS190	1.15
74LS20	.29	74LS92	.75	74LS191	1.15
74LS21	.35	74LS93	.75	74LS192	1.15
74LS22	.35	74LS95	.99	74LS193	1.15
74LS26	.35	74LS96	1.15	74LS194	1.15
74LS27	.35	74LS107	.45	74LS195	1.15
74LS28	.35	74LS109	.45	74LS253	.99
74LS30	.29	74LS112	.45	74LS257	.89
74LS32	.35	74LS123	1.25	74LS258	1.75
74LS37	.45	74LS125	.89	74LS260	.69
74LS40	.35	74LS132	.99	74LS279	.75
74LS42	.89	74LS136	.49	74LS367	.75
				74LS368	.75
				74LS670	2.49

EXCITING NEW KITS

JE600 HEXADECIMAL ENCODER KIT

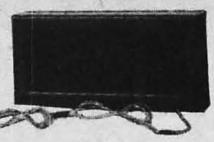
FEATURES:
- Full 8 bit latched output for microprocessor use
- 3 User Define keys with one being bistable operation
- Debounce circuit provided for all 19 keys
- LED readout to verify entries
- Easy interfacing with standard 16 pin IC connector
- Only +5VDC required for operations

FULL 8 BIT LATCHED OUTPUT—19 KEYBOARD

The JE600 Encoder Keyboard provides two separate hexadecimal digits produced from sequential key entries to allow direct programming for 8 bit microprocessor or 8 bit memory circuits. Three (3) additional keys are provided for user operations with one having a bistable output available. The outputs are latched and monitored with LED readouts. Also included is a key entry strobe.

JE600 ..... $59.95

Digital Thermometer Kit



- Dual sensors—switching control for indoor/outdoor or dual monitoring
- Continuous LED .5" ht. display
- Range: -40°F to 199°F / -40°C to 100°C
- Accuracy: ±1° nominal
- Set for Fahrenheit or Celsius reading
- Sim. walnut case - AC wall adapter incl.
- Size: 3-1/4"H x 6-5/8"W x 1-3/8"D

JE300 ..... $39.95

DISCRETE LEDS

.200" dia.			.125" dia.		
XC556R	red	5/$1	XC209R	red	5/$1
XC556G	green	4/$1	XC209G	green	4/$1
XC556Y	yellow	4/$1	XC209Y	yellow	4/$1
XC556C	clear	4/$1			
.200" dia.			.185" dia.		
XC22R	red	5/$1	XC526R	red	5/$1
XC22G	green	4/$1	XC526G	green	4/$1
XC22Y	yellow	4/$1	XC526Y	yellow	4/$1
.170" dia.			XC526C	clear	4/$1
MV10B	red	4/$1	.190" dia.		
.085" dia.			XC111R	red	5/$1
MV50	red	6/$1	XC111G	green	4/$1
INFRA-RED LED 1/4"x1/4"x1/16" flat 5/$1			XC111Y	yellow	4/$1
			XC111C	clear	4/$1

TIMEX T1001
LIQUID CRYSTAL DISPLAY CLASS II
FIELD EFFECT,

4 DIGIT – .5" CHARACTERS
THREE ENUNCIATORS
2.00" x 1.20" PACKAGE
INCLUDES CONNECTOR

T1001-Transmissive $7.95
T1001A-Reflective 8.25

DISPLAY LEDS

TYPE	POLARITY	HT	PRICE	TYPE	POLARITY	HT	PRICE
MAN 1	Common Anode-red	.270	2.95	MAN 6730	Common Anode-red ± 1	.560	.99
MAN 2	5 x 7 Dot Matrix-red	.300	4.95	MAN 6740	Common Cathode-red-D.D.	.560	.99
MAN 3	Common Cathode-red	.125	.25	MAN 6750	Common Cathode-red ± 1	.560	.99
MAN 4	Common Cathode-red	.187	1.95	MAN 6760	Common Anode-red	.560	.99
MAN 7G	Common Anode-green	.300	1.25	MAN 6780	Common Cathode-red	.560	.99
MAN 7Y	Common Anode-yellow	.300	.99	DL701	Common Anode-red ± 1	.300	.99
MAN 72	Common Anode-red	.300	.99	DL704	Common Cathode-red	.300	.99
MAN 74	Common Cathode-red	.300	1.25	DL707	Common Anode-red	.300	.99
MAN 82	Common Anode-yellow	.300	.99	DL728	Common Cathode-red	.500	1.49
MAN 84	Common Cathode-yellow	.300	.99	DL741	Common Anode-red	.600	1.25
MAN 3620	Common Anode-orange	.300	.99	DL746	Common Anode-red ± 1	.630	1.49
MAN 3630	Common Anode-orange ± 1	.300	.99	DL747	Common Anode-red	.600	1.49
MAN 3640	Common Cathode-orange	.300	.99	DL749	Common Cathode-red ± 1	.630	1.49
MAN 4610	Common Anode-orange	.300	.99	DL750	Common Cathode-red	.600	1.49
MAN 4640	Common Cathode-orange	.400	.99	DL338	Common Cathode-red	.110	.35
MAN 4710	Common Anode-red	.400	.99	FND70	Common Cathode	.250	.69
MAN 4730	Common Anode-red ± 1	.400	.99	FND358	Common Cathode ± 1	.357	.99
MAN 4740	Common Cathode-red	.400	.99	FND359	Common Cathode	.357	.75
MAN 4810	Common Anode-yellow	.400	.99	FND503	Common Cathode(FND500)	.500	.99
MAN 4840	Common Cathode-yellow	.400	.99	FND507	Common Anode (FND510)	.500	.99
MAN 6610	Common Anode-orange-D.D.	.560	.99	5082-7730	Common Anode-red	.300	1.30
MAN 6630	Common Anode-orange ± 1	.560	.99	HDSP-3400	Common Anode-red	.800	2.10
MAN 6640	Common Cathode-orange-D.D.	.560	.99	HDSP-3403	Common Cathode red	.800	2.10
MAN 6650	Common Cathode-orange ± 1	.560	.99	5082-7300	4 x 7 sgl. Digit-RHDP	.600	19.95
MAN 6660	Common Anode-orange	.560	.99	5082-7302	4 x 7 Sgl. Digit-LHDP	.600	19.95
MAN 6680	Common Cathode-orange	.560	.99	5082-7304	Overrange character (±1)	.600	15.00
MAN 6710	Common Anode-red-D.D.	.560	.99	5082-7340	4 x 7 Sgl. Digit-Hexadecimal	.600	22.50

RCA LINEAR

CA3013T	2.15	CA3082N	2.00
CA2023T	2.56	CA3083N	1.60
CA3035T	2.48	CA3086N	.85
CA3039T	1.35	CA3089N	3.75
CA3046N	1.30	CA3130T	1.39
CA3059N	3.25	CA3140T	1.25
CA3060N	3.25	CA3160T	1.25
CA3080T	.85	CA3401N	.49
CA3081N	2.00	CA3600N	3.50

CALCULATOR CHIPS/DRIVERS

MM5725	$2.95
MM5738	2.95
DM8864	2.00
DM8865	1.00
DM8867	.75
DM8889	.75
9374 7 seg.	
C.A. LED driver	1.50

CLOCK CHIPS

MM5309	$4.95
MM5311	4.95
MM5312	4.95
MM5314	4.95
MM5316	6.95
MM5318	9.95
MM5369	2.95
MM5387/1998A	4.95
MM5841	9.95

MOTOROLA

MC1408L7	$4.95
MC1408L8	5.75
MC1439L	2.95
MC3022P	2.95
MC3061P	3.50
MC4016(74416)	7.50
MC4024P	3.95
MC4040P	6.95
MC4044P	4.50

IC SOLDERTAIL — LOW PROFILE (TIN) SOCKETS

	1-24	25-49	50-100
8 pin LP	.17	.16	.15
14 pin LP	.20	.19	.18
16 pin LP	.22	.21	.20
18 pin LP	.29	.28	.27
20 pin LP	.34	.32	.30

SOLDERTAIL STANDARD (TIN)

14 pin ST	$.27	.25	.24
16 pin ST	.30	.27	.25
18 pin ST	.35	.32	.30
24 pin ST	.49	.45	.42

SOLDERTAIL STANDARD (GOLD)

8 pin SG	$.30	.27	.24
14 pin SG	.35	.32	.29
16 pin SG	.38	.35	.32
18 pin SG	.52	.47	.43

WIRE WRAP SOCKETS (GOLD) LEVEL #3

8 pin WW	$.39	.38	.31
10 pin WW	.45	.41	.37
14 pin WW	.39	.38	.37
16 pin WW	.43	.42	.41
18 pin WW	.75	.68	.62

	1-24	25-49	50-100
22 pin LP	$ .37	.36	.35
24 pin LP	.38	.37	.36
28 pin LP	.45	.44	.43
36 pin LP	.60	.59	.58
40 pin LP	.63	.62	.61
28 pin ST	$ .99	.90	.81
36 pin ST	1.39	1.26	1.15
40 pin ST	1.59	1.45	1.30
24 pin SG	$ .70	.63	.57
28 pin SG	1.10	1.00	.90
36 pin SG	1.65	1.40	1.26
40 pin SG	1.75	1.59	1.45
22 pin WW	$ .95	.85	.75
24 pin WW	1.05	.95	.85
28 pin WW	1.40	1.25	1.10
36 pin WW	1.59	1.45	1.30
40 pin WW	1.75	1.55	1.40

1/4 WATT RESISTOR ASSORTMENTS – 5%

ASST. 1	5 ea.	10 OHM	12 OHM	15 OHM	18 OHM	22 OHM	50 PCS	$1.75
		27 OHM	33 OHM	39 OHM	47 OHM	56 OHM		
		68 OHM	82 OHM	100 OHM	120 OHM	150 OHM		
ASST. 2	5 ea.	180 OHM	220 OHM	270 OHM	330 OHM	390 OHM	50 PCS	1.75
		470 OHM	560 OHM	680 OHM	820 OHM	1K		
ASST. 3	5 ea.	1.2K	1.5K	1.8K	2.2K	2.7K	50 PCS	1.75
		3.3K	3.9K	4.7K	5.6K	6.8K		
ASST. 4	5 ea.	8.2K	10K	12K	15K	18K	50 PCS	1.75
		22K	27K	33K	39K	47K		
ASST. 5	5 ea.	56K	68K	82K	100K	120K	50 PCS	1.75
		150K	180K	220K	270K	330K		
ASST. 6	5 ea.	390K	470K	560K	680K	820K	50 PCS	1.75
		1M	1.2M	1.5M	1.8M	2.2M		
ASST. 7	5 ea.	2.7M	3.3M	3.9M	4.7M	5.6M	50 PCS	1.75
ASST. 8R	Includes Resistor Assortments 1-7 (350 PCS.)							$9.95 ea.

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Jameco ELECTRONICS

PHONE ORDERS WELCOME (415) 592-8097

MAIL ORDER ELECTRONICS – WORLDWIDE
1021 HOWARD AVENUE, SAN CARLOS, CA 94070
ADVERTISED PRICES GOOD THRU JULY

TELEPHONE/KEYBOARD CHIPS

AY-5-9100	Push Button Telephone Dialler	$14.95
AY-5-9200	Repertory Dialler	14.95
AY-5-9500	CMOS Clock Generator	4.95
AY-5-2376	Keyboard Encoder (88 keys)	14.95
HD0165	Keyboard Encoder (16 keys)	7.95
74C922	Keyboard Encoder (16 keys)	5.95

ICM CHIPS

ICM7045	CMOS Precision Timer	24.95
ICM7205	CMOS LED Stopwatch/Timer	19.95
ICM7207	Oscillator Controller	7.50
ICM7208	Seven Decade Counter	19.95
ICM7209	Clock Generator	6.95

NMOS READ ONLY MEMORIES

MCM6571	128 X 9 X 7 ASCII Shifted with Greek	13.50
MCM6574	128 X 9 X 7 Math Symbol & Pictures	13.50
MCM6575	128 X 9 X 7 Alphanumeric Control Character Generator	13.50

MISCELLANEOUS

TL074CN	Quad Low Noise bi-fet Op Amp	2.49
TL494CN	Switching Regulator	4.49
TL496CP	Single Switching Regulator	1.75
11C90	Divide 10/11 Prescaler	19.95
95H90	Hi-Speed Divide 10/11 Prescaler	11.95
4N33	Photo-Darlington Opto-Isolator	3.95
MK50240	Top Octave Freq. Generator	17.50
DS0026CH	5Mhz 2-phase MOS clock driver	3.75
TIL308	.27" red num. display w/intg. logic chip	10.50
MM5320	TV Camera Sync. Generator	14.95
MM5330	4½ Digit DPM Logic Block (Special)	3.95
LD110/111	3½ Digit A/D Converter Set	25.00/set

LITRONIX ISO-LIT 1
Photo Transistor Opto-Isolator (Same as MCT 2 or 4N25)
2/99¢

SN 76477
SOUND GENERATOR
Generates Complex Sounds
Low Power - Programmable
3.95 each

TV GAME CHIP AND CRYSTAL
AY-3-8500-1 and 2.01 MHZ Crystal (Chip & Crystal includes score display, 6 games and select angles, etc. **7.95/set**

XR205	$8.40	XR2242CP	1.50
XR210	4.40	XR2264	4.25
XR215	4.40	XR2556	3.20
XR3320	1.55	XR2567	2.99
XR-L555	1.50	XR3403	1.25
XR555	.39	XR4136	1.25
XR556	.99	XR4151	2.85
XR567CP	.99	XR4194	4.95
XR567CT	1.25	XR4202	3.60
XR1310P	1.30	XR4212	2.05
XR1468CN	3.85	XR4558	.75
XR1488	1.39	XR4739	1.15
XR1489	1.39	XR4741	1.47

EXAR

JE2206KA 14.95
JE2206KB 19.95
XR1800 3.20
XR2206 4.40
XR2207 3.85
XR2208 5.20
XR2209 1.75
XR2211 5.25
XR2212 4.35
XR2240 3.45

DIODES

TYPE	VOLTS	W	PRICE
1N746	3.3	400m	4/1.00
1N751	5.1	400m	4/1.00
1N752	5.6	400m	4/1.00
1N753	6.2	400m	4/1.00
1N754	6.8	400m	4/1.00
1N757	9.0	400m	4/1.00
1N759	12.0	400m	4/1.00
1N959	8.2	400m	4/1.00
1N965	15	400m	4/1.00
1N5232	5.6	500m	28
1N5234	6.2	500m	28
1N5235	6.8	500m	28
1N5236	7.5	500m	28
1N5242	12	500m	28
1N5245	15	500m	28
1N456	25	40m	6/1.00
1N458	150	7m	6/1.00
1N485A	180	10m	5/1.00
1N4001	50 PIV 1 AMP		12/1.00

TYPE	VOLTS	W	PRICE
1N4002	100 PIV 1 AMP		12/1.00
1N4003	200 PIV 1 AMP		12/1.00
1N4004	400 PIV 1 AMP		12/1.00
1N4005	600 PIV 1 AMP		10/1.00
1N4006	800 PIV 1 AMP		10/1.00
1N4007	1000 PIV 1 AMP		10/1.00
1N3600	50	200m	6/1.00
1N4148	75	10m	15/1.00
1N4154	35	10m	12/1.00
1N4305	75	25m	15/1.00
1N4734	5.6	1w	28
1N4735	6.2	1w	28
1N4736	6.8	1w	28
1N4738	8.2	1w	28
1N4742	12	1w	28
1N4744	15	1w	28
1N1183	50 PIV 35 AMP		1.60
1N1184	100 PIV 35 AMP		1.70
1N1185	150 PIV 35 AMP		1.70
1N1186	200 PIV 35 AMP		1.80
1N1188	400 PIV 35 AMP		3.00

SCR AND FW BRIDGE RECTIFIERS

C36D	15A @ 400V	SCR(2N1849)	$1.95
C38M	35A @ 600V	SCR	1.95
2N2328	1.6A @ 300V	SCR	.50
MDA 980-1	12A @ 50V	FW BRIDGE REC.	1.95
MDA 980-3	12A @ 200V	FW BRIDGE REC.	1.95

TRANSISTORS

C106B1	.50	2N3053	.89	2N3904	4/1.00
MPSA05	.30	2N3055	.89	2N3905	4/1.00
MPSA06	5/1.00	MJE3055	1.00	2N3906	4/1.00
TIS97	6/1.00	2N3392	5/1.00	2N4013	3/1.00
TIS98	6/1.00	2N3398	5/1.00	2N4123	6/1.00
40409	1.75	PN3567	3/1.00	PN4249	4/1.00
40410	1.75	PN3568	4/1.00	PN4250	4/1.00
40673	1.75	PN3569	4/1.00	2N4400	4/1.00
2N918	4/1.00	MPS3638A	5/1.00	2N4401	4/1.00
2N2219A	2/1.00	MPS3702	5/1.00	2N4402	4/1.00
2N2221A	4/1.00	2N3704	5/1.00	2N4403	4/1.00
2N2222A	5/1.00	MPS3704	5/1.00	2N4409	5/1.00
PN2222 Plastic	7/1.00	2N3705	5/1.00	2N5086	4/1.00
2N2369	5/1.00	MPS3705	5/1.00	2N5087	4/1.00
2N2369A	4/1.00	2N3706	5/1.00	2N5088	4/1.00
MPS2369	5/1.00	MPS3706	5/1.00	2N5089	4/1.00
2N2484	4/1.00	2N3707	5/1.00	PN5129	5/1.00
2N2906	4/1.00	2N3711	5/1.00	PN5134	5/1.00
2N2907	5/1.00	2N3724A	.65	PN5138	5/1.00
PN2907 Plastic	7/1.00	2N3725A	1.00	2N5139	5/1.00
2N2925	5/1.00	2N3772	2.25	2N5210	5/1.00
MJE2955	1.25	2N3823	1.00	2N5449	3/1.00
2N3053	2/1.00	2N3903	5/1.00	2N5951	3/1.00

CAPACITOR CORNER

50 VOLT CERAMIC DISC CAPACITORS

	1-9	10-99	100 -		1-9	10-99	100 -
10 pf	.05	.04	.03	.001μF	.05	.04	.035
22 pf	.05	.04	.03	.0047μF	.05	.04	.035
47 pf	.05	.04	.03	.01μF	.05	.04	.035
100 pf	.05	.04	.03	.022μF	.06	.05	.04
220 pf	.05	.04	.03	.047μF	.06	.05	.04
470 pf	.05	.04	.035	.1μF	.12	.09	.075

100 VOLT MYLAR FILM CAPACITORS

.001mf	.12	.10	.07	.022mf	.13	.11	.08
.0022	.12	.10	.07	.047mf	.21	.17	.13
.0047mf	.12	.10	.07	.1mf	.27	.23	.17
.01mf	.12	.10	.07	.22mf	.33	.27	.22

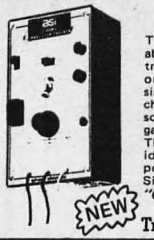
+20% DIPPED TANTALUMS (SOLID) CAPACITORS

.1/35V	.28	.23	.17	1.5/35V	.30	.26	.21
.15/35V	.28	.23	.17	2.2/25V	.31	.27	.22
.22/35V	.28	.23	.17	3.3/25V	.31	.27	.22
.33/35V	.28	.23	.17	4.7/25V	.32	.28	.23
.47/35V	.28	.23	.17	6.8/25V	.36	.31	.25
.68/35V	.28	.23	.17	10/25V	.40	.35	.29
1.0/35V	.28	.23	.17	15/25V	.63	.50	.40

MINIATURE ALUMINUM ELECTROLYTIC CAPACITORS

Axial Lead				Radial Lead			
.47/50V	.15	.13	.10	.47/25V	.15	.13	.10
1.0/50V	.16	.14	.11	.47/50V	.16	.14	.11
3.3/50V	.14	.12	.09	1.0/16V	.15	.13	.10
4.7/25V	.15	.13	.10	1.0/25V	.16	.14	.11
10/25V	.15	.13	.10	1.0/50V	.16	.14	.11
10/50V	.16	.14	.12	4.7/16V	.15	.13	.10
22/25V	.17	.15	.12	4.7/25V	.15	.13	.10
22/50V	.24	.20	.18	4.7/50V	.16	.14	.11
47/25V	.19	.17	.15	10/16V	.14	.12	.09
47/50V	.25	.21	.19	10/25V	.15	.13	.10
100/25V	.24	.20	.18	10/50V	.16	.14	.12
100/50V	.35	.30	.28	47/50V	.24	.21	.19
220/25V	.32	.28	.25	100/16V	.18	.15	.14
220/50V	.45	.41	.38	100/25V

Transistor Checker



— Completely Assembled —
— Battery Operated —

The ASI Transistor Checker is capable of checking a wide range of transistor types, either "in circuit" or out of circuit. To operate, simply plug the transistor to be checked into the front panel socket, or connect it with the alligator clip test leads provided. The unit safely and automatically identifies low, medium and high-power PNP and NPN transistors. Size: 3¾" x 6¼" x 2"
"C" cell battery not included.

NEW!

Trans-Check $29.95 ea.

Custom Cables & Jumpers

NEW! NEW!

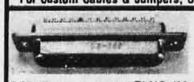
DB 25 Series Cables

Part No.	Cable Length	Connectors	Price
DB25P-4-P	4 Ft.	2-DP25P	$15.95 ea.
DB25P-4-S	4 Ft.	1-DP25P/1-25S	$16.95 ea.
DB25S-4-S	4 ft.	2-DP25S	$17.95 ea.

Dip Jumpers

DJ14-1	1 ft.	1-14 Pin	$1.59 ea.
DJ16-1	1 ft.	1-16 Pin	1.79 ea.
DJ24-1	1 ft.	1-24 Pin	2.79 ea.
DJ14-1-14	1 ft.	2-14 Pin	2.79 ea.
DJ16-1-16	1 ft.	2-16 Pin	3.19 ea.
DJ24-1-24	1 ft.	2-24 Pin	4.95 ea.

For Custom Cables & Jumpers, See JAMECO 1979 Catalog for Pricing



CONNECTORS
25 Pin-D Subminiature

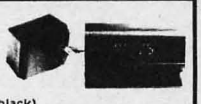
DB25P (as pictured)	PLUG (Meets RS232)	$2.95
DB25S	SOCKET (Meets RS232)	$3.50
DB51226-1	Cable Cover for DB25P or DB25S	$1.75

PRINTED CIRCUIT EDGE-CARD

.156 Spacing-Tin-Double Read-Out — Bifuracted Contacts — Fits .054 to .070 P.C. Cards

15/30	PINS (Solder Eyelet)	$1.95
18/36	PINS (Solder Eyelet)	$2.49
22/44	PINS (Solder Eyelet)	$2.95
50/100 (.100 Spacing)	PINS (Wire Wrap)	$6.95
50/100 (.125 Spacing)	PINS (Wire Wrap) R681-1	$6.95

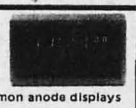
4-Digit Clock Kit



* Bright .357" ht. red display
* Sequential flashing colon
* 12 or 24 hour operation
* Extruded aluminum case (black)
* Pressure switches for hours, minutes & hold functions
* Includes all components, case and wall transformer
* Size: 3¼ x 1¾ x 1¼

JE730 $14.95

Jumbo 6-Digit Clock Kit



* Four .630"ht. and two .300"ht. common anode displays
* Uses MM5314 clock chip
* Switches for hours, minutes and hold functions
* Hours easily viewable to 30 feet
* Simulated walnut case
* 115VAC operation
* 12 or 24 hour operation
* Includes all components, case and wall transformer
* Size: 6¾ x 3⅛ x 1¾

JE747 $29.95

JE701

* Bright .300 ht. comm. cathode display
* Uses MM5314 clock chip
* Switches for hours, minutes and hold modes
* Hrs. easily viewable to 20 ft.
* Simulated walnut case
* 115 VAC operation
* 12 or 24 hr. operation
* Incl. all components, case & wall transformer
* Size: 6¾" x 3-1/8" x 1¾"

6-Digit Clock Kit $19.95

REMOTE CONTROL TRANSMITTER & RECEIVER

* CAN BE USED AS REMOTE CONTROL FOR TV
* USE IT FOR YOUR GMC GARAGE DOOR OPENER
* TRANSMITS BETWEEN 304Hz AND 41.5KHz
* THOUSANDS OF USES FOR REMOTE CONTROL APPLICATIONS
* TRANSMITTER USES A 1.5V BATTERY
* SCHEMATIC INCLUDED

$19.95

Digital Stopwatch Kit

* Use Intersil 7205 Chip
* Plated thru double-sided P.C. Board
* LED display (red)
* Times to 59 min. 59.59 sec. with auto reset
* Quartz crystal controlled
* Three stopwatches in one: single event, split (cummulative) & taylor (sequential timing)
* Uses 3 penlite batteries
* Size: 4.5" x 2.15" x .90"

JE900 $39.95

MICROPROCESSOR COMPONENTS

8080A/8080A SUPPORT DEVICES

8080A	CPU	$ 9.95
8212	8-Bit Input/Output	3.25
8214	Priority Interrupt Control	5.95
8216	Bi-Directional Bus Driver	3.49
8224	Clock Generator/Driver	3.95
8226	Bus Driver	3.49
8228	System Controller/Bus Driver	5.95
8238	System Controller	5.95
8251	Prog. Comm. 1/0 (USART)	7.95
8253	Prog. Interval Timer	14.95
8255	Prog. Periph. 1/0 (PPI)	9.95
8257	Prog. DMA Control	19.95
8259	Prog. Interrupt Control	19.95

6800/6800 SUPPORT DEVICES

MC6800	MPU	$14.95
MC6802CP	MPU with Clock and Ram	24.95
MC6810API	128X8 Static Ram	5.95
MC6821	Periph. Inter. Adapt (MC6820)	7.49
MC6828	Priority Interrupt Controller	12.95
MC6830L8	1024X8 Bit ROM (MC68A30-8)	14.95
MC6850	Asynchronous Comm. Adapter	7.95
MC6852	Synchronous Serial Data Adapt.	9.95
MC6860	0-600 bps Digital MODEM	12.95
MC6862	2400 bps Modulator	14.95
MC6880A	Quad 3-State Bus. Trans. (MC8T26)	2.25

MICROPROCESSOR CHIPS—MISCELLANEOUS

Z80(780C)	CPU	$19.95
Z80A(780-1)	CPU	24.95
CDP1802	CPU	19.95
2650	MPU	19.95
8035	8-Bit MPU w/clock, RAM, 1/0 lines	19.95
P8085	CPU	19.95
TMS9900JL	16-Bit MPU w/hardware, multiply & divide	49.95

SHIFT REGISTERS

MM500H	Dual 25 Bit Dynamic	$.50
MM503H	Dual 50 Bit Dynamic	.50
MM504H	Dual 16 Bit Static	.50
MM506H	Dual 100 Bit Static	.50
MM510H	Dual 64 Bit Accumulator	.50
MM5016H	500/512 Bit Dynamic	.89
2504T	1024 Dynamic	3.95
2518	Hex 32 Bit Static	4.95
2522	Dual 132 Bit Static	2.95
2524	512 Static	.99
2525	1024 Dynamic	2.95
2527	Dual 256 Bit Static	2.95
2528	Dual 250 Static	4.00
2529	Dual 240 Bit Static	4.00
2532	Quad 80 Bit Static	2.95
2533	1024 Static	2.95
3341	Fifo	6.95
74LS670	4X4 Register File (TriState)	2.49

UART'S

A-Y-5-1013	30K BAUD	5.95

MICROPROCESSOR MANUALS

M-Z80	User Manual	$7.50
M-CDP1802	User Manual	7.50
M-2650	User Manual	5.00

ROM'S

2513(2140)	Character Generator(upper case)	$9.95
2513(3021)	Character Generator(lower case)	9.95
2516	Character Generator	10.95
MM5230N	2048-Bit Read Only Memory	1.95

RAM'S

1101	256X1	Static	$1.49
1103	1024X1	Dynamic	.99
2101(8101)	256X4	Static	3.95
2102	1024X1	Static	1.75
21L02	1024X1	Static	1.95
2111(8111)	256X4	Static	3.95
2112	256X4	Static MOS	4.95
2114	1024X4	Static 450ns	9.95
2114L	1024X4	Static 450ns low power	10.95
2114-3	1024X4	Static 300ns	10.95
2114L-3	1024X4	Static 300ns low power	11.95
5101	256X4	Static	7.95
5280/2107	4096X1	Dynamic	4.95
7489	16X4	Static	1.75
74S200	256X1	Static Tristate	4.95
93421	256X1	Static	2.95
UPD414 (MK4027)	4K	Dynamic 16 pin	4.95
UPD416 (MK4116)	16K	Dynamic 16 pin	9.95
TMS4044-45NL	4K	Static	14.95
TMS4045	1024X4	Static	14.95
2117	16,384X1	Dynamic 350ns (house marked)	9.95
MM5262	2KX1	Dynamic	4/1.00

PROM'S

1702A	2048	FAMOS	$5.95
2716INTEL	16K*	EPROM	59.95
TMS2516	16K*	EPROM	49.95
(2716)	*Requires single +5V power supply		
TMS2532	4KX8	EPROM	89.95
2708	8K	EPROM	10.95
2716 T.I	16K**	EPROM	29.95
	**Requires 3 voltages, —5V, +5V, +12V		
5203	2048	FAMOS	14.95
6301-1(7611)	1024	Tristate Bipolar	3.49
6330-1(7602)	256	Open C Bipolar	2.95
82S23	32X8	Open Collector	3.95
82S115	4096	Bipolar	19.95
82S123	32X8	Tristate	3.95
74186	512	TTL Open Collector	9.95
74188	256	TTL Open Collector	3.95
74S287	1024	Static	2.95

CSC CONTINENTAL SPECIALTIES

Proto Board 203

A total ready-to-use power breadboard prototest device with a built-in regulated, short-proof power supply. Just plug in and start building! 2 extra floating 5-way binding posts for external signals. Self-contained with power switch indicator lamp and power fuse. 24-14 pin DIP capacity. Attractive two-tone quality case. All metal construction. 9¾"L x 6½"W x 2¾"H 5 lbs.

PB 203 **$75.00**

Proto Board 203A

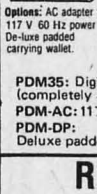
All the features of the PB-203 plus additional power supply flexibility, provides 1%-Regulated 5VDC supply (same specifications as PB-203). Regulated separate +15VDC and —15 VDC 0.5A supplies, each with internally and independently adjustable output voltage. Ripple and noise of + and —15V supplies. 10mV at 0.25A.

PB 203A **$124.95**

Model Number	L x W x H (Inches)	Price
PB-6	6.0 x 4.5 x 1.4	$15.95
PB-100	6.0 x 4.5 x 1.4	$19.95
PB-101	6.0 x 4.5 x 1.4	$22.95

Model Number	L x W x H (Inches)	Price
PB-102	7.0 x 4.5 x 1.4	$26.95
PB-103	9.0 x 6.0 x 1.4	$44.95
PB-104	9.8 x 8.0 x 1.4	$54.95

THE SINCLAIR PDM35



DC Volts (4 ranges) Range 1mV to 1000V. Accuracy of reading 1.0%± 1 count. Note: 10MΩ input impedance.
AC Volts (40 Hz-5 kHz) Range 1V to 500 V. Accuracy of reading 1.0%± 2 counts.
DC Current (6 ranges) Range 1 nA to 200 mA. Accuracy of reading 1.0%± 1 count. Note: Max. resolution 0.1 nA
Resistance (5 ranges) Range: 1Ω to 20 MΩ. Accuracy of reading: 1.5%± 1 count. Also provides 5 junction-test ranges.
Dimensions: 6 in x 3 in x 1½ in.
Weight: 6½ oz.
Power Supply: 9 V battery or Sinclair AC adapter (Battery not incl.)
Sockets: Standard 4mm for resilient plugs.

Options: AC adapter for 117 V 60 Hz power De-luxe padded carrying wallet.

PDM35: Digital Multimeter . . . $59.95 (completely assembled)
PDM-AC: 117V AC Adapter . . . 6.95
PDM-DP: Deluxe padded carrying case. . . 6.95

CSC 100 MHz 8-Digit Counter

CONTINENTAL SPECIALTIES CORPORATION

- 20 Hz-100 MHz Range
- 8" LED Display
- Crystal-controlled timebase
- Fully Automatic
- Portable — completely self-contained
- Size — 1.75" x 7.38" x 5.63"
- Four power souces, i.e. batteries, 110 or 220V with charger 12V with auto lighter adapter and external 7.2-10V power supply

MAX-100 $134.95

ACCESSORIES FOR MAX 100:
Mobile Charger Eliminator use power from car battery — Model 100 — CLA $3.95
Charger/Eliminator use 110 V AC — Model 100 — CAI $9.95

REGULATED POWER SUPPLY NEW!

JE200 5V-1 AMP POWER SUPPLY

- *Uses LM309K
- *Heat sink provided
- *PC Board construction
- *Provides a solid 1 amp @ 5 volts
- *Can supply up to ±5V, ±9V and ±12V with JE205 Adapter
- *Includes components, hardware & instructions
- *Size: 3½"x5"x2"H

JE200 $14.95

JE205 ADAPTER BOARD — Adapts to JE200 — ±5V, ±9V and ±12V

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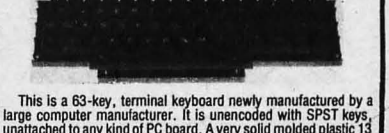

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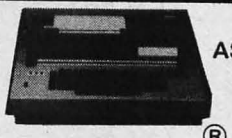

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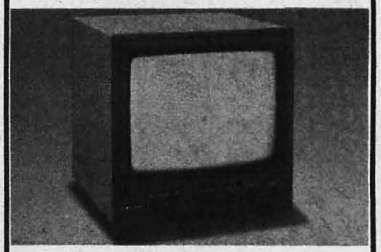

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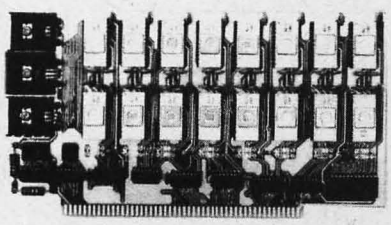

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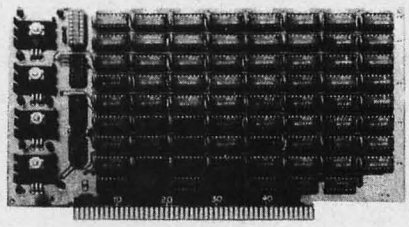

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5. FOUR 7805 regulators are provided on card.

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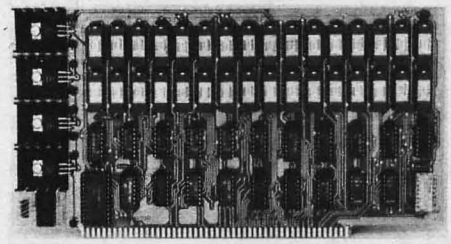

WHY THE 2114 RAM CHIP?

We feel the 2114 will be the next industry standard RAM chip (like the 2102 was). This means price, availability, and quality will all be good! Next, the 2114 is FULLY STATIC! We feel this is the **ONLY** way to go on the S-100 Buss! We've all heard the HORROR stories about some Dynamic Ram Boards having trouble with DMA and FLOPPY DISC DRIVES. Who needs these kinds of problems? And finally, even among other 4K Static RAM's the 2114 stands out! Not all 4K static Rams are created equal! Some of the other 4K's have **clocked** chip enable lines and various timing windows **just as critical** as Dynamic RAM's. Some of our competitor's 16K boards use these "tricky" devices. But not us! The 2114 is the ONLY logical choice for a trouble-free, straightforward design.

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1. Addressable as four separate 4K Blocks.
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6. All address and data lines fully buffered.
7. Kit includes ALL parts and sockets.
8. PHANTOM is jumpered to PIN 67.
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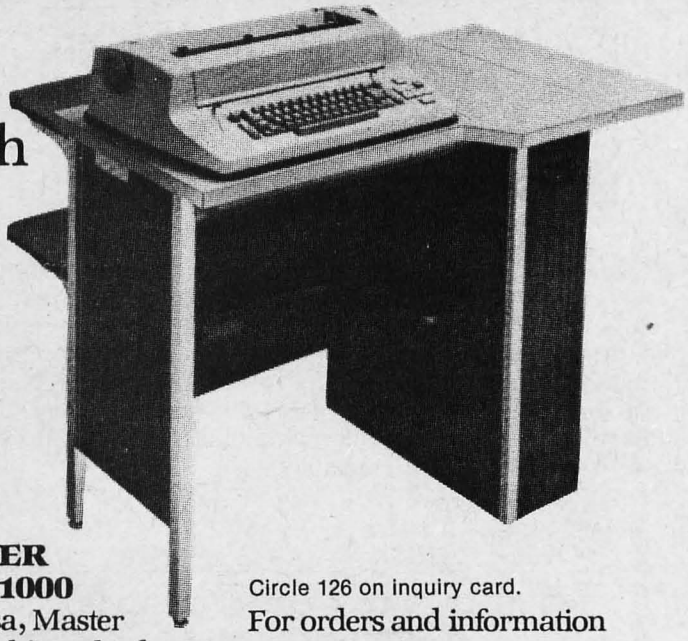

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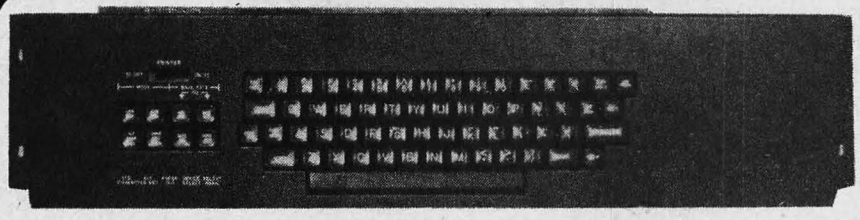

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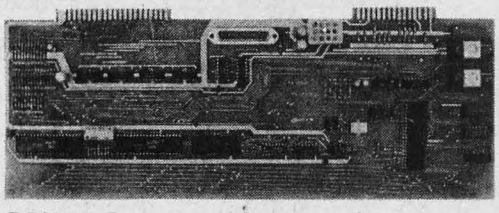

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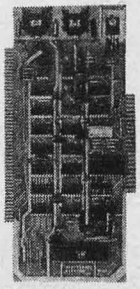

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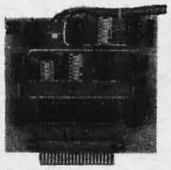

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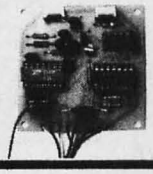

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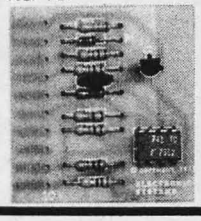
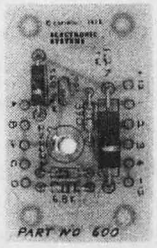


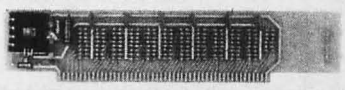
RS-232/ TTY* INTERFACE

• Converts RS-232 to 20mA current loop, and 20mA current loop to RS-232 • Two separate circuits • Requires +12 and -12 volts • Board only $4.50 Part No. 600, with parts $7.00 Part No. 600A

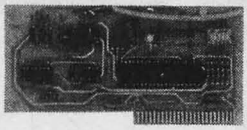


S-100 BUS * ACTIVE TERMINATOR

Board only $14.95 Part No. 900, with parts $24.95 Part No. 900A



APPLE II* SERIAL I/O INTERFACE



Baud rate is continuously adjustable from 0 to 30,000 • Plugs into any peripheral connector • Low current drain. RS-232 input and output • On board switch selectable 5 to 8 data bits, 1 or 2 stop bits, and parity or no parity either odd or even • Jumper selectable address • SOFTWARE • Input and Output routine from monitor or BASIC to teletype or other serial printer • Program for using an Apple II for a video or an intelligent terminal. Also can output in correspondence code to interface with some selectrics. • Also watches DTR • Board only $15.00 Part No. 2, with parts $42.00 Part No. 2A, assembled $62.00 Part No. 2C

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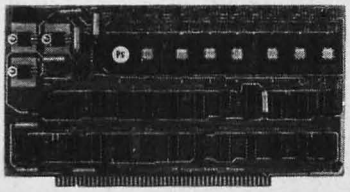
Saves programs on PROM permanently (until erased via UV light) up to 8K bytes. Programs may be directly run from the program saver such as fixed routines or assemblers. • S-100 bus compatible • Room for 8K bytes of EPROM non-volatile memory (2708's). • On-board PROM programming • Address relocation of each 4K of memory to any 4K boundary within 64K • Power on jump and reset jump option for "turnkey" systems and computers without a front panel • Program saver software available • Solder mask both sides • Full silkscreen for easy assembly. Program saver software in 1 2708 EPROM $25. Bare board $35 including custom coil, board with parts but no EPROMS $139, with 4 EPROMS $179, with 8 EPROMS $219.



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EPM-2 2708/2716 16K/32K EPROM card PCBD ..... $24.95 $49.95 with parts less EPROMS

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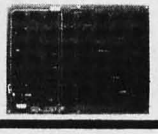

TAPE * INTERFACE

• Play and record Kansas City Standard tapes • Converts a low cost tape recorder to a digital recorder • Works up to 1200 baud • Digital in and out are TTL-serial • Output of board connects to mic. in of recorder • Earphone of recorder connects to input on board • No coils • Requires +5 volts, low power drain • Board only $7.60 Part No. 111, with parts $27.50 Part No. 111A

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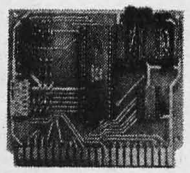

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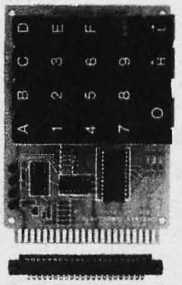
This HEX keyboard has 19 keys, 16 encoded with 3 user definable. The encoded TTL outputs, 8-4-2-1 and STROBE are debounced and available in true and complement form. Four onboard LEDs indicate the HEX code generated for each key depression. The board requires a single +5 volt supply. Board only $15.00 Part No. HEX-3, with parts $49.95 Part No. HEX-3A. 44 pin edge connector $4.00 Part No. 44P.



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• Board supplies a regulated +5 volts at 3 amps., +12, -12, and -5 volts at 1 amp. • Power required is 8 volts AC at 3 amps., and 24 volts AC C.T. at 1.5 amps. • Board only $12.50 Part No. 6085, with parts excluding transformers $42.50 Part No. 6085A

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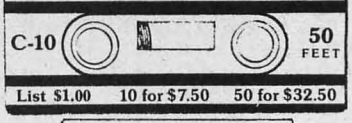

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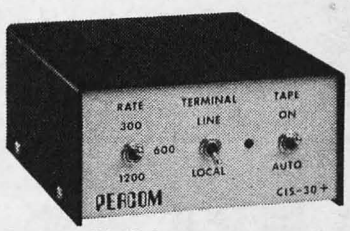

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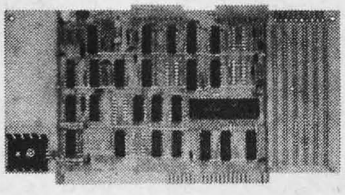

For your S-100 computer — the CI-812

- Both cassette and data terminal interfacing on one S-100 bus PC board.
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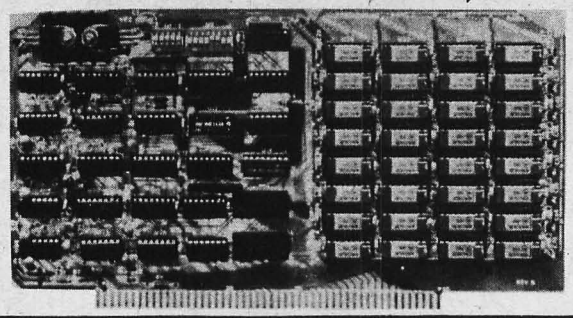

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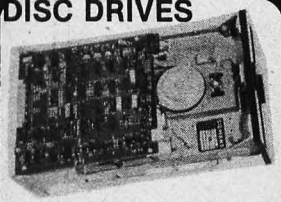

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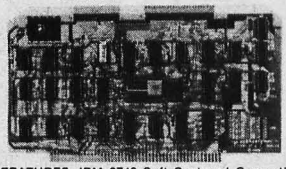

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CSC Model LP-2 Logic Probe—Net Each ..... ~~$24.95~~ **$23.70**

MODEL LP-3

High speed logic probe. Captures pulses as short as 10 ns. **Input Impedance:** 500,000 ohms. **Minimum Detectable Pulse:** 10 ns. **Maximum Input Signal (Frequency):** 50 MHz. **Pulse Detector (LED):** High speed train or single event. **Pulse Memory:** Pulse or level transition detected and stored.

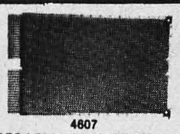
CSC Model LP-3 Logic Probe—Net Each ..... ~~$69.95~~ **$66.45**

DIGITAL PULSER

The ultimate in speed and ease of operation. Simply connect clip leads to positive and negative power, then touch DP-1's probe to a circuit node; automatic polarity sensor detects circuit's high or low condition. Depress the pushbutton and trigger an opposite polarity pulse into the circuit. Fast troubleshooting includes injecting signals at key points in TTL, DTL, CMOS or other popular circuits. Test with single pulse or 100 pulses per second via built-in dual control push-button; button selects single shot or continuous modes. LED indicator monitors operating modes by flashing once for single pulse or continuously for a pulse train. Completely automatic, pencil-size labfield pulse generator for any family of digital circuits. **Output:** Tri-state. **Polarity:** Pulse-sensing auto-polarity. **Sync and Source:** 100 mA. **Pulse Train:** 100 pps. **LED Indicator:** Flashes for single pulse; stays lit for pulse train.

CSC Model DP-1 Digital Pulser—Net Each ..... ~~$74.95~~ **$71.20**

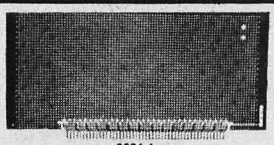
S100 PLUG BOARDS



4607

DEC LSI-11, PDP8, PDP11, Heath H-11, P Pattern Epoxy Glass, Plug Board 8.43"x5.187". Dual 36 pin DEC/HEATH Connectors.

1-4	5-9	10-24
19.95	17.96	15.96



8801-1

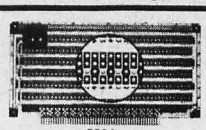
Plain no etched circuitry except contacts. Produces maximum flexibility.

1-4	5-9	10-24
14.95	13.46	11.96

8802-1

Pad per 2 holes. Two-holE pads allow tack soldering of socket, plus second hole for component leads.

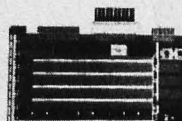
1-4	5-9	10-24
21.95	19.76	17.56



8804

"ANY DIP" has full power and ground planes back to back. Board accommodates 3, 4, 6, 9" Dips.

1-4	5-9	10-24
21.95	19.76	17.56



4608

Is form and size compatible with INTEL SBL80 Series and NATIONAL BLC 80 Series microcomputer boards. Power and Ground buses on both sides.

1-4	5-9	10-24
45.00	40.50	36.00

4608-1

Same as 4608, except plain less power buses.

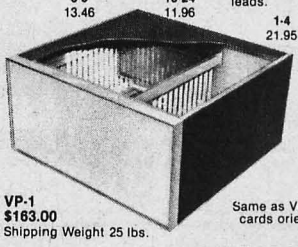
104	5-9	10-24
34.00	30.60	27.20

VECTOR-PAK ASSEMBLED MICROCOMPUTER CASES

Adjustable packaging system for S-100 bus microcomputers, compatible with Altair 8800 and IMSAI 8080 size cards.
- Smart looking, deluxe cases unmarred by unsightly screws or fasteners.
- Finished in dark blue textured vinyl.
- Instantly accessible interiors with slip out covers.
- Removable recessed rear and front panels.
- Fully adjustable interior mounting systems for any card or card spacing within size limitations. No cutting or drilling necessary.
- Perforated bottom cover for cooler operation.

DESCRIPTION

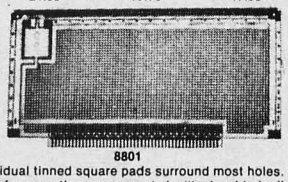
Assembled case with perforated bottom cover. Installed mounting struts for card guides and receptacles or mother board. Cards top loaded, spanning front to back. Card guide (12 pair) and chassis plate supplied uninstalled.



VP-1
$163.00
Shipping Weight 25 lbs.

VP-2

VP-2
$159.00
Same as VP1 except cards oriented side to side.



8801

Individual tinned square pads surround most holes. Ideal for mounting components by "tack soldering". Top of board pod free for mounting I/O connectors.

1-4	5-9	10-24
19.95	17.95	15.96

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$74.95*

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CC-3 Deluxe Padded Vinyl Carrying Case	$7.50
VP-10 X10 DCV Probe Adapter/ Protector 10Kv	$14.95
VP-40 40Kv DC Probe	$35.00
CS-1 10 Amp Current Shunt	$14.95

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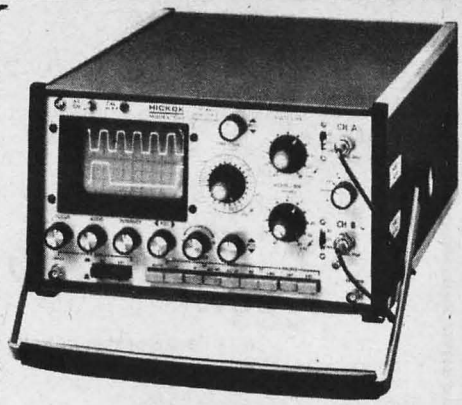
FREE BATTERY with your meter.



HICKOK 1¢ Sale

DUAL-TRACE 30 MHz Oscilloscope
Model 532
Deluxe 10:1 Probe Set
SALE PRICED AT
$1145.00

WOW

Dual-Trace 30 MHz Oscilloscope

• Built in delay line for leading edge viewing of fast risetime pulses. • Compact portable size. • 11.7 ns risetime. • Full time X4 expansion (horizontal position control automatically allows moving trace 4 screen widths at all sweep times). • **TEST MOST DIGITAL LOGIC CIRCUITS INCLUDING MICROPROCESSORS.** • **STABLE TRIGGERING UP TO 50 MHz.** • High and low pass trigger filters. • 11 step precision vertical attenuators. • 24 calibrated sweep times. • Analyze CB AM and SSB waveforms. • Regulated power supplies for accuracy over 105-130 VAC.

SPECIFICATIONS

VERTICAL RANGES: 10 mV/DIV to 20 V/DIV in 11 calibrated steps. Variable control permits fine adjustment between steps. **Accuracy:** ±4%. **Frequency Response:** DC to 30 MHz (-3 dB) DC coupled, 2 Hz to 30 MHz (-3 dB) AC coupled. **Risetime:** 11.7 ns. **Overshoot:** 4% or less. **Positioning:** 3 screens. **Input Impedance:** 1 megohm ±2% shunted by 27 pF, ±1.0 pF. **Maximum Input Voltage:** 500 V DC plus peak AC except 300 volts on .01 V range. **Vertical Modes:** Channel A only; Channel B only; Alternate A & B, Chopped A & B, Difference (A-B). **TIME BASE Sweep Rates:** 2 SEC/DIV to 0.05 μ SEC/DIV in 24 calibrated steps. Variable control permits fine adjustment between steps. **Accuracy:** ±4%. Except 7% from 2 SEC/DIV to 0.5 SEC/DIV. **TRIGGERING Modes:** AC-HF High pass filter, signal component below 3 kHz rejected. AC-LF Low pass filter, signal component above 10 kHz rejected. **Auto:** Provides continuous sweep without input signal. **Sources:** Line, Internal, External. **Slope:** Positive and negative; continuously variable level control. **Sensitivity:** Internal, ½ division (on CRT) to 30 MHz; 1 division to 50 MHz; external, 200 mV to 5 V peak-to-peak. **EXTERNAL HORIZONTAL** (X-AXIS). **Frequency Response:** DC to 5 MHz, AC, DC coupled. **Input Impedance;** 1 megohm ±5% shunted by approximately 30 pF. **GENERAL Probe Calibrator:** 0.6 V peak-to-peak, 200 ns risetime. **CRT:** 4-inch flat faced round with viewing area of 6 x 10 divisions. **Power Requirements:** 105-125 V, 50-400 Hz, 35 watts. **SIZE & WT.:** 6-7/8" h x 11¼" w x 17¾" d, 27 pounds (not including handle). (17.2 cm x 28.6 cm x 45.1 cm) (12.27 kg). **ACCESSORIES:** Model 532 includes 2 model SP-7, 10:1 probes and instruction manual. **Includes two probes.**

LX303 DVM 1¢ with Purchase of Scope

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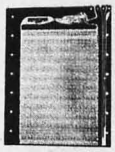
8803 MOTHER BOARD FOR S100 BUS MICRO-COMPUTERS

Vector



- Kit includes 12 tantalum capacitors for +5, +12, −12 buses and insulated mounting spacers.
- Wiring side shown. Component side bare epoxy glass with white markings for component locations.
- G10 epoxy glass board with 2 ounce copper, solder plated and .038 diameter holes for leads.
- Solder mask with solder windows on etched circuits to avoid accidental short circuits.
- Mounts 11 receptacles with 100 contacts (2 rows) on .125 centers with .250 row spacing. Vector part number R681-2; or mounts 10 receptacles plus interconnections to smaller mother board for expansion.
- Includes etched circuits and instructions for option of active, pull-up, or floating terminations.
- Large buses: +5V and GND (10 AMPS). ±12V or 16V (7 AMPS). Current ratings are per MIL-STD-275 with 10ºC rise.
- Fits in Vector-pak enclosures.
- Fits in IMSAI 8080 microcomputer as expander board.

Price: $29.50

Vector **Plugboards**

8800V

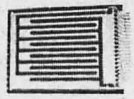
Universal Microcomputer/processor plugboard, use with S-100 bus. Complete with heat sink & hardware. 5.3" x 10" x 1/16"

1-4	5-9	10-24
$19.95	$17.95	$15.96

8801-1

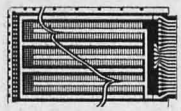
Same as 8800V except plain: less power buses & heat sink.

1-4	5-9	10-24
$15.22	$13.79	$12.18



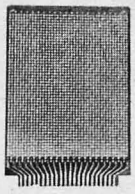
3682 9.6" x 4.5"
$10.97
3682-2 6.5" x 4.5"
$9.81

Hi-Density Dual-In-Line Plugboard for Wire Wrap with Power & Grd. Bus Epoxy Glass 1/16" 44 pin con. spaced .156



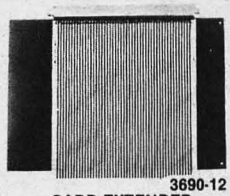
3677 9.6" x 4.5"
$10.90
3677-2 6.5" x 4.5"
$9.74

Gen. Purpose D.I.P. Boards with Bus Pattern for Solder or Wire Wrap. Epoxy Glass 1/16" 44 pin con. spaced .156



3662 6.5" x 4.5"
$7.65
3662-2 9.6" x 4.5"
$11.45

P pattern plugboards for IC's Epoxy Glass 1/16" 44 pin con. spaced .156



3690-12
CARD EXTENDER

Card Extender has 100 contacts 50 per side on .125 centers-Attached connector-is compatible with S-100 Bus Systems. **$25.83**
3690 6.5" 22/44 pin .156 ctrs. Extenders $13.17

1/16 Vector BOARD
.042 dia holes on 0.1 spacing for IC's

Phenolic PART NO.	SIZE	PRICE 1-9	10-19
64P44XXXP	4.5x6.5"	$1.56	$1.40
169P44XXXP	4.5x17"	$3.69	$3.32
Epoxy Glass			
64P44	4.5x6.5"	$1.79	$1.61
84P44	4.5x8.5"	$2.21	$1.99
169P44	4.5x17"	$4.52	$4.07
169P84	8.5x17"	$8.03	$7.23

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14 - G3 100 for **$30.00**
16-G3 100 for **$30.00**
50 of each for **$32.00**

Sockets are End & Side stackable, closed entry

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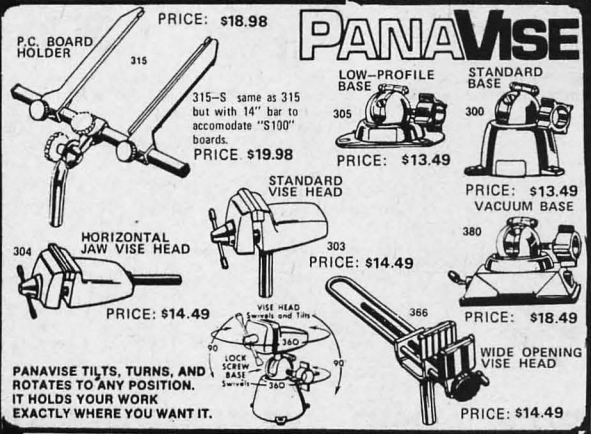

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for .042 dia. holes
(all boards on this page)
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16K EPROM
$40.00

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S-100 BUS EDGE CONNECTORS

S100-WWG 50/100 Cont. .125 ctrs. 3 LEVEL WIRE WRAP .025" sq. posts on .250 spaced rows. GOLD PLATED.

1-4	5-9	10-24
$4.00	$3.75	$3.50

S100-STG 50/100 Cont. .125 ctrs. DIP SOLDER TAIL on .250 spaced rows for VECTOR and MASI motherboards GOLD plated.

1-4	5-9	10-24
$3.50	$3.25	$3.00

S100ALT 50/100 Cont. .125 ctrs. DIP SOLDER TAIL on .140 spaced rows for ALTAIR motherboards. GOLD plated.

1-4	5-9	10-24
$4.00	$3.75	$3.50

S100SE 50/100 Cont. .125 ctrs. PIERCED SOLDER EYELET tails. GOLD

1-4	5-9	10-24
$5.00	$4.50	$4.25

OTHER POPULAR EDGE CONNECTORS

All Edge Card Connectors are GOLD PLATED (not Gold Flash) Bodies are non brittle, Solvent res., G.E. Valox. Contacts are Bifurcated; Phos/Bronze: GOLD over Nickel.
ABBREVIATIONS: SE = Solder Eyelet WW = 3 Level Wire Wrap ST = Solder Tail

.100" Contact Center Connectors

PART NO.	TYPICAL APPLICATION	PRICE 1-4	5-9	10-24
D1328-1SE	Imsai M10, SIO	2.60	2.40	2.20
D2244-1WW	Vector Plugboards	4.00	3.80	3.60
D2250-1SE	Imsai P10, Intel Multibuss	3.70	3.50	3.40
D2250-1ST	Imsai P10, Intel Multibuss	3.50	3.30	3.10
D2040-1SE	TRS-80	3.20	3.05	2.90
D2040-1ST	TRS-80	3.00	2.85	2.70
D2040-1WW	TRS-80	3.30	3.15	3.00
D3060-1WW	Intel Multibuss	4.10	3.90	3.70
D3672-1SE	Vector Plugboards	5.00	4.75	4.50
D3672-1ST	Vector Plugboards	4.95	4.70	4.45
D3672-1WW	Vector Plugboards	4.90	4.65	4.40
D4080-1SE	PET	5.95	5.70	5.45
D4080-1ST	PET	5.00	4.75	4.50
D4080-1WW	PET	5.20	4.95	4.70
D4386-1SE	Cos. ELF	5.60	5.35	5.05
D4386-1ST	Cos. ELF	5.40	5.15	4.90
D4386-1WW	Cos. ELF	5.50	5.25	5.00
D50100-1WW		5.95	5.75	5.55

.125" Contact Center Connectors

PART NO.	TYPICAL APPLICATION	PRICE 1-4	5-9	10-24
D3672-2WW		5.25	5.00	4.75
D4080-2WW	Vector 4350	5.95	5.65	5.35
S100-STG	S-100, Imsai, Vector, Cromenco, Motherboards	3.50	3.25	3.00
S100-WWG	S-100 Wire Wrap	4.00	3.75	3.40
S100-ALT	Altair	4.50	4.25	4.00
S100SE	S100 Solder Eyelet	5.00	4.50	4.00

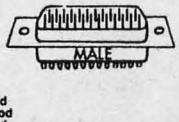
.156 Contact Centers Connectors

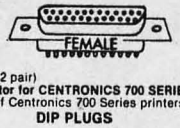
PART NO.	TYPICAL APPLICATION	PRICE 1-4	5-9	10-24
S6X-5SE	Pet, NSC CLK Modules	1.40	1.30	1.20
D812-5SE	Pet, NSC CLK Modules	1.60	1.50	1.40
D1224-5SE	Pet	2.40	2.30	2.20
D2224-5ST	Pet	2.30	2.20	2.10
D1530-5SE	Vector Plugboards, GRI Keybrds	2.50	2.35	2.10
D1530-5ST	Vector Plugboards, GRI Keybrds	2.40	2.25	2.05
D1530-5WW	Vector Plugboards, GRI Keybrds	2.60	2.40	2.15
D1836-5SE		3.00	2.80	2.60
D2244-5SE	Vector, Kim, etc.	3.00	2.60	2.20
D2244-5ST	Vector, Kim, etc.	3.00	2.80	2.50
D2244-5WW	Vector, Kim, etc.	3.95	3.70	3.40
D3672-5SE	Vector Plugboards	5.50	5.30	5.00
D3672-5ST	Vector Plugboards	5.45	5.25	5.00
D3672-5WW	Vector Plugboards	5.60	5.40	5.10
DE4386-5SE	Mot 6800, Intel Multibuss, NSC pacer	6.00	5.75	5.25
D4386-5ST	Mot 6800, Intel Multibuss, NSC pacer	5.90	5.65	5.15
D4386-5WW	Mot 6800, Intel Multibuss, NSC pacer	6.50	6.30	5.90
CG-1	Imsai Style Card Guides	5/1.00 or 100/10.00		

RS232 & "D" TYPE CONNECTORS

P = Plug-Male S = Socket-Female C = Cover-Hood

PART NO.	DESCRIPTION	PRICE 1-4	5-9	10-24
DE-9P	9 Pin Male	1.50	1.30	1.10
DE-9S	9 Pin Female	1.95	1.75	1.45
DE-9C	9 Pin Cover	1.50	1.30	1.10
DA15P	15 Pin Male	2.00	1.80	1.55
DA15S	15 Pin Female	2.90	2.70	2.45
DA15C	15 Pin Cover	1.80	1.60	1.30
DB-25P	25 Pin Male	2.50	2.20	2.05
DB-25S	25 Pin Female	3.50	3.10	2.95
DB51212-1	1 pc. Grey Hood	1.65	1.35	1.20
DB1226-1A	2 pc. Black Hood	1.80	1.50	1.35
DB1109963-3	2 pc. Grey Hood	1.70	1.40	1.25
DC37P	37 Pin Male	3.95	3.75	3.50
DC37S	37 Pin Female	5.50	5.25	4.90
DC37C	37 Pin Cover	2.00	1.80	1.60
DD50P	50 Pin Male	5.00	4.75	4.60
DD50S	50 Pin Female	6.50	6.00	5.75
DD50C	50 Pin Cover	2.50	2.30	2.20
D20418-S	Hardware Set (2 pair)	1.00	.80	.70





Connector for CENTRONICS 700 SERIES:
Amphenol 57-30360 for back of Centronics 700 Series printers 1-4—$9.00 5-up—$7.50

DIP PLUGS

Part #	No. of Pins	PRICE 1-24	25-99	100-499	Part #	No. of Pins	PRICE 1-24	25-99	100-499
P08P02	8	.41	.36	.29	P22P02	22	.75	.67	.63
P14P02	14	.48	.42	.34	P24P02	24	.79	.71	.66
P16P02	16	.55	.47	.38	P28P02	28	1.10	.93	.81
P18P02	18	.67	.57	.46	P40P02	40	1.25	1.07	.94

GOLD SOLDERTAIL STANDARD IC Sockets

	1-24	25-49	50-99		1-24	25-49	50-99
8STG	.30	.27	.24	22STG	.70	.63	.57
14SG	.35	.32	.29	24STG	.70	.63	.57
16STG	.38	.35	.32	28STG	1.10	1.00	.90
18STG	.52	.47	.43	40STG	1.75	1.55	1.45
20STG	.60	.56	.52				

TIN SOLDERTAIL - LOW PROFILE IC Sockets

	1-24	25-49	50-99		1-24	25-49	50-99
8CS2	.25	.16	.15	22CS2	.37	.36	.35
14CS2	.25	.18	.16	24CS2	.38	.37	.36
16CS2	.25	.20	.18	28CS2	.45	.44	.43
18CS2	.29	.28	.27	40CS2	.63	.62	.61
20CS2	.34	.32	.30				

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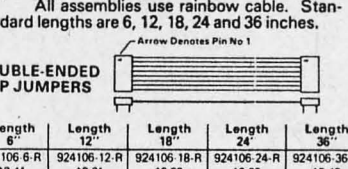

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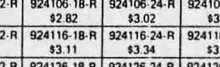

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1060	36/72 W/W Vector.	.200	4.80	4.60	4.30
1065	36/72 S/T Vector.	.200	4.00	3.75	3.50
1070	40/80 S/E PET	.140	4.80	4.50	4.30
1075	40/80 W/W PET	.200	5.00	4.65	4.35
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1710	36/72 S/E	.140	3.50	3.30	3.10
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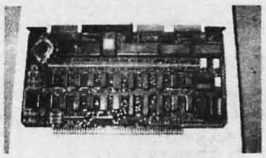

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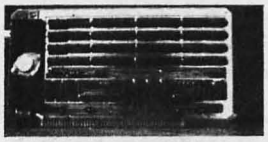

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- Inputs fully low power Shottky Schmitt Trigger buffered on all address and data lines
- Phantom is jumper selectable to pin 67
- Each 4K bank addressable to any 4K slot with in a 64K boundary.
- 4K hardware or software selectable
- One on board 8-bit output port enables or disables the 32K in 4K blocks
- Selectable port address
- 4K banks can be selected or disabled on power on clear or reset
- Will operate with or without front panel
- Compatible with ALPHA MICRO, with extended memory management for selection beyond 64K
- No DMA restriction
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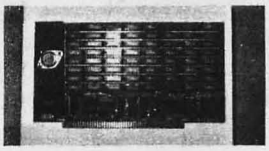
- Fully warranted for 120 days from date of shipment



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MICROBYTE DISK CONTROLLER

- IBM 3740 Soft Sectored Compatible
- Z80 or 8080 compatible on S-100 Bus
- Single density runs both mini and full size drives, runs CPM, on Shugart, Persci, Memorex etc.
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- Uses 1771B-01 controller chip
- Assembled and tested

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- Active Diode termination
- Slot for IMSAI front panel
- Terminal block connection for easy hook-up
- Extra wide ground plane
- Silk screen and solder mask
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9 SLOT $135.00
20 SLOT $200.00

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$6.00 each

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LOW POWER
HIGH SPEED
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Limited Qty.

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	1-9	10-49	50 up
320 T-5	.90	.85	.75
320 T-12	.90	.85	.75
340 T5	.85	.80	.70
340 T-12	.85	.80	.70
78 H05	6.50	6.00	5.50

MM 5257

4K X 1 STATIC RAM

	1-16	17-48	49 up
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450 NS	6.25	5.85	5.50

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	1-24	25-99	100-499	500 up
14 PIN	.18	.17	.15	.13
16 PIN	.19	.18	.16	.14
18 PIN	.24	.23	.20	.18
20 PIN	.29	.28	.26	.25
24 PIN	.34	.33	.32	.30
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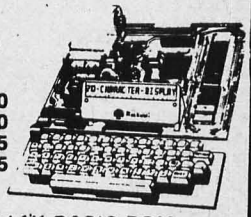

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- CP/M Compatible in either density
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- IBM format in either density
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MCM6571 up scan	$10.95
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PSD-205A: For Single 8" Disk Drive. By Power-One. +5V at 1A, -5V at .5A, +24V at 1.5A $89.95

PSD-206A: For Two 8" Disk Drives. By Power-One or Alpha Power. +5V at 2.5A, -5V at .5A, +/-24V at 3A $125.00

Rockwell: Aim-65 Power Supply
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KIM-1 or SYM-1 Power Supply:
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B51 5¼" $295.00
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- Two Drives Siemens/GSI 8" Floppy
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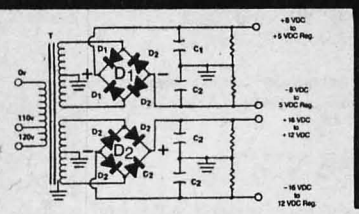

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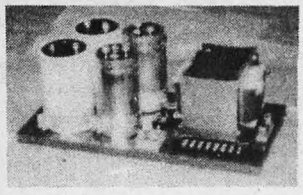

POWER TRANSFORMERS (WITH MOUNTING BRACKETS)

ITEM NO.	USED IN KIT NO.	PRI. WINDING TAPS	SECONDARY WINDING OUTPUTS 2×8 Vac	2×14 Vac	2×24 Vac	SIZE W × D × H	UNIT PRICE
T_1	1	0V, 110V, 120V	2×9A	2×2.5A	———	3¾"×3⅝"×3⅛"	**19.95**
T_2	2	0V, 110V, 120V	2×12.5A	2×3.5A	———	3¾"×4⅜"×3⅛"	**25.95**
T_3	3	0V, 110V, 120V	2×10A	2×2.5A	2×2.5A	3¾"×4⅜"×3⅛"	**27.95**
T_4	4	0V, 110V, 120V	2×4.5A	———	2×4.5A	3¾"×3⅝"×3⅛"	**19.95**

POWER SUPPLY KITS (OPEN FRAME WITH BASE PLATE, 3 HRS. ASSY. TIME)

ITEM	USED FOR	@+8 Vdc	@−8 Vdc	@+16 Vdc	@−16 Vdc	@+28 Vdc	SIZE W×D×H	UNIT PRICE
KIT 1	18 CARDS SOURCE	18A	———	2.5A	2.5A	———	12"×6"×4⅞"	**46.95**
KIT 2	SYSTEM SOURCE	25A	———	3A	3A	———	12"×6"×4⅞"	**54.95**
KIT 3	DISC SYSTEM	18A	1A	2A	2A	4A	14"×6"×4⅞"	**62.95**
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EACH KIT INCLUDES: TRANSFORMER, CAPACITORS, RESIS., BRIDGE RECTIFIERS, FUSE & HOLDER, TERMINAL BLOCK, BASE PLATE, MOUNTING PARTS AND INSTRUCTIONS.

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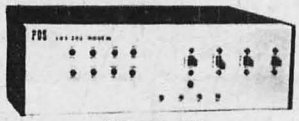
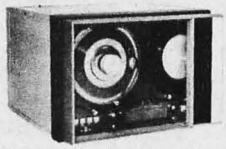


MODEMS



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  –POS 202 MODEM (Half-Duplex with Reverse Channel) $249.95
  –POS 202 MODEM (Half-Duplex w/Rev. Ch., Auto-Answer) $279.95
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32K - Keyboard B	$1295
32K - Keyboard N	$1295

C — calculator keyboard (only version with tape deck)
B — large business keyboard without graphics symbols
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FOR SALE: Heathkit microprocessor course and trainer computer. Works perfectly. Teaches microprocessor design and machine language programming. Many experiments in interface circuitry. Check November 1978 BYTE for more information. First check or money order for $225 gets it and I will ship it anywhere free. John Maurer, 3583 Vernal, Merced CA 95340.

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FOR SALE: MITS 4 K dynamic programmable memory assembled, tested, burned in. Also 2SIO board (only one port implemented) assembled, tested, including MITS documentation. Best offers or trades (will accept parts). T Shaw, 5F Nutmeg Knoll, Cockeysville MD 21030.

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WANTED: BYTE magazine issues volume 1, issue 1 thru January 1977 inclusive. Also have FOR SALE May 1977 issue. Best offer will be contacted. M M Kashani , 9862 La Jolla Farms Rd, La Jolla CA 92037.

FOR SALE: BYTE Issues 1, 2 and 3; 5 thru 16 (1976 complete); Vol II Issues 2 thru 12 (1977 except January); Vol III Issues 2 thru 4 (1978 February thru April). Best offer. Jim Taylor, 6720 N 75th St, Milwaukee WI 53223, (414) 353-1977.

FOR SALE: SYM-1 microcomputer brand new, used one day, in box with warranty and manuals. $200. Jim Riffle, 175 Piedra Loop, White Rock NM 87544, (505) 672-9541.

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Inquiry No.	Page No.
1	AB Computers 250
2	Advanced Access Group 154
4	Advanced Computer Products 237
3	Aladdin Automation 129
6	Altos Computer 23
5	American Square Computers 254
9	Anderson Jacobson 107
10	AP Products 59
11	ASAP Computer Products Inc 265
*	Atlantic Analysis Corp 183
19	ATV Research 254
18	Automated Computer Software Service 85
20	Avery Label 254
21	Avionic Enterprises Inc 254
23	Basic Time 165
30	Beckian Enterprises 263
31	Biotech Electronics 189
*	Bits Inc 137, 161, 236
33	Body Peripherals 95
32	Buss/Charles Floto 195
*	BYTE Back Issues 234
36	BYTE Books 37, 101-104, 192
35	BYTE Industries 125
*	BYTE WATS Line 258
37	California Computer Systems 18, 19
39	California Digital 241
40	CAP Electronics 232
45	Central Data 163
47	Chrislin Industries 225
48	COMPRINT (Computer Printers Int'l, Inc) 39
50	Compucolor (Div Intelligent Sys) 11
53	CompuMax Associates 183
54	Computer Components of South Bay 220
52	The Computer Cookbook 41
*	Computer Factory NY 245
*	Computer Headware 207
*	Computer Lab NJ 211
75	Computerland 8, 9, 160
66	Computer Mart of NJ & PA 53
*	Computer Packages Unlimited 254
74	C G Engineering 258
73	Computex Corp 213
71	Computhink 25
72	Computhink 217
78	CT Micro Computer 94, 170, 212, 232
79	Cover Craft 190
82	Covox 213
84	Creative Computer Applications 215
83	Creative Software 128
80	Cromemco 1, 2
88	Cybernetic Micro Systems 216
85	Cybernetics Inc 183
89	Data Decisions 195
91	Data Discount Center 207
94	Datamation 97
96	Data/Print Publishing 231
93	DataSearch 215
97	Data Speed 159
126	Data-Trans 257
98	Datec 188
99	Diablo (Div of Xerox) 145
86	Digital Pathways 143
95	DRC (CA) 177
100	DRC (TX) 255
105	Digital Data Systems Inc 258
101	Digital Service & Design 248
102	Digital Timing Devices 223
103	EASYSOFTWARE 215
104	80-US Journal 177
115	Electrolabs 247
120	Electronic Control Technology 183
125	Electronic Systems 256, 257
130	Electronics Warehouse 243
131	EMM/Semi 207
132	Essex Publishing 218
133	Exidy Inc 32, 33
134	FMG Corp 169
135	Four Seasons Co 258
136	Allen Gelder 258
142	H Geller Computer Systems 177
137	GenRad 204
144	Gimix 222
150	Godbout Electronics 115
152	Graham Dorian Enterprises CIII
151	GRT 47
159	H & E Computronics 211
170	Hobby World 235
169	HUH Electronics 193
172	HUH Electronics 193
173	Industrial Micro Systems 127
174	International Peripheral Systems 65
223	INMAC 195
179	Integrand 221
180	Intertec Data Systems 29
190	Ithaca Audio 113
191	Ithaca Audio 239
195	Jade Co 266, 267
200	Jameco 252, 253
201	King Flea 248
*	Lifeboat Associates 108, 109
202	Mad Hatter Software 151
199	The Mail Mart 258
205	Marketline Systems 214
206	Matrox 185
215	Measurement Sys & Controls 131
216	Measurement Sys & Controls 254
213	Micro Ap 141
214	Micro Architect 222
220	Micro DaSys 174
219	Micro Diversions 91
221	Micro Focus LTD. 87
222	Micromail 203
204	Micro Mike's 191
228	Micro Pro International 89
229	Microsette 258
227	Micro Source 171
232	Microware 201
231	The Micro Works 136
230	Mikos 264
233	Milton Bradley 51
236	Mini Computer Suppliers 175
237	Mission Control 121
238	Mission Control 133
255	Morrow/Thinker Toys 15
256	Morrow/Thinker Toys 31
257	Mountain Hardware 117, 156
258	National Small Computer Show 73
281	NEECO 62
282	NEECO 63
280	Netronics 155
284	Network Computer Systems 248
283	Newman Computer Exchange 269
286	Nix Olympica 232
285	North Star Computer 21
290	Ohio Scientific Instrument CIV
291	OK Machine & Tool 139
*	onComputing 81
292	Osborne & Associates 153
*	Owens Associates Inc 221
294	P & H Software 96
295	P S Software House 248
296	Pacific Office Systems 268
298	Page Digital 271
297	PAIA Electronics 175
305	Per Com Data 78
306	Per Com Data 79
301	Per Com Data 259
302	Personal Software Inc 118, 119
303	Pickles & Trout 234
312	Priority I 260, 261, 262
310	Programming Center Inc (PCI) 258
311	Quest Electronics 251
313	RACET Computes 234
314	Radio Shack Authorized Sales Center 254
322	RCA 75
323	Realty Software 258
*	The Recreational Programmer 222
325	RNB 93, 205
326	Rochester Data 187
327	Rothenberg Data Systems 200
316	S-100 Inc 221
331	S C Digital 211
*	St Jude 51
319	Michael Shrayer Software 167
*	Shugart Asssociates 6, 7
329	'68 Micro Journal 219
328	Smoke Signal Broadcasting 88
*	Software Development & Training 178
335	SSM 30
340	Solid State Sales 249
350	Southwest Technical Products Corp CII
352	Stirling/Bekdorf 202
353	SubLOGIC 218
354	Sunny International 268
357	SuperSoft 195
356	Sybex Inc 157
355	Synchro Sound 83
360	Tarbell Electronics 67
363	Technical Systems Consultants 111
364	Technology Systems South 146
368	3/M Company 27
369	Robert Tinney Graphics 55
*	Tora Systems Inc 254
370	Trade of Industrial Products Inc (TIP) 5
372	TransData 215
373	TransNet 223
374	TRS-80 Software Exchange 147
375	Verbatim 22
376	Video World 221
378	Vista Computer 213
383	R A Vowels 177
384	VR Data 263
385	Wallace Electronics 126
387	Wameco 264
389	Wintek Corp 248
391	Worldwide Electronics 254
395	X-Comp 234
401	Z_S Systems 248

**Correspond directly with company.*

BOMB— BYTE's Ongoing Monitor Box

Article No.	ARTICLE	PAGE
1	Smith: Graphic Input of Weather Data	18
2	Ciarcia: Sound Off	34
3	Albus: A Model of the Brain for Robot Control	54
4	Schmucker: The Mathematics of Computer Art	105
5	Dvorak: Sonic Anemometry for the Hobbyist	120
6	Powers: The Nature of Robots	134
7	Howe: Creativity in Computer Music	158
8	Chaffee: Quest	176
9	Helmers: Photo Essay: Physical Hardware of a New Computer Backplane	194
10	Grogono: Mouse, A Language for Microcomputers	198
11	Maurer: Subroutine Parameters	226

April BOMB Reaches for the Stars

Results of the April BOMB put simulation at the top of the charts.

The first place prize of $100 went to Mark Dahmke for "A Simulated View of the Galaxy," page 66. Two second place winners, Mark Zimmerman for "Simulation of Physical Systems," page 26 and Randy Smith for "Smart Memory," Part 1, page 54, will receive $50 each. "Microcomputer Time Sharing," page 224, by Kenneth J Johnson placed third.

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