

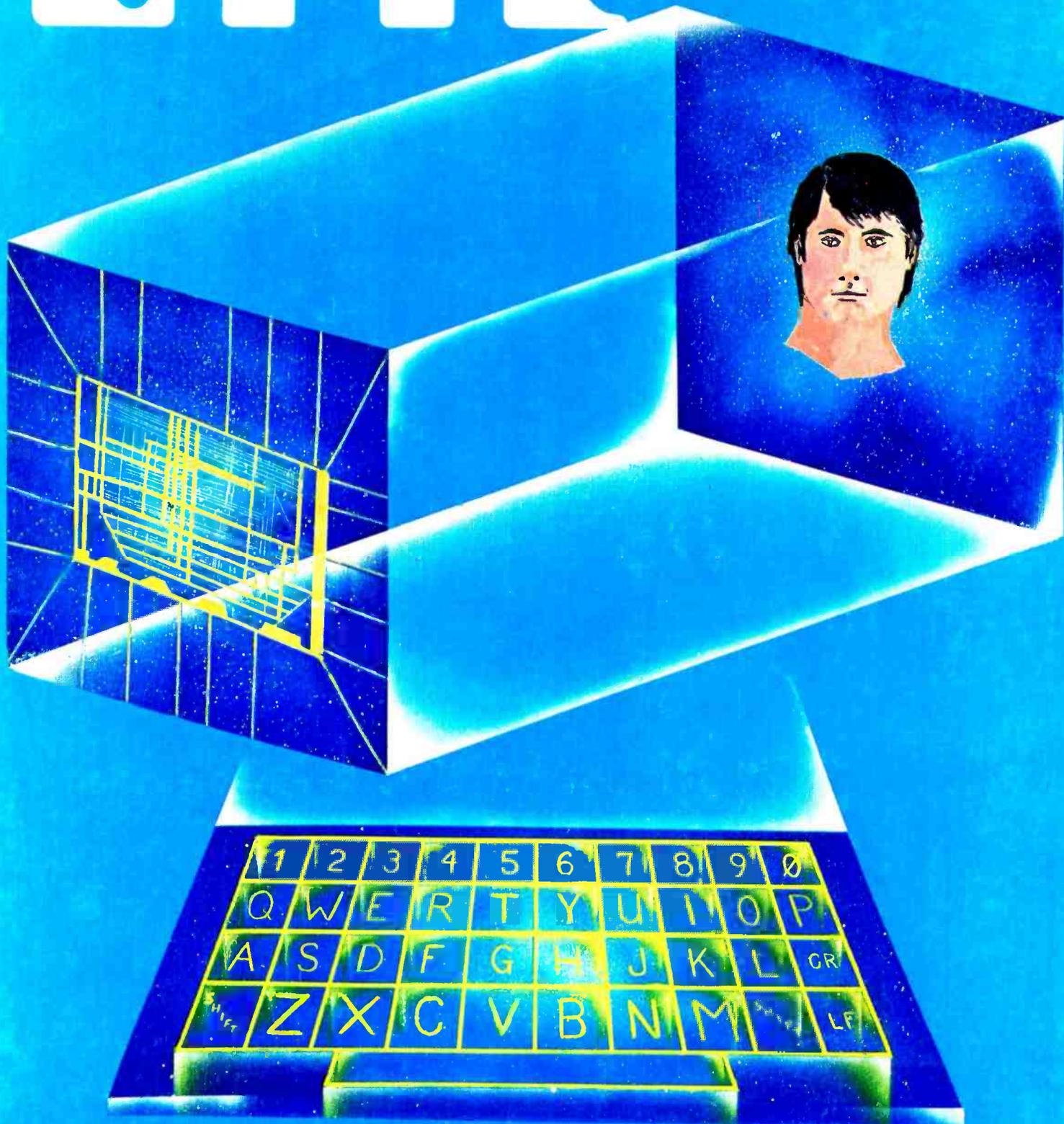
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BYTE

the small systems journal



K-N-LODDING



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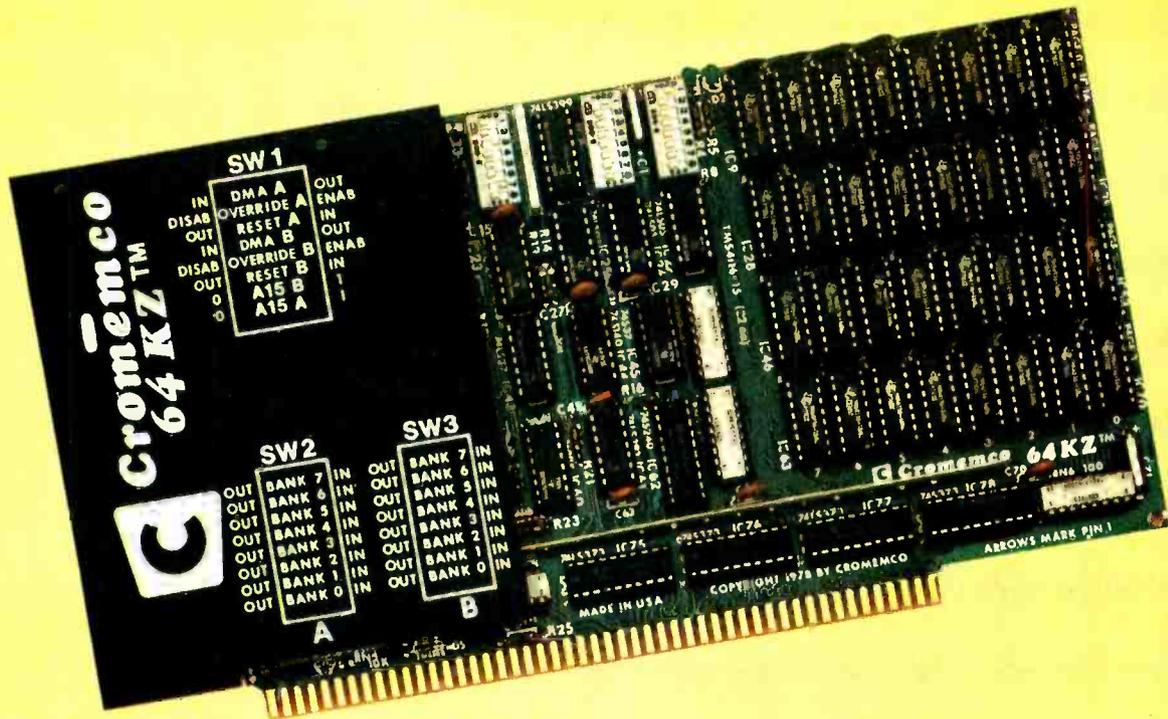
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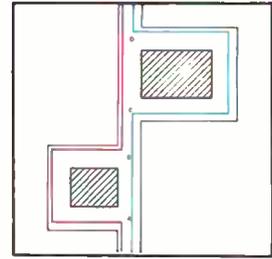
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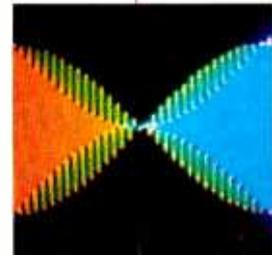
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THE TURING TEST
by Kenneth N Lodding



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This month's cover by Ken Lodding is called "The Turing Test," after the famous test defined by Alan Turing. It was Turing's contention that a computer could be judged as intelligent if a human questioner could not differentiate between a computer in one room and a human being in another.

The basis for the cover painting is the Necker cube, an optical illusion where it is unclear which end of the cube is in front. The question here is: Is it the human or the computer circuit connected to the keyboard?

In This BYTE

Before discussing the design of **A Model of the Brain for Robot Control**, it is necessary to define the notation that will be used in the model. James Albus discusses the overall model objectives and the notation used to describe it, drawing on control systems theory. *page 10*

The IEEE Micromouse contest requires that a mechanical "mouse" find its way through a maze. The winner is the mouse that makes it through the maze in the least amount of time. Sandra and Stephen A Allen discuss some of the **Simple Maze Traversal Algorithms** they and Tony Rossetti used for the Micromouse contest. *page 36*

The types of input available for your computer are limited only by the imagination. This month Steve Ciarcia uses **Mind Over Matter** to control his computer. Find out how to influence your computer using muscle power. *page 48*

Although the official documentation for the Apple II high resolution color graphics package states that the colors violet and green are the only colors besides black and white which may be obtained, adjustment of the television controls allows any pair of complementary colors to be displayed. It is also possible to obtain four colors and black and white with appropriate adjustments. Allen Watson III explains how in his article **More Colors for Your Apple**. *page 60*

If you enjoy taking your computer system to club meetings or other events, but don't look forward to the attendant wire fiddling and fuss, read **A Home for Your Computer** by Joseph Dawes. Now you can have a compact computer storage and travel case that doubles as a desk. *page 70*

One of the most interesting applications of your computer is the control of physical devices. Perhaps you've thought of having a robot-like device that your computer could control. James Gupton Jr describes the fun that he and two of his students had when they set out to do just that in **Talk to a Turtle**. *page 74*

It's not hard to put a bit of artificial intelligence into your computer system. David Stanfield found a way to make his system search for "food" in a maze he set up. Find out how to do it in **My Computer Runs Mazes**. *page 86*

William D Johnston develops a general purpose program with the capability to generate a wide variety of more advanced perspective projections. He includes a functional program with great versatility, as well as a number of maps generated by that program. Mr Johnston shows how **Computer Generated Maps** can be used in satellite communications and many other practical applications. *page 100*

William T Powers has a control theory approach to the simulation of human behavior. However, before we can simulate human behavior in a robot, we must determine what behavior is. William Powers takes a look at behavioral actions as he explores **The Nature of Robots**. *page 132*

When hand-assembling a program it is useful to have a table summarizing the op codes for the processor. Henry Melton supplies us with a table for **The 1802 Op Codes**. *page 146*

Keith S Reid-Green continues his **History of Computing** discussion with a look at **The IBM 7070**, a second generation computer announced in 1959. *page 148*

Some scientists over the years have argued that a thinking machine cannot be built because it would violate the second

law of thermodynamics. In **Artificial Intelligence and Entropy** author R M Kiehn discusses some recently completed work in chemistry that refutes this claim and opens the door once more to the possibility of intelligence in machines. *page 152*

When performing a lot of manipulations with text it is necessary to have the ability to perform editing functions on the file that is being used. If you have a computer system that runs BASIC, you may find that Fred Ruckdeschel's **BASIC Text Editor** is a very handy tool. *page 156*

Bubble memories are a fairly new form of mass storage medium that is available to the general public. For a quick overview of Texas Instruments' bubble memory product, see A I Halsema's article **Bubble Memories**. *page 166*

What is a stack? What does LIFO mean? Stacks can be important tools for the computer programmer. Knowing what they are and how to use them will aid you in improving your programming skills. Find out how stacks stack up in T Radhakrishnan and M V Bhat's article, **Stacks in Microprocessors**. *page 168*

An input command language is often regarded as the least important part of a system. Therefore, some excellent systems are ignored due to the inconvenience encountered when trying to use them. Finite state machine theory is one solution to this problem. For an excellent introduction to the world of finite state machines read G A Van den Bout's article on **Designing a Command Language**. *page 176*

Have you ever considered using your computer system in a timesharing mode? To discover what is involved in setting up such a system, read **Timesharing: Squeezing the Most from Your Micro** by Sheldon Linker. *page 228*

Calculating randomness is a very deterministic proposition, especially when pseudorandom number sequences are used. C Brian Honess in his article on **Three Types of Pseudorandom Sequences** gives some necessary background information on random number calculations and statistical tests of randomness. *page 234*

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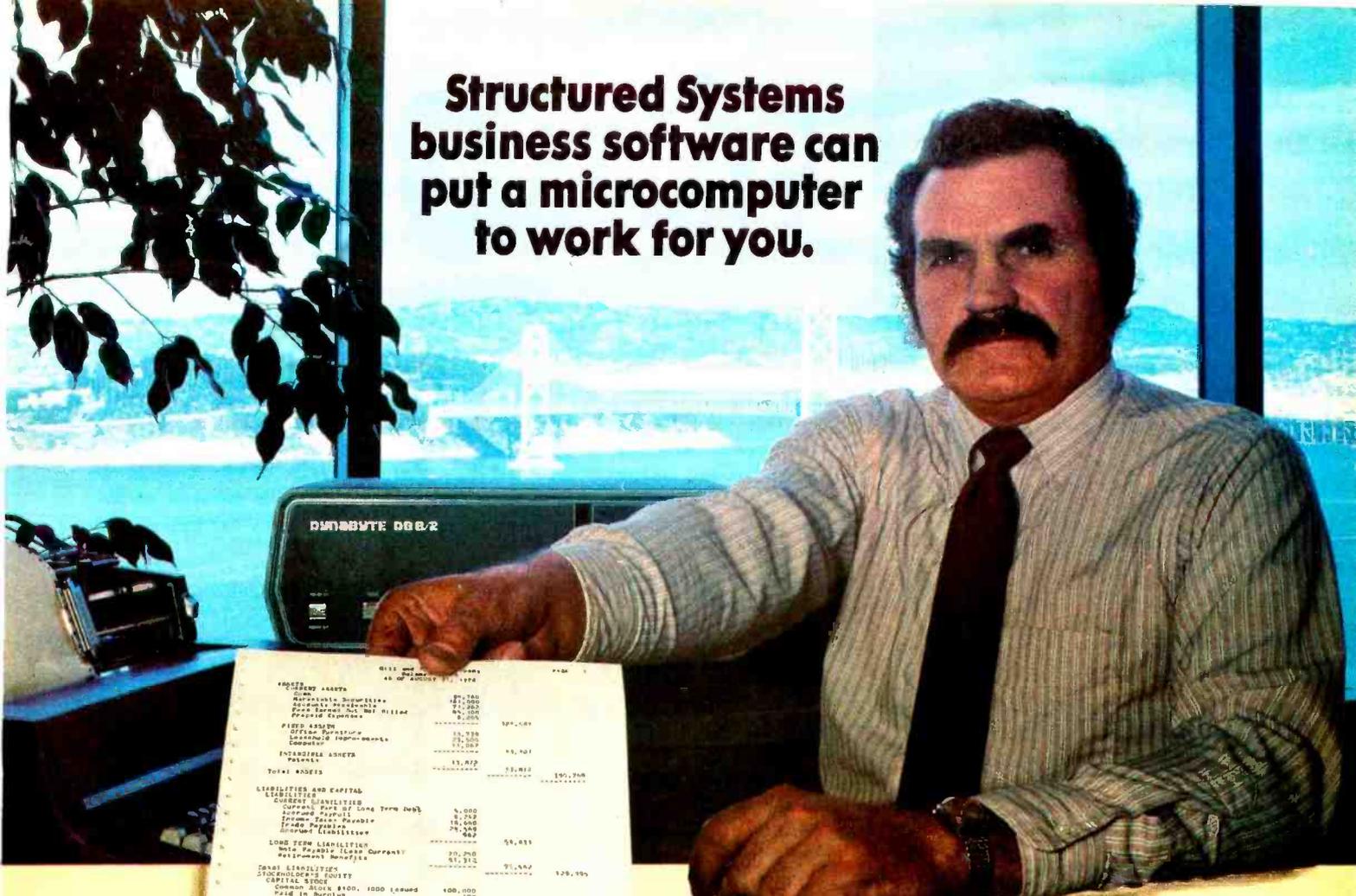
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Current LIABILITIES		
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Notes Payable	10,000	
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Unpaid Liabilities	5,000	
LONG TERM LIABILITIES		50,000
Notes Payable - Long Term	20,000	
Retirement Benefits	30,000	
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Preferred Stock \$25, 800 Shares	20,000	
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Some Pleasant Surprises

Your computer retailer can give you a demonstration and literature. You might find a solution just right for your business with "off the shelf" prices and delivery times. Or we will be happy to send you literature direct, including a list of our dealers and compatible hardware. Write us, or call.

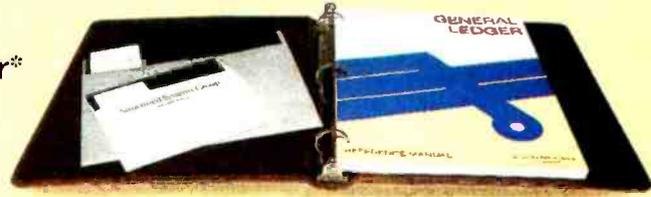
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* Complete prices will vary with equipment and software selected. Required: 8080 or Z-80 based computer running a CP/M or CP/M-compatible disk-based operating system. Your retailer or SSG can advise on specifics. (CP/M is a product of Digital Research.)

Look for Shugart drives in personal computer systems made by these companies.

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Apple Computer
10260 Bandley Dr.
Cupertino, CA 95014

Digital Microsystems Inc.
(Formerly Digital Systems)
4448 Piedmont Ave.
Oakland, CA 94611

Imsai Mfg. Corporation
14860 Wicks Blvd.
San Leandro, CA 94577

Industrial Micro Systems
633 West Katella, Suite L
Orange, CA 92667

North Star Computer
2547 9th Street
Berkeley, CA 94710

Percom Data
318 Barnes
Garland, TX 75042

Polymorphic Systems
460 Ward Dr.
Santa Barbara, CA 93111

Problem Solver Systems
20834 Lassen Street
Chatsworth, CA 91311

Processor Applications Limited
2801 E. Valley View Avenue
West Covina, CA 91792

SD Sales
3401 W. Kingsley
Garland, TX 75040

Smoke Signal Broadcasting
6304 Yucca
Hollywood, CA 90028

Technico Inc.
9130 Red Branch Road
Columbia, MD 21045

Texas Electronic Instruments
5636 Etheridge
Houston, TX 77087

Thinker Toys
1201 10th Street
Berkeley, CA 94710

Vista Computer Company
2807 Oregon Court
Torrance, CA 90503

 **Shugart**

Editorial

by Carl Helmers

On Beginning a New Project...

This week, I began a new project. It is one which could be begun by many of our readers, that of building a new computer system. In photo 1 we see what my last project turned into after four years of effort at various levels: a 6800 processor with some 28 K of programmable memory, sockets for 8 K of 2708 read only memory, a Sykes 9000 series floppy disk subsystem, a tape subsystem, and communications via parallel ports to two other computers: an Altair and my ALF Products AD-8 music synthesizer. As can be seen by the photo, this system is a packaging nightmare.

I now use a cleaner machine, manufactured by Northwest Microcomputer Systems, as my primary computer. The old homebrew sits downstairs, unused for the most part. The Pascal oriented machine that is upstairs gives me a software development facility which can support my hardware projects, something I did not previously have to such a degree. However, the Pascal machine does not yet talk to the music synthesizer and the music keyboard, so I still have that problem.

To solve that problem, I have set out on a new project: building a general purpose computer for use as a local controller of the music peripherals. The communication with the main software source, the Pascal machine, will be via a high speed serial communications line when the music machine is not used alone, as in a live performance situation. The processor in this new local controller will be a Motorola 6809. It is perhaps the ultimate 8 bit processor of current technology.

In order to accomplish the musical goal of either self-contained or remote commanding of the synthesizer, such a controller must contain certain minimum functions. It must have a local communications oriented monitor, as well as a monitor oriented toward self contained operation. The communications monitor contains simple binary (not decoded ASCII) command functions for loading memory, examining memory, dumping memory, and jumping to arbitrary locations. This sort of monitor might take 100 or 200 bytes of code in the 6809's instruction set. The self-contained operations monitor

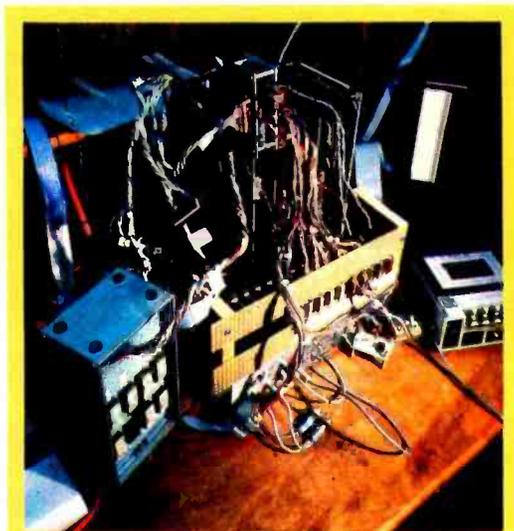
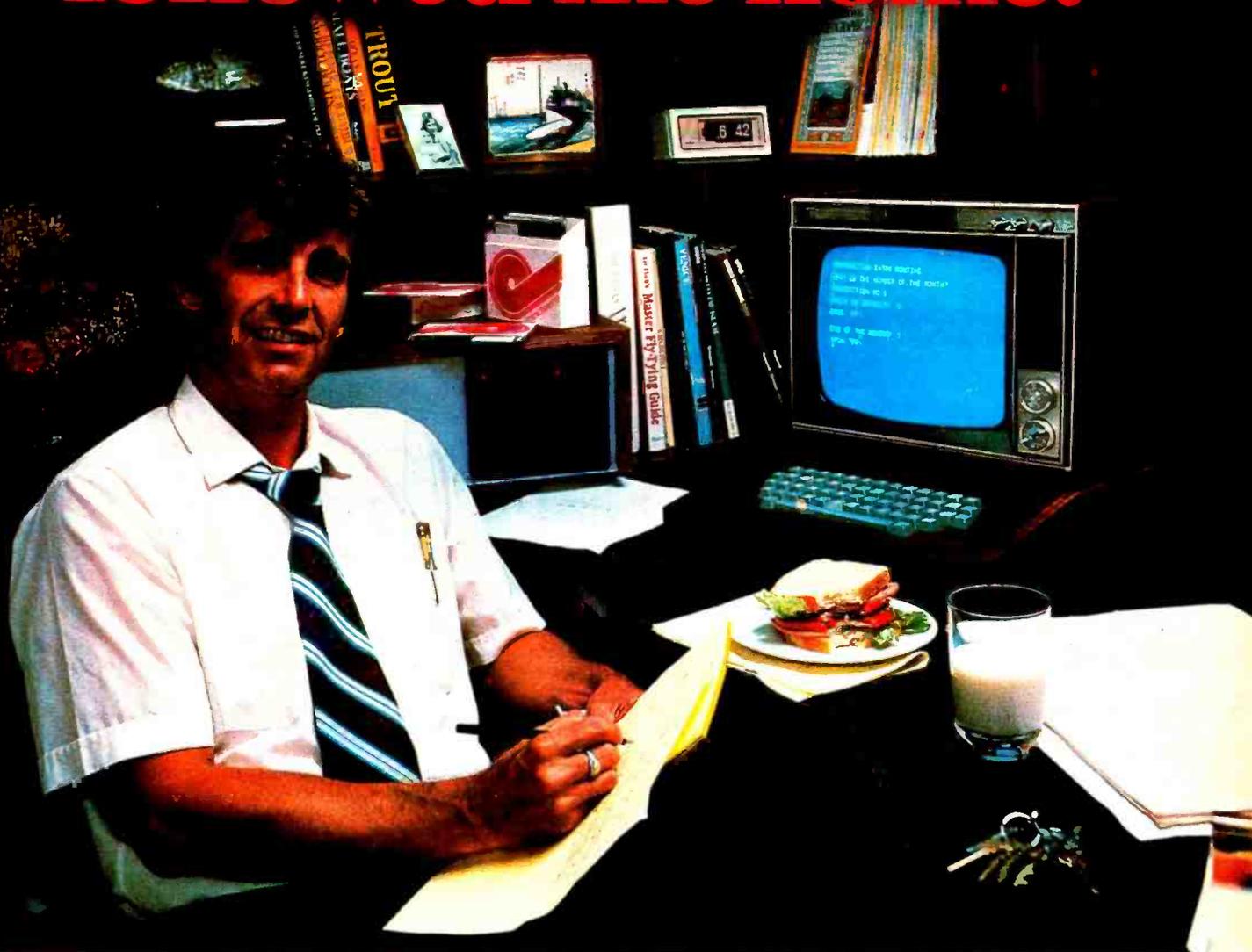


Photo 1: This homebrew personal computer system is an example of the kind of packaging nightmare which can result from experimentation with hardware. It works quite nicely, but is not exactly portable. This system proves that in hardware, as in software, it is possible to get a system where the patches and ad hoc kluges tend to outnumber the original features of the design.

Text continued on page 124

"My Shugart followed me home."



"After working all day with the computer at work, it's a kick to get down to Basic at home. And one thing that makes it more fun is my Shugart minifloppy™. We use Shugart drives at work, so when I bought my own system I made sure it had a minifloppy drive.

"Why? Shugart invented the minifloppy. The guys who designed our system at work tell me that Shugart is the leader in floppy design and has more drives in use than any other manufacturer. If Shugart drives are reliable enough for hard-working business computers, they've got to be a good value for my home system.

"When I'm working on my programs late at night, I can't wait for cassette storage. My minifloppy gives me fast random access and data

transfer. The little minidiskettes™ store plenty of data and file easily too.

"I made the right decision when I bought a system with the minifloppy. When you lay out your own hard-earned cash, you want reliability and performance. Do what I did. Get a system with the minifloppy."

If it isn't Shugart, it isn't minifloppy.

 **Shugart**

435 Oakmead Parkway, Sunnyvale, California 94086

See opposite page for list of manufacturers featuring Shugart's minifloppy in their systems.

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Letters

DIGITIZING DATA BASES

Recently I saw an advertisement for the new Bit Pad One and thought of the numerous uses it presented. One that is especially interesting is building a data base.

The computer could be programmed to print a sentence or word in any form of lettering or type font, from script to Old English by letting a string equal any modified letter of the programmer's choice. With 26 strings, you would have a complete alphabet in any form you like. The computer could identify the input letter, word, or phrase, match it with the correct string variable, and print that variable (letter). The outcome would range from a letter to a full paragraph typed and printed in any font imaginable.

The only way to store such data as these modified letters without investing hours of time in plotting coordinates and typing them in, would be to illustrate the letters on the new Bit Pad One.

I hope all computer enthusiasts can derive as much enjoyment from this amazing device as I anticipate.

Jeff Korn
71 Hillary Ln
Penfield NY 14526

Any way you look at your proposed project, it is a major undertaking. The concept of building data bases from a digitizer is not new, but the programming exercise it involves is sure to be rewarding. RGAC

DIGITAL RADIO OPERATORS

In response to Don Stoner's letter, "Calling all Computers" (December 1978 BYTE, page 159), I thought you might be interested in some details of the new "packet radio license" available in Canada.

The Amateur Digital Radio Operator's Certificate is an Amateur Radio certificate, the holder of which is qualified to operate in some amateur radio bands. Mr. Stoner refers to this as the "Packet Radio Service" and implies that it is separate from the Amateur Radio Service. This is not true. Neither is it true that some of the band will probably go to the GRS (CB) service. As a matter of fact, the DOC seems proud of the fact that Canadian amateurs are the first in the world to implement the technique of packet radio on the amateur bands. They have made liberal bandwidth allowances in several portions of the 220 MHz band specifically for this technique, and it seems unlikely that

they would start chopping off portions of this "show case" band to hand over to the GRS service.

The Amateur Digital Certificate allows operation on all amateur frequency bands above 144 MHz. This includes 144 to 148 MHz (2 meters), 220 to 225 MHz, 420 to 450 MHz, 1215 to 1300 MHz and five more bands from 2.3 to 24 GHz. It allows all current modes such as Morse code, single side band voice, FM voice, FSK or AFSK teletypewriter or data, and television, as well as several modes of pulse transmission. This is aimed primarily at the computer and electronics hobbyists who would like to participate in computer networking. The requirements (ie: examination) reflect this.

There is *no* Morse code exam at all. The written exam has three parts:

- multiple choice questions on Canadian amateur radio regulations,
- questions on radio communications theory and operation (on the Advanced Amateur level),
- the digital exam with questions on computing, analog and digital transmission, packet radio, queuing theory, digital coding, error control and other topics.

The pass requirements are 70 percent per section and the exam is not simple (I've written it), so it seems that they are looking for serious hobbyists to pass this exam.

Those who already hold an amateur or advanced amateur certificate in Canada are allowed to do anything that this new certificate allows (including packet radio) except for the pulse modes of transmission. (FSK is the current favorite for low speed networks and point to point contacts, with some type of PCM for the higher speed networks.) This new license is ideal for those computerists who want to get on the air with their terminal or computer but could never stand Morse code.

Personally, I can't wait to finish building my transmitter and get my Z-80 system on the air, and I would like to hear from other Canadian readers who are doing the same. I certainly don't talk to many hams on the HF bands who are interested in computing.

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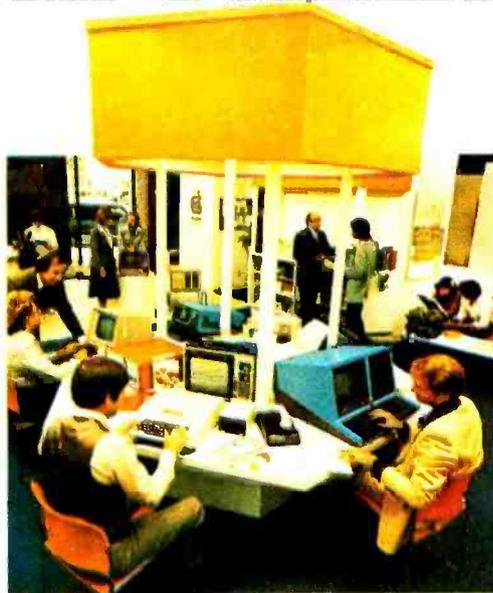
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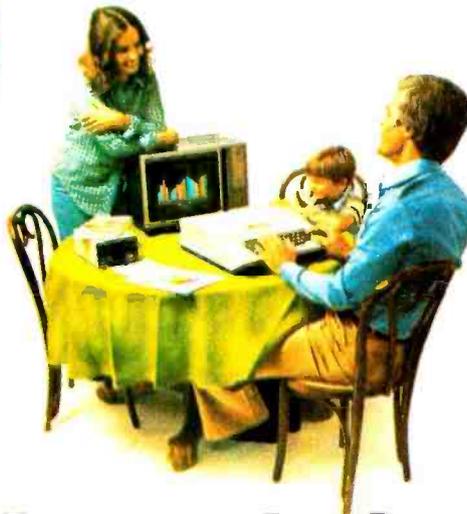
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A Model of the Brain for Robot Control

James Albus
Project Manager

National Bureau of Standards
United States Dept of Commerce
Washington DC 20234

Part 1: Defining Notation

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 order to build a computer model of the brain for robot control we must start with a clear understanding of what the brain is for (ie: its primary function). If one examines what most brains do all of the time, and what our own brains do most of the time, it is clear that the brain is *not* used primarily for thinking.

The brain is first and foremost a control system. All brains, even that of the tiniest insect, control behavior. Some brains can produce very complex behavior, but only the most sophisticated and highly developed brains exhibit the phenomenon of thought. Clearly then, thought is not the central purpose of the brain, but is, rather, an artifact that arises out of the complex computing mechanisms required to generate and control extremely sophisticated behavior.

This implies that would-be brain modelers should first attempt to understand, and if possible, reproduce the control functions and behavior patterns that exist in insects, birds, mammals, and, in particular, primates. Only after these control systems are successfully modeled can we expect to understand the mechanisms that give rise to intelligence and abstract thought in the human brain.

If the brain is primarily a control system, then any brain model we construct should control something. One of the most obvious candidates is a robot manipulator, since it rather closely resembles a limb, the most common type of device controlled by the brain. We shall therefore first develop a computer model of a basic neurological structure which can compute control functions for a robot manipulator.

We shall then attempt to demonstrate how this basic model can be generalized to compute a broad class of analytic, transcendental, or logical functions and production

rules of many multivalued variables. We will show how this same model can learn, remember, and recognize patterns and how it can be interconnected into a hierarchical network for generating sensory interactive, goal directed behavior.

We will suggest how such a hierarchy might remember experiences, solve problems, plan tasks, select goals, answer questions, structure knowledge of the world and events, and understand and generate music or natural language. Finally, we will also suggest some possible experiments and lines of research that might be pursued by one or more ambitious personal computer enthusiasts with limited resources.

The Nature of Computation in the Brain

The brain is, of course, not a single computer, but rather a network of billions of individual computing devices interconnected so as to produce coordinated and unified action. There are millions of photo-detectors in each eye and thousands of audio detectors in each ear. The body is embedded with sensors which detect touch, pressure, heat, cold, and pain; chemical analyzers that detect the smell and taste of things; and sensors that measure the position of joints, the tension in tendons, and the length and velocity of contraction of muscles. Inertial sensors measure roll, pitch, and yaw accelerations, and the position of the head with respect to gravitational attraction; and hormone detectors, thermosensors, and blood chemistry analyzers report on the internal biological condition of the organism.

All of this information is analyzed and processed in innumerable computing centers which detect patterns, compare incoming data with stored expectations, and evaluate

Editor's Note:

This month Dr James Albus begins an ambitious 3 part series about the brain. His theories, which evolved out of control systems theory, form an interesting contrast to Ernest W Kent's series, "The Brains of Men and Machines" in BYTE for January, February, March, and April 1978. We hope that nonmathematically oriented readers will persevere through the more technical sections in order to benefit from Dr Albus's insights. . . .
CM

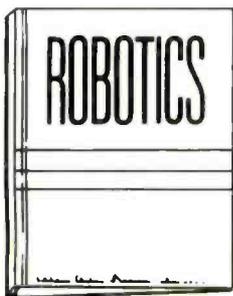
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the results. In many different ways and at many different levels this sensory data stream interacts with the behavior generating system to select goals, modify habits, and direct the actions of millions of muscles and glands to produce what is observed as behavior.

Perhaps the most obvious feature of the brain is that many computations are going on in many different places simultaneously. The brain does not execute sequential programs of instructions under control of a program counter. There is no fetch/execute cycle. The mathematics of finite state automata and Turing machines are not well-suited for describing the basic operations of the brain. In fact, the fundamental computations performed in the brain are not even digital — they are analog. Each neuron in the brain is essentially an analog computer performing complex additions, integrations, differentiations, and all sorts of nonlinear operations on input variables that can number from one to several hundred thousand.

The brain is a digital device only in that information is encoded for transmission from one neuron to another over long transmission lines (called *axons*) by pulse-frequency or pulse-phase modulation. When these pulse encoded signals reach their destinations, they are reconverted into

analog voltages for the computations which take place in the dendrites and cell bodies of the receiving neurons (see "Designing a Robot from Nature" February 1979 BYTE, page 28).

The brain achieves its incredible precision and reliability through redundancy and statistical techniques. Many axons carry information concerning the value of the same variable, each encoded slightly differently. The statistical summation of these many imprecise and noisy information channels results in the reliable transmission of precise messages over long distances. In a similar way, a multiplicity of neurons may compute on roughly the same input variables. Clusters of such computing devices provide statistical precision and reliability orders of magnitude greater than that achievable by any single neuron. The outputs of such clusters of neurons are transmitted and become inputs to other clusters, which perform additional analog computations. These are the variables we have to deal with and the computations we have to simulate if we are to model the brain in any meaningful way.

To those familiar only with fetch/execute machines, this may seem an extremely difficult structure to model. I hope, in the course of these articles, that some of the difficulties

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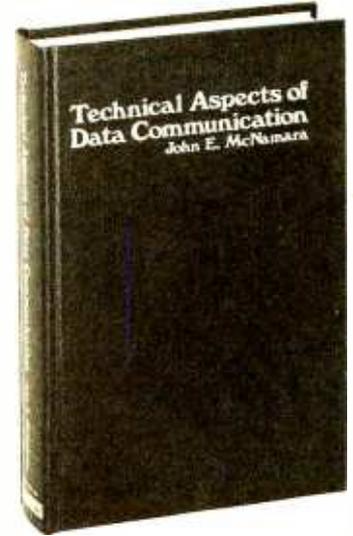


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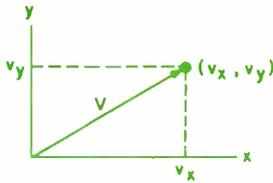
(a)

A VECTOR WITH
 $V = v$



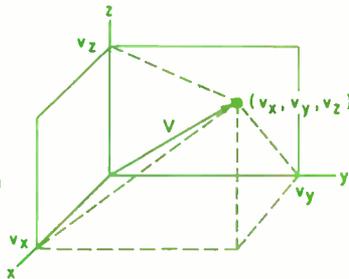
(b)

$V = (v_x, v_y)$



(c)

$V = (v_x, v_y, v_z)$



(d)

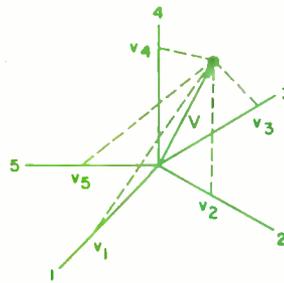


Figure 1: Defining space with vectors. A vector is an ordered list of variables which defines a point in space; (a), (b), (c), and (d) depict vectors representing 1, 2, 3, and 4 dimensions, respectively. The number of dimensions in the space is equal to the number of variables in the list. (The illustration in (d) is meant only to be symbolic of a four-dimensional vector, which cannot be visualized in three dimensions.)

will be cleared away and the prospects for building such structures will seem less dubious.

The Need for Notation

In order to discuss an engineering design for a robot control system modeled after the brain, we must first devise a mathematical convention and notation to bridge the gap between the structure of the brain and the structure of currently available computers. This is essential if we are to describe behavior precisely and to translate that description into a design for circuits and program statements to generate behavior in a computationally concise manner.

Vectors

One way to describe many variables and deal with many simultaneous multivariate computations is to use *vector* notation. A vector is simply an ordered set, or list of variables. A vector can specify magnitude and direction. The vector V in figure 1b has two components v_x along the X axis and v_y along the Y axis. The ordered set, or list of components define the vector so that we can write $V = (v_x, v_y)$.

The components of a vector can also be considered as the coordinates of a point (v_x, v_y) which corresponds to the tip of the vector. The locus of all pairs of components which can exist defines a vector space (for two dimensions the vector space is a surface). A vector can have more than two

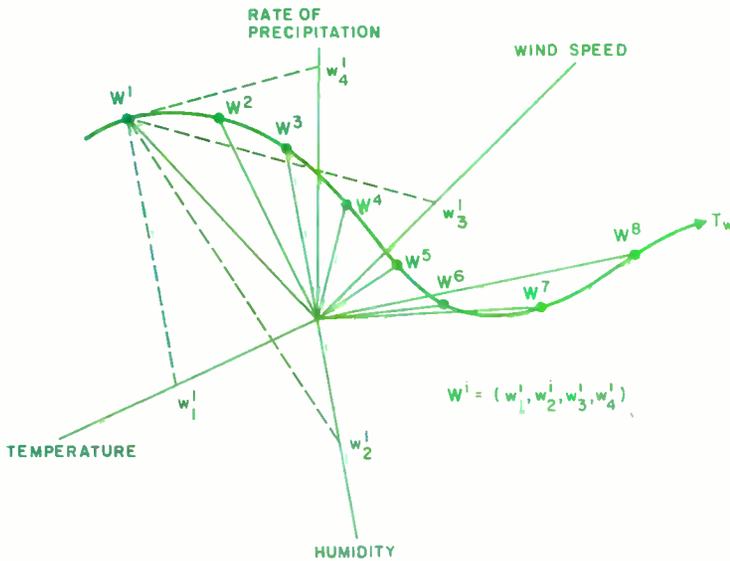


Figure 2: If, as time progresses, one or more of the components of a vector W change, the vector will move through space, tracing out a trajectory T_w .

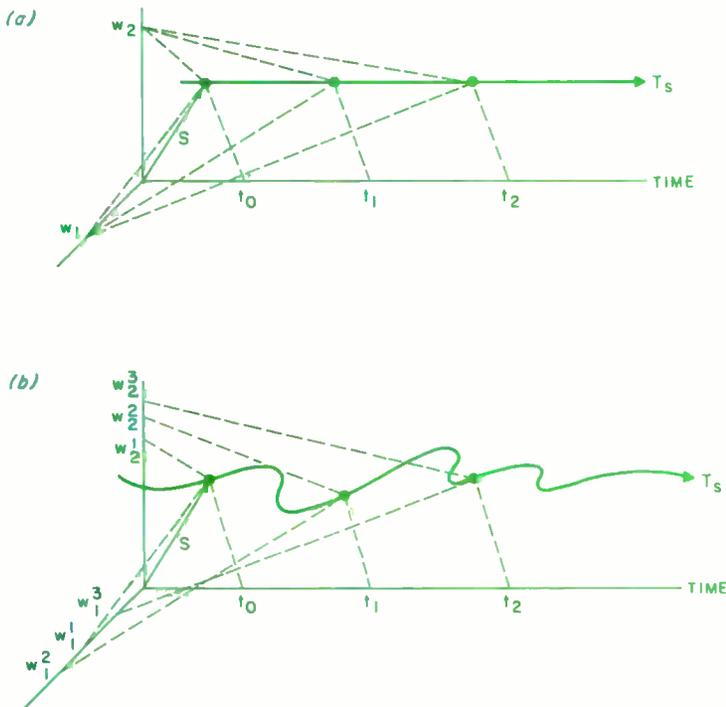


Figure 3: If the ordered list of variables which define a vector includes time, the space defined by the vector will have time as one of its axes. As time progresses the vector will move along the time axis. If none of the other variables is time dependent, the trajectory will be a straight line parallel to the time axis, as in (a). If any of the other variables change with time, the trajectory will be some curve with a component along the time axis as in (b).

components. A vector with three components defines a volume (figure 1c), and a vector with four or more components defines a hyperspace (figure 1d). A hyperspace is impossible to visualize, but is a very useful concept for our discussion.

A vector in a higher dimensional space can usually be visualized as a projection onto a lower dimensional space. For example, typical mechanical drawings portray front, side, and top views of a three-dimensional form projected onto a two-dimensional sheet of paper. Each projection can either illustrate a cut through the object at a particular plane along the projection axis, or a superposition of all the salient features of the object collapsed into the plane of the illustration. In the collapsed version, the fact that two points or lines intersect in the projected image does not necessarily mean that they coincide or intersect in the higher dimensional space — they may simply lie behind each other along the projection axis. The projection operator ignores variable differences which correspond to distance along the projection axis.

It is not necessary to make the projection axis coincident with any of the coordinate axes. For example, in the oblique projection (perspective drawing) of figure 1c, the projection axis (the normal line to the paper through the origin of the coordinate system) is not aligned with any of the coordinate axes. The lines in the drawing represent the projections of lines in a three-dimensional space onto the two-dimensional surface of the paper. In a similar way we can project higher dimensional vectors and hyperspaces of any dimension onto a two-dimensional drawing. Figure 1d illustrates a four-dimensional vector projected onto a two-dimensional drawing.

States and Trajectories

A vector can specify a state. This is the primary use we shall make of vectors in this discussion. A state is defined by an ordered set of variables. For example, the state of the weather might be characterized by a state vector $W = (w_1, w_2, w_3, w_4)$ where:

- w_1 = temperature,
- w_2 = humidity,
- w_3 = wind speed,
- w_4 = rate of precipitation.

Now the weather, like many things, is not constant. It varies with time. Each of the state variables (temperature, humidity, wind speed, and rate of precipitation) is time dependent. Thus, as time passes, the point defined by W^i will move through the four-

dimensional space. Figure 2 illustrates the locus of the point traced out by W as it moves to define a trajectory T_w .

It will often be convenient to represent time explicitly in our notation. We can easily do this by simply adding one more variable, time (t), to our state vector, thus increasing by one the number of dimensions in the space defined by the state vector. For example $W = (w_1, w_2, w_3, w_4, t)$.

As time progresses, any point defined by the state vector moves along the time axis. A state vector whose w_i components do not vary with time will now trace out a straight line trajectory, parallel to the time axis as shown in figure 3a. If, however, any of the w_i components is time dependent, the state trajectory will contain velocity components that are orthogonal, as well as parallel to the time axis, as shown in figure 3b.

If we project the state space of all the variables except time onto a two-dimensional surface, we can represent the passage of time by the motion of this two-dimensional plane along the time axis normal to it, as in figure 4. The state trajectory T_s is the locus of points traced out by the state vector as time passes.

A large variety of things can be represented as vectors. For example, we can represent an ASCII character as a vector (figure 5). The ordered set of binary digits in the ASCII representation corresponds to the components of a binary vector. Each symbol in the ASCII alphabet is uniquely paired with a vector in an eight-dimensional hyperspace. Each symbol thus corresponds to a point in the hyperspace.

This is an important concept, because it allows us to define any set of symbols as vectors or points in hyperspace. Any string of symbols then becomes a trajectory through the hyperspace. For example, the string of symbols, "the cat chased the rat," can be described as a trajectory through a hyperspace defined by any set of variables defining the English alphabet (plus a blank character). This also applies to the string WXYZ when:

W is the command: Reach to Position A;
 X is the command: Grasp;
 Y is the command: Move to Position C;
 Z is the command: Release.

We need not restrict ourselves to binary vectors. Symbols may be represented by vectors with continuously variable components as well. This allows us to introduce the concept of *fuzzy* symbols. If the hyperspace is continuous, then each point which corresponds to a symbol has some neighbor-

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.

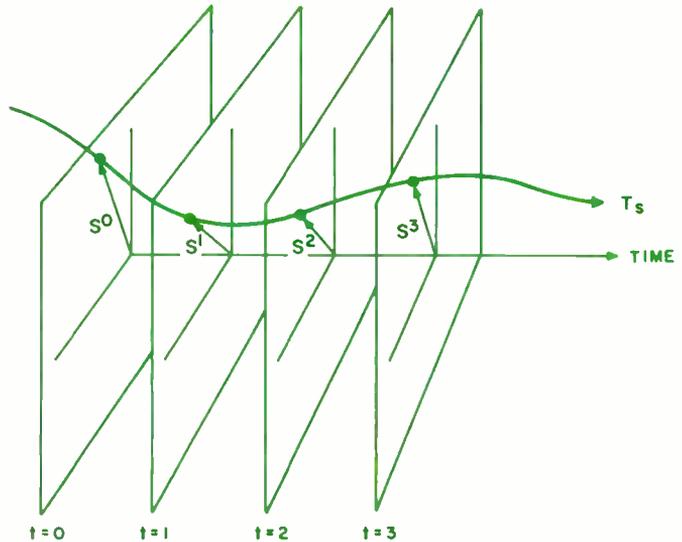


Figure 4: If the vector space defined by all of the vector components except time is projected upon a two-dimensional surface, then the passage of time can be represented as the movement of the two-dimensional surface along the time axis normal to it.

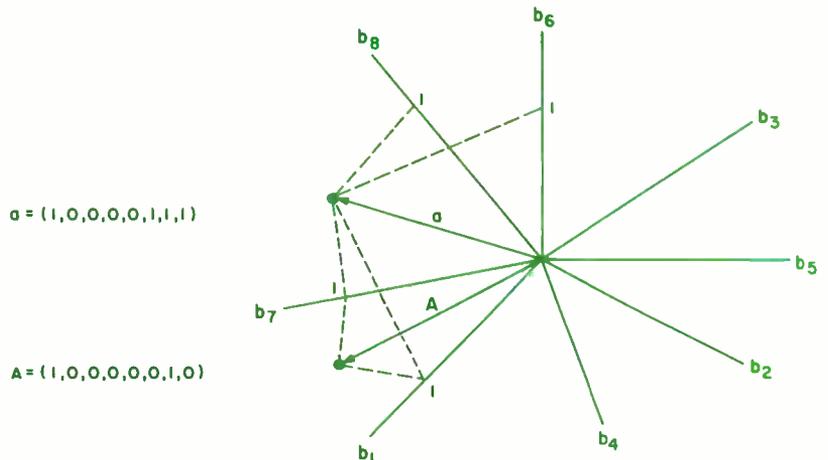
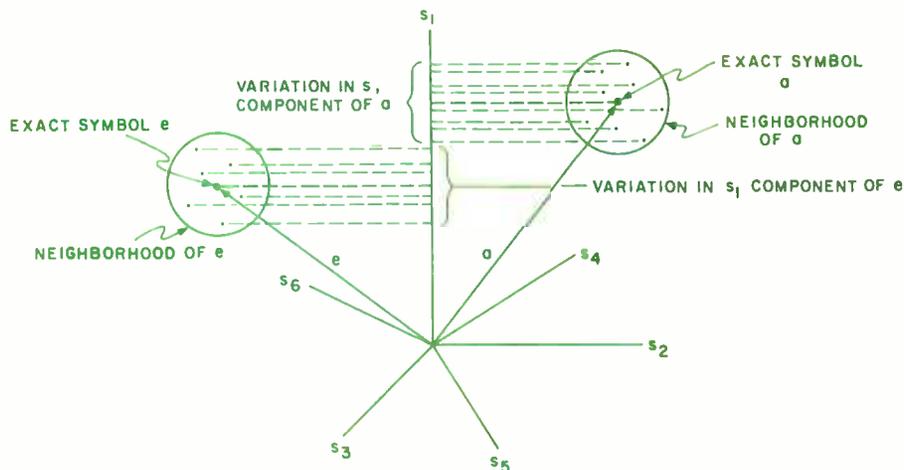


Figure 5: A vector can represent a symbol. Here two symbols from the ASCII character set, an uppercase A and a lowercase a, are represented as vectors (or points) in an eight dimensional space. The values of the eight bits in the ASCII code are plotted along the eight axes. (b_8 is the even parity bit.)

Figure 6: Each point in hyperspace, corresponding to a particular symbol such as *a* or *e*, has some neighborhood of points around it which are closer to it than to any other symbol. Variations from the exact, or ideal position of a symbol vector may derive from noise in a transmission channel or from differences between the observed symbol and the ideal.



hood of points around it which are much closer to it than any other symbol's points. This is illustrated in figure 6. We may view the points in such a neighborhood in one of two ways:

1. The difference between the neighborhood points and the exact symbol point derives from noise on the channel transmitting variables denoting the vector components. This is useful in signal detection theory, where the detection of a vector within some neighborhood of a symbol vector corresponds to the recognition of that symbol against a noisy background.
2. The difference from the exact symbol derives from distortions or variations in the symbol itself. This makes the best sense if the components of the symbol's vector are *values* of attributes or features of the symbol, rather than arbitrary digits as in the ASCII convention. In this case, a neighborhood of points corresponds to a cluster of feature vectors from a symbol set which are not identical, but very nearly so.

For example, a vector of features from the printed character *e* will be slightly different for each instance of that symbol on a page

due to variations in the paper on which it is printed. However, if these *e* feature vectors fall in compact clusters far from the feature vectors of other symbols, the letter *e* will be easily recognized, despite the fact that no two specimens are exactly alike.

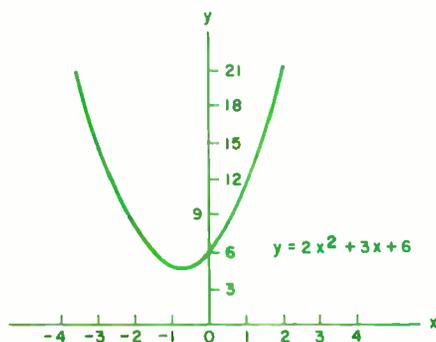
This is a fundamental concept in pattern recognition theory. Hyperspace is partitioned into regions, and the existence of a feature vector in a particular region corresponds to the recognition of a pattern or symbol. By definition, the best set of features is the one that maximizes the separability of pattern vectors. In the design of pattern recognizers it is important to select a set of features which is easily measured and which produces widely separated and compact clusters in feature space.

Functions and Operators

In the physical world, functions are usually defined as relationships between physical variables. For example, we could say that climate over a particular geographical region is a function of the heat input, the prevailing wind conditions, and other factors, or that the seasons are a function of the position and orientation of the earth relative to the sun. Similarly, we may say that the level of hunger we experience is a function of the signals on nerve fibers reporting on the state of the stomach, chemistry of the blood, the time of day as indicated by internal biological rhythms, and so on.

In mathematics a function defines (and is defined by) a relationship between symbols that can sometimes be set in one-to-one correspondence to physical variables. As in the physical world, a function usually implies a directional relationship (eg: the relationship between cause and effect has a direction which flows from cause to effect). In traditional terms a function may be expressed as an equation, such as:

Figure 7: Functions can be expressed in a number of different ways. Here the functional relationship between *Y* and *X* is expressed as an equation and a graph.



$$y = f(x)$$

which reads: y equals a function f of x .
The function:

$$y = 2x^2 + 3x + 6$$

is a relationship between y and x .

Functions can also be expressed as graphs. Figure 7 is a plot of the equation $y = 2x^2 + 3x + 6$. Functions may sometimes be defined by tables. The table in figure 8a defines the Boolean AND function $Z = X \cdot Y$. This function can also be drawn as a circuit element (see figure 8b) which performs the AND function on two inputs.

Tables can also be used to define non-Boolean functions. Tables of logarithms or trigonometric functions are good examples of this. Of course, a table defines a continuous function exactly *only* at the discrete points represented in the table. Thus, the accuracy of a continuous function represented by a table depends on the number of table entries (ie: the resolution on the input variables). Accuracy can, of course, be increased by interpolation techniques. In general, the number of entries required to compute a function by a table lookup is proportional to R^N , where R is the resolution of each input variable, and N is the number of input variables. This exponential increase in size of the table required is the principal reason that multidimensional functions are seldom computed by table lookup.

Modern mathematics often expresses functional relationships in terms of *mappings* from a set of states defined by independent variables onto a set of states defined by dependent variables. In one notation, this is expressed by the string f :

$$f: C \rightarrow E$$

which reads, "f is a relationship which maps the set of causes C into the set of effects E ." It means that for any particular state in the set C , the relationship f will compute a state in the set E . This is shown in figure 9.

We have already shown that states can be denoted by vectors and sets of states by sets of points in vector hyperspaces. Thus, the notion of a function being a mapping from one set of states to another naturally extends to a mapping of points in one vector hyperspace onto points in another.

Suppose, for example, we define an operator h as a function which maps the input $S = (s_1, s_2, s_3, \dots, s_N)$ onto the output scalar variable p . We can write this as:

$$p = h(S)$$

or

$$p = h(s_1, s_2, \dots, s_N)$$

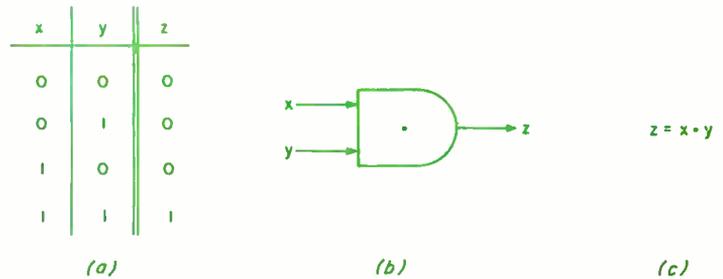


Figure 8: Functions can also be expressed as tables and circuits. Here the Boolean function $Z = X \cdot Y$ is expressed as a table, a circuit, and an equation.

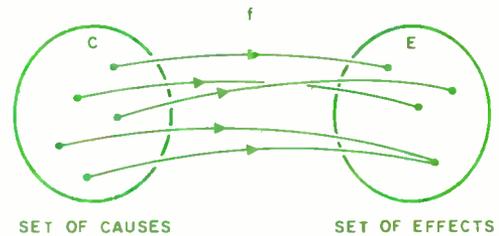


Figure 9: A function can also be expressed as a mapping from one set onto another. Here the function F maps the set of causes C onto the set of effects E such that for every cause in C there is an effect in E . In our discussion we will be concerned only with single valued functions such that there is only one effect for each cause. We will, however, allow more than one cause to have the same effect (ie: more than one point in C can map onto the same point in E).

Figure 10: We will define the operator h as a function which maps the input vector S into the output scalar variable p .

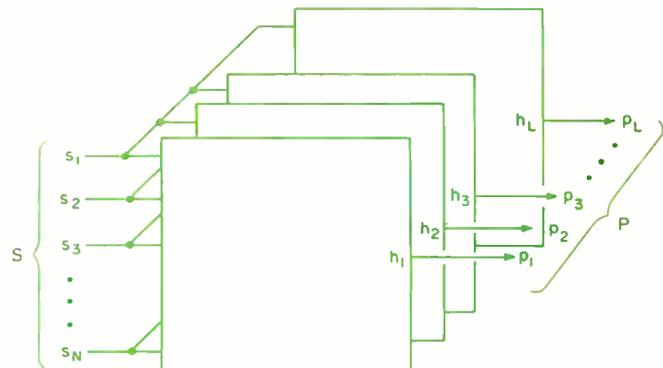
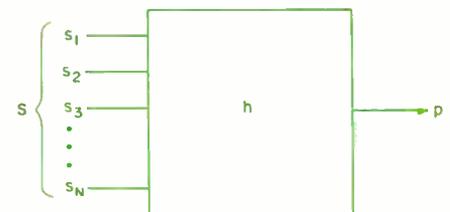


Figure 11: We will define the set of operators $H = (h_1, h_2, \dots, h_L)$ as a function which maps the input vector S into the output vector P .

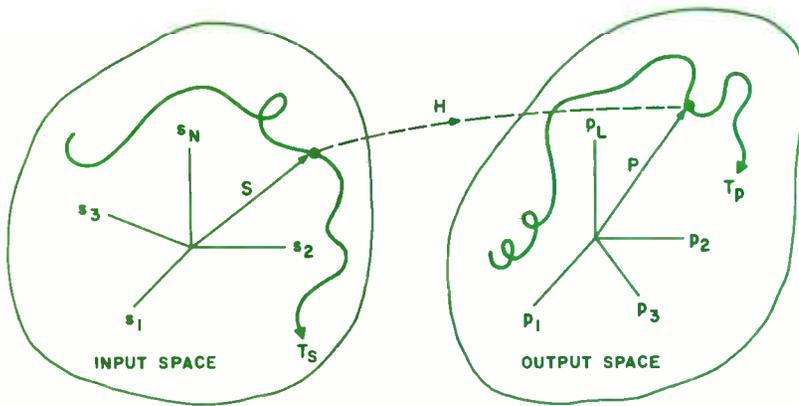


Figure 12: The operator H maps every input vector S in input space into an output vector P in output space. H thus maps the trajectory T_S into the trajectory T_P .

We can also draw the functional operator as a circuit element or "black box" as in figure 10. (A black box is an engineering concept sometimes used to depict a process with inputs and outputs. The viewer sees the effects on the output of changes to the input, but the internal workings of the process remain hidden in a black box.)

If we assume that we have L such operators, h_1, h_2, \dots, h_L , each operating on the input vector S in figure 11, we have a mapping:

$$H: S \rightarrow P \text{ or } P = H(S)$$

where the operator $H = (h_1, h_2, \dots, h_L)$ maps every input vector S into an output vector P . Now since S is a vector (or point) in input space and P is a vector (or point) in output space, we can represent the function H as a mapping from input space onto output space, as shown in figure 12.

For the purposes of our discussion we require that both the input and output space be bounded and that each S will map into one and only one P . Several different S vectors may map into the same P vector,

however. Of course, if any of the variables in S are time dependent, S will trace out a trajectory T_S through input space. The operator H will map each point S on T_S into a point P on a trajectory T_P in output space.

Goal Seeking Control Systems

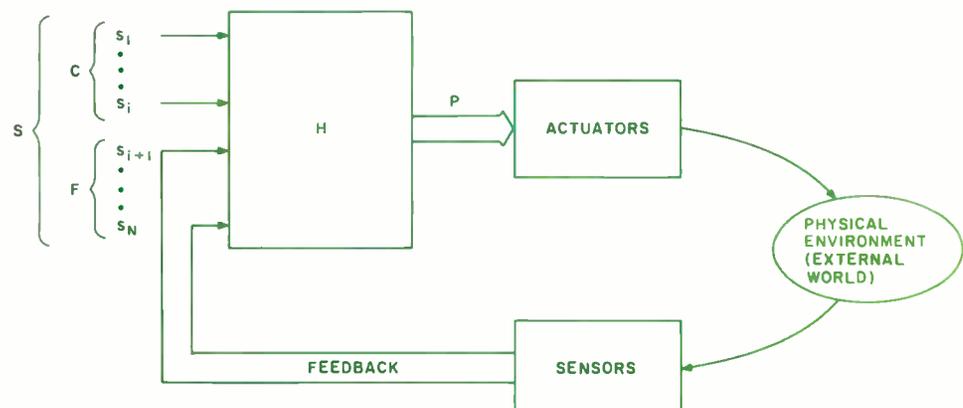
We are now ready to consider the structure of control systems for sensory interactive, goal directed behavior. The simplest form of goal seeking device is the *servomechanism*. The setpoint, or reference input to the servomechanism, is a simple form of command. Feedback from a sensing device, which monitors the state of the output or the results of action produced by the input, is compared with the command. If there is any discrepancy between commanded action and the results, an error signal is generated which acts on the output in the proper direction and by the proper amount to reduce the error. The system thus follows the setpoint, or, put another way, it seeks the goal set by the input command.

Now almost all servomechanism theory deals with a one-dimensional command, a one-dimensional feedback, and a one-dimensional output. Our vector notation will allow us to generalize from this one-dimensional case to the multidimensional case with little difficulty.

Assume we have the multivariable servomechanism shown in figure 13. The function H operates on the input variables in S and computes an output $P = H(S)$. Note that we have partitioned the input vector S into two vectors: $C = (s_1, s_2, \dots, s_i, 0, \dots, 0)$ and $F = (0, \dots, 0, s_{i+1}, \dots, s_N)$; such that $S = C + F$. If $i = 1, N = 2, L = 1$, and H computes some function of the difference between C and F , we have a classical servomechanism.

In our more general case C may be any vector, and in some cases it may be a sym-

Figure 13: A multivariable servomechanism. The reference, or command input is the vector C consisting of the variables s_1 thru s_i . The feedback is the vector F consisting of sensory variables s_{i+1} thru s_N . The function H computes an output vector P consisting of p_1 thru p_L which drive actuators and thus affect the physical environment.





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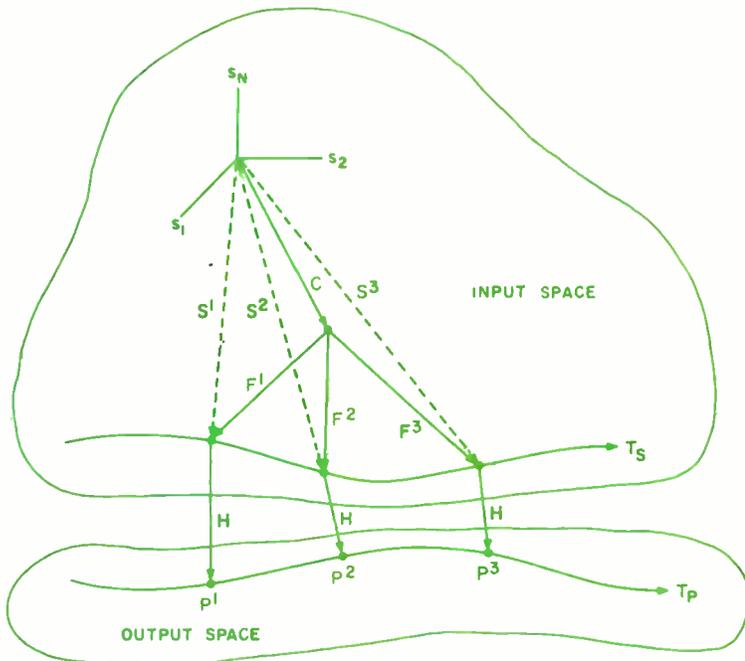


Figure 14: A stationary C vector establishes a setpoint, and as time progresses the feedback vector varies from F^1 to F^2 to F^3 . The S vector thus traces out a trajectory T_S . The H operator computes an output P for each input S and so produces an output trajectory T_P . The result is that the input command C is decomposed into a sequence of output subcommands P^1, P^2, P^3 .

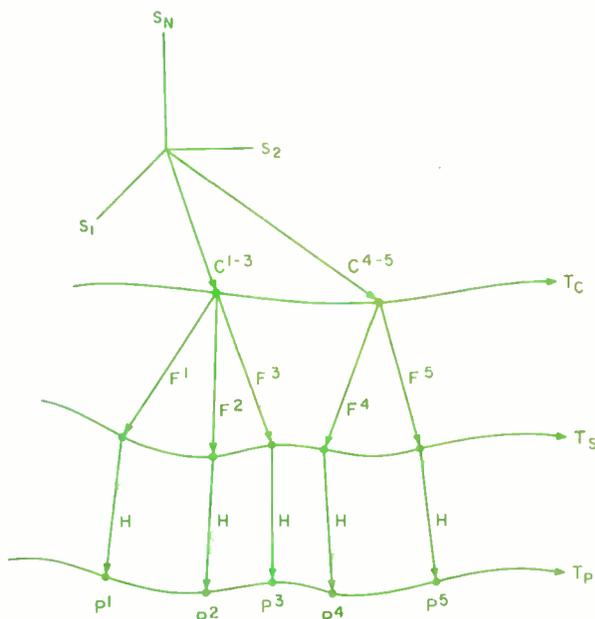


Figure 15: If the command vector C also changes from time to time, it will trace out a trajectory T_C .

bolic command. The feedback vector may contain information of many different types. It may simply report position or velocity of the controlled outputs, but for a complicated system such as a robot manipulator or the limb of an animal, it may also report the resistance to movement by the environment, the inertial configuration of the manipulator structure, and other parameters relevant to the problem of making rapid and precise movements.

Figure 14 illustrates the situation when a stationary command vector C establishes a setpoint, and as time progresses the feedback vector F varies, creating an input trajectory T_S . The H operator computes an output vector for each input and so produces an output trajectory T_P . The variation in F may be caused by external forces imposed by the environment, or by actions produced by the output, or both. One or more of the variables in the feedback vector F may even be taken directly from the output vector P . In the latter case the H operator becomes the transition function for a finite state automaton. In any of these cases the result is that a single command vector C produces a sequence of output vectors T_P . The process is driven by the sequence of feedback vectors F^1, F^2, F^3 . The superscript F^k denotes the vector F at time t_k .

The sequence of operations illustrated in figure 14 can also be viewed as a decomposition of a command C into a sequence of subcommands P^1, P^2, P^3 . The vector C may be a symbol standing for any number of things such as a task, a goal, or a plan. In such cases the output string P^1, P^2, P^3 represents a sequence of subtasks, subgoals, or subplans, respectively.

Whether figure 14 is a servomechanism or a task decomposition operator, there are many practical problems concerned with stability, speed, gain, delay, phase shift, etc. In our notation these are all embedded in the H functions. If the H functions are correctly formulated and defined over the entire space traversed by the S input, then the output T_P will drive the physical actuators in such a way that the goal is achieved (ie: the error between the command C and the result P is nulled) and stability is maintained under all conditions.

Servomechanisms are, of course, only the simplest form of sensory interactive, goal seeking devices. By themselves they are certainly not capable of explaining the much more complex forms of goal seeking commonly associated with purposive behavior in biological systems. However, when connected together in a nested (or hierarchical) structure, the complexity of behavior in feedback control systems increases dramatically.

Hierarchical Control

Assume that the command vector C in figure 14 changes such that it steps along the trajectory T_C as shown in figure 15. The result is that the sequence of input commands C^1, C^2, C^3 , followed by the sequence C^4, C^5 produces the sequence of output vectors P^1, P^2, P^3, P^4, P^5 . In this case the subsequence P^1, P^2, P^3 , is called by the commands C^1, C^2, C^3 and driven by the feedback F^1, F^2, F^3 . The subsequence P^4, P^5 is called by C^4, C^5 and driven by F^4, F^5 , etc.

If we now represent time explicitly, the $C, F,$ and P vectors and trajectories of figure 15 appear as shown in figure 16. The fact that C remains constant while the feedback changes from F^1 to F^2 to F^3 means that the trajectory T_C is parallel to the time axis over that interval. The jump from C^1, C^2, C^3 to C^4, C^5 causes an abrupt shift in the T_C trajectory in the time interval between F^3 and F^4 .

Note that each instant can be represented by a plane (or set of coplanar regions) perpendicular to the time axis. Each plane contains a point from each trajectory and represents a snapshot of all the vectors simultaneously at a specific instant in time.

We are now ready to consider a hierarchy of servomechanisms, or task decomposition operators, as shown in figure 17a. Here the highest level input command C_4 is a symbolic vector denoting the complex task (ASSEMBLE AB). Some of the components in C_4 may denote modifiers and arguments for the assemble task. The subscript C_k denotes the C vector at the k^{th} level in the hierarchy.

Note that in figure 17 vectors are not repeatedly drawn for each instant of time during the trajectory segments, when they are reasonably constant. Thus, C_4 is shown only at the beginning and end of the trajectory segment labeled (ASSEMBLE AB). C_2 is shown only at the transition points between (REACH to A), (GRASP), (MOVE TO C), etc. It should be kept in mind, however, that H_4 computes P_4 continuously and produces an output at every instant of time, just as H_1 computes P_1 .

The feedback F_4 may contain highly processed visual scene analysis data which identifies the general layout of the work space, and thereby determines which output vectors P_4 (and hence which simple task commands C_3) should be selected and in which order. F_4 may also contain data from P_4 and P_3 which indicates the state of completion of the decomposition of C_4 . F_4 combines with C_4 to define the complete input vector S_4 . The H_4 operator produces an output vector $P_4 = H_4(S_4)$.

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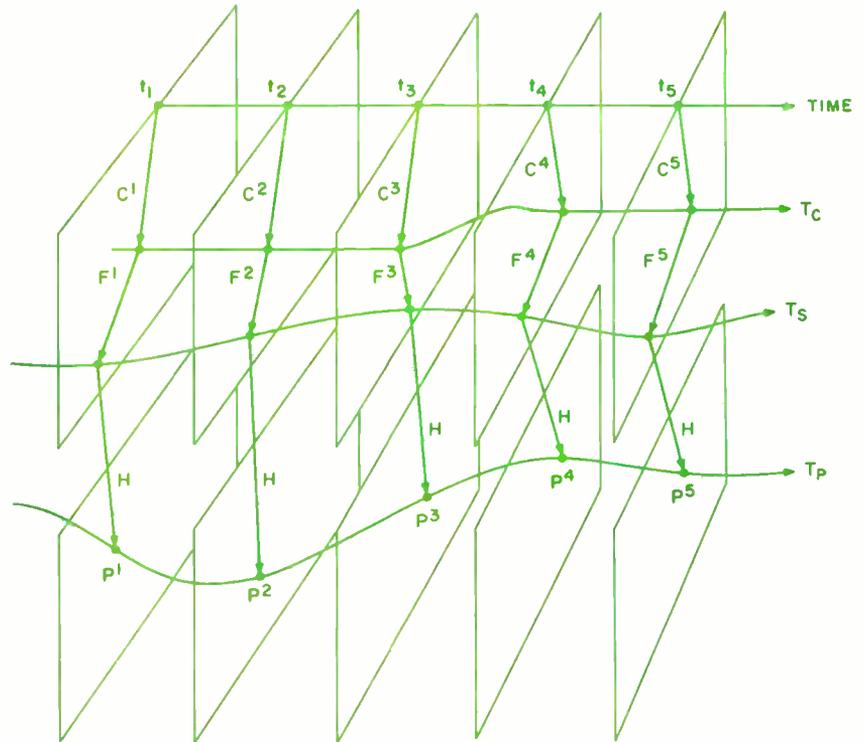


Figure 16: When time is represented explicitly, the vectors and trajectories of figure 15 become as shown here. In this example, the C vector remains constant from time $t = 1$ to $t = 3$ and then jumps to a new value for $t = 4$ and $t = 5$.

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Text continued from page 21:

At least part of the output P_4 becomes part of the input command vector C_3 to the next lower level. C_3 is also a symbolic vector which identifies one of a library of *simple task* commands together with the necessary modifiers and arguments. As the feedback F_4 varies with time, the input vector S_4 , and hence the output vector P_4 , move along a trajectory generating a sequence of simple task commands at C_3 such as (FETCH A), (FETCH B), (MATE B TO A), (FASTEN B TO A), etc. as shown in figure 17b.

Feedback at F_3 may identify the position and orientation of the parts A and B, and also carry state sequencing information from outputs P_3 and P_2 . As F_3 varies with time, it drives the input S_3 (and hence P_3) along a trajectory generating a sequence of *elemental movement* commands at C_2 such as (REACH TO A), (GRASP), (MOVE TO C), (RELEASE), etc.

Feedback at F_2 may contain information from proximity sensors indicating the fine positioning error between the fingers and the objects to be manipulated, together with state sequencing information derived from P_2 and P_1 . The operator H_2 produces P_2 , which denotes the proper velocity vectors C_1 for the manipulator hand in joint angle coordinates.

Feedback F_2 also provides joint angle position data necessary for the coordinate transformations performed by H_2 . P_2 provides reference, or setpoint commands, C_1 to the servomechanism operator H_1 . F_1 provides position, velocity, and force information for the traditional servocomputations. The output P_1 is a set of drive signals to the actuators.

Feedback enters this hierarchy at every level. At the lowest levels, the feedback is unprocessed (or nearly so) and hence is fast acting with very short delays. At higher levels, feedback data passes through more and more stages of an ascending, sensory processing hierarchy. Feedback thus closes a real time control loop at each level in the hierarchy. The lower level loops are simple and fast acting. The higher level loops are more sophisticated and slower.

At each level the feedback vector F drives the output vector P along its trajectory. Thus, at each level of the hierarchy, the time rate of change of the output vector P_i will be of the same order of magnitude as the feedback vector F_i , and considerably more rapid than the command vector C_i . The result is that each stage of the behavior generating hierarchy effectively *decomposes* an input task represented by a slowly changing C_i into a string of subtasks represented by a more rapidly changing P_i .

At this point we perhaps should emphasize that the difference in time rate of change of the vectors at various levels in the hierarchy does *not* imply that the H operators are computing slower at the higher levels than at the lower. We will, in fact, assume that every H operator transforms S into P with the same computational delay Δt at all levels of the hierarchy. That is:

$$P_i(t) = H_i(S_i(t - \Delta t)) \text{ or } P_i^k = H_i(S_i^{k-1})$$

at every level. The slower time rate of change of P vectors at the higher levels stems from the fact that the F vectors driving the higher levels convey information about events which occur less frequently. In some cases certain components of higher level F vectors may require the integration of information over long time intervals or the recognition of symbolic messages with long word lengths.

When we represent time explicitly as in figure 17, we can label the relatively straight segments of the T_c trajectories as tasks and subtasks. Transitions between the subtasks in a sequence correspond to abrupt changes in T_c .

If we do not represent time explicitly, the relatively constant C vectors correspond to nodes, as in figure 15. The resulting tree structure represents a classical AND/OR decomposition of a task into sequences of subtasks, where the discrete C_i vectors correspond to OR nodes and the rapidly changing sequences of P_i vectors become sets of AND nodes *under* those OR nodes.

Intentional or Purposive Behavior

Figure 17 illustrates the power of a hierarchy of multivariant servomechanisms to generate a lengthy sequence of behavior which is both goal directed and appropriate to the environment. Such behavior appears to an external observer to be intentional, or purposive. The top level input command is a goal, or task, which is successively decomposed into subgoals, or subtasks, at each stage of the control hierarchy until at the lowest level output signals drive the muscles (or other actuators) producing observable behavior.

To the extent that the F vectors at the various levels contain sensory information from the environment, the task decompositions at those levels will be capable of responding to the environment. The type of response to each F vector depends on the H function at that level. If the F vector at any level is made up solely of internal variables,

Text continued on page 28

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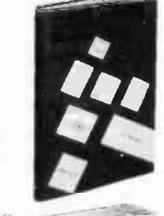
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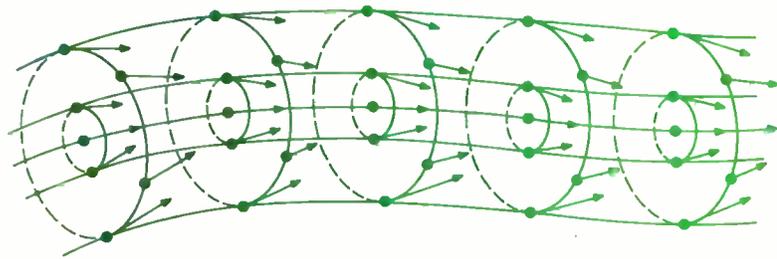


Figure 18: Around each trajectory representing an ideal task performance there exists an envelope of nearly ideal trajectories which correspond to successful, but not perfect, task performance. If the H functions are defined throughout these envelopes so as to drive the system back toward the ideal whenever it deviates, then the trajectory will be stable and task performance can be successful despite perturbations and unexpected events.

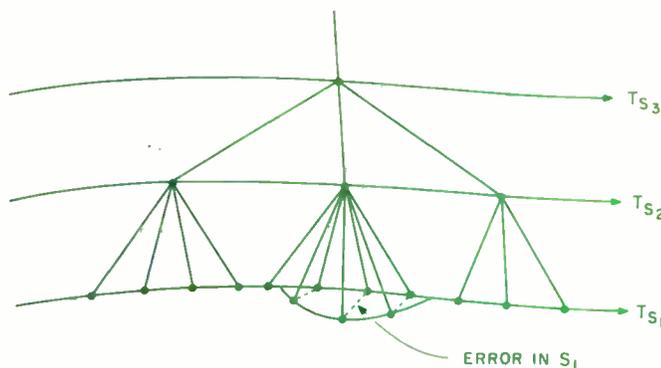


Figure 19: If the H functions at the lower levels are sufficiently well defined, small perturbations from the ideal performance can be corrected by low level feedback without requiring any change in the command from higher levels.

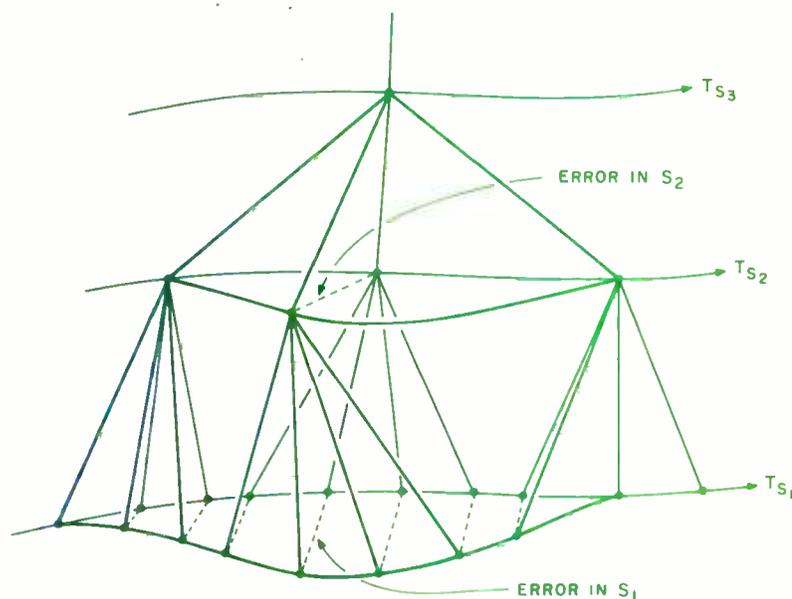


Figure 20: If the lower level H functions are not adequately defined, or if the perturbations are too large for the lower level to cope, then feedback to the higher levels produces changes in the task decomposition at a higher level. The result is an alternative strategy.

Text continued from page 24:

then the decomposition at that level will be stereotyped and insensitive to conditions in the environment.

Whether or not the hierarchy is driven by external or internal variables, or both, the highest level input command commits the entire structure to an organized and coordinated sequence of actions which under normal conditions will achieve the goal or accomplish the task. The selection of a high level input command in a biological organism thus corresponds to an intent or purpose, which, depending on circumstances, may or may not be successfully achieved through the resulting hierarchical decomposition into action.

Obtaining Successful Performance

The success or failure of any particular task performance, or goal seeking action, depends on whether or not the H functions at each level are capable of providing the correct mappings so as to maintain the output trajectory within a region of successful performance, despite perturbations and uncertainties in the environment.

At all levels, variations in the F vectors due to irregularities in the environment cause T_s trajectories to vary from one task performance to the next. This implies that while there may exist a set of ideal trajectories through S and P space at each level of the hierarchy corresponding to an ideal task performance, there also must be an envelope of nearly ideal trajectories which correspond to successful, but not perfect, task performance. This is illustrated in figure 18.

The H functions must not only be defined along the T_s trajectories corresponding to ideal performance, but also in the regions around the ideal performance. Consequently, any deviation from the ideal is treated as an error signal which generates an action designed to restore the actual trajectory to the ideal, or at least to maintain it within the region of successful performance.

Small perturbations can usually be corrected by low level feedback loops, as shown in figure 19. These involve relatively little sensory data processing, and hence are fast acting. Larger perturbations in the environment may overwhelm the lower level feedback loops, and require strategy changes at higher levels in order to maintain the system within the region of successful performance. This is illustrated in figure 20. Major changes in the environment are detected at higher levels after being processed through several levels of pattern recognizers. This produces differences in the F vector at the higher level

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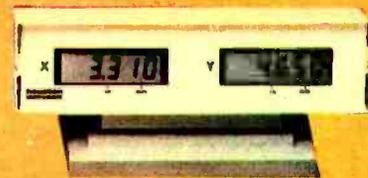


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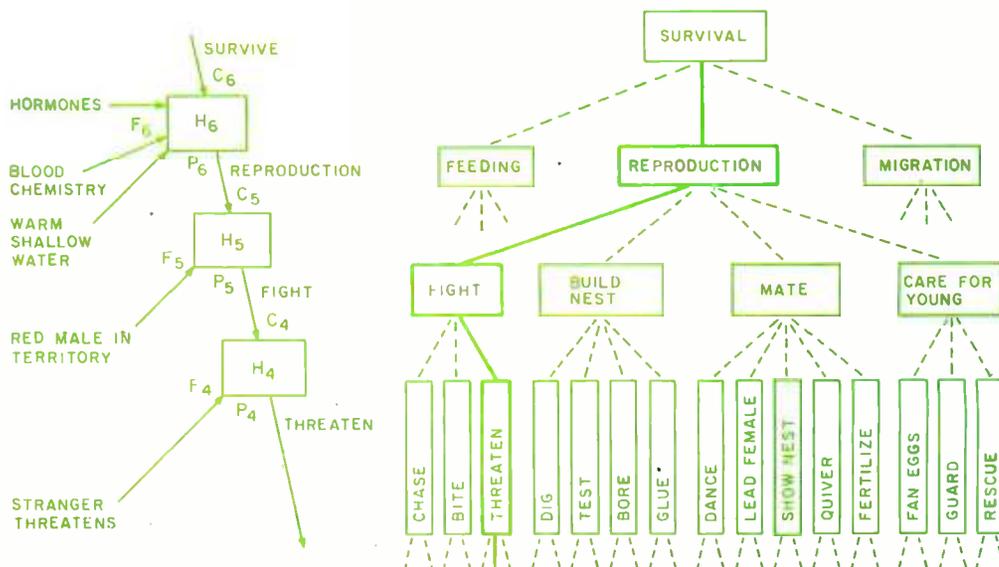
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Figure 21: The command and control hierarchy proposed by Tinbergen to account for the behavior of the male 3 spined stickleback fish. The heavy line indicates the particular type of behavior vector actually selected by the feedback shown at the various levels of the hierarchy on the left. This figure represents a snapshot in time corresponding to one of the two-dimensional surfaces shown in figure 16.



which in turn produces different C vectors to lower levels. The result is an alternative higher level strategy to cope with the perturbation.

Of course, if the H functions do not provide stability, or if the environment is so perverse that the system is overwhelmed, then the trajectories diverge from the region of successful performance and failure occurs.

Over-learned tasks correspond to those for which the H functions at the lower levels are sufficiently well defined over a large enough region of input space so as to maintain the terminal trajectory well within regions of stability and success without requiring intervention by the higher levels for strategy modification. Thus, a highly skilled and well-practiced performer, such as a water skier, can execute extremely difficult maneuvers with apparent ease despite large perturbations such as waves. His lower level H functions are well defined over large regions of space corresponding to large perturbations in the environment. He is thus capable of compensating for these perturbations quickly and precisely so as to maintain successful performance without intervention by higher levels. Such a performance is characterized by a minimum amount of physical and mental effort.

We say, "He skis effortlessly without even thinking." What we mean is that his lower level corrections are so quick and precise that his performance never deviates significantly from the ideal. There is never any need for higher level loops to make emergency changes in strategy. On the other hand, a novice skier (whose H functions are poorly defined, even near the ideal trajectory, and completely undefined elsewhere) may have great difficulty maintaining a successful

performance at all. He is continually forced to bring higher levels into play to prevent failure, and even the slightest perturbation from the ideal is likely to result in a watery catastrophe. He works very hard, and fails often, because his responses are late and often misdirected. His performance is erratic and hardly ever near the ideal.

However, practice makes perfect, at least in creatures with the capacity to learn. Each time a trajectory is traversed, if there is some way of knowing what mistakes were made, corrections can be made to the H functions in those regions of input spaces which are traversed. The degree and precision of these corrections, and the algorithm by which they are computed, determine the rate of convergence (if any) of the learning process to a stable and efficient success trajectory.

There are many interesting questions about learning, generalization, and the mechanisms by which H functions are created and modified at the various hierarchical levels in biological brains. However, we will defer these issues until part 2 (July 1979 BYTE).

Task Decomposition and Goal Seeking

Note that figure 17 illustrates only a single specific performance of a particular task. None of the alternative trajectories which might have occurred under different circumstances with a different set of F vectors are indicated. These alternatives which might have occurred can be illustrated in the plane orthogonal to the time axis.

Figure 21 illustrates the set of alternative C vectors available at various levels in the behavior-generating hierarchy of the male 3 spined stickleback fish. This figure



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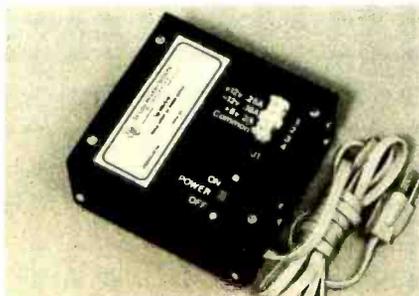
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represents a snapshot, or single cut through space orthogonal to the time axis. C_4 , the highest level goal, is *survival*. The feedback F_4 consists of variables indicating water temperature and depth, blood chemistry, and hormone levels generated by length of day detectors. When the hormone levels indicate the proper time of year and the blood chemistry does not call for feeding behavior, then migratory behavior will be selected until warm, shallow water is detected. The F_4 vector will then trigger the reproduction subgoal.

When C_3 indicates (REPRODUCTION), an F_3 vector indicating a red male in the territory will cause the (FIGHT) command to be selected to C_2 . When C_2 indicates (FIGHT) and the intruder threatens, a C_1 will be selected, and so on. At each level, a different feedback vector would select a different lower level subgoal. For example, if F_3 indicates a female in the territory, C_2 will become (MATE), and the type of mating behavior selected will depend on F_2 .

In simple creatures like the stickleback fish, the sensory stimuli that produce F_2 and F_3 vectors which trigger specific behavioral trajectories are called *innate releasing mechanisms*. Innate releasing mechanisms and their associated behavioral patterns have been studied extensively in

a number of insects (ie: the digger wasp and various bee and ant species), several fish, and many birds (ie: the herring gull, turkey, and golden eye drake).

In these relatively simple creatures, behavior is sufficiently stereotyped that it can be described in terms of a small set of behavioral patterns triggered by an equally small set of sensory stimuli. This suggests that insects, fish, and birds have only a few levels in their control hierarchies and a small set of behavior patterns stored as H functions at each level. It further implies that there are few externally driven components in the F vectors at each level. Behavior trajectories are internally driven, with only a few branch points controlled by sensory data processed through simple pattern recognizers. The trajectory segments driven entirely by internal variables are called fixed action patterns, or *tropisms*. The external variables which control the relatively few branch points are the innate releasing mechanisms.

In higher animals, behavior is more complex and much less stereotyped. This implies more levels in the hierarchy, more external sensory variables in the F vectors at each level, and hence many more possibilities for branching of the resulting trajectories.

Figure 22 illustrates a set of trajectories

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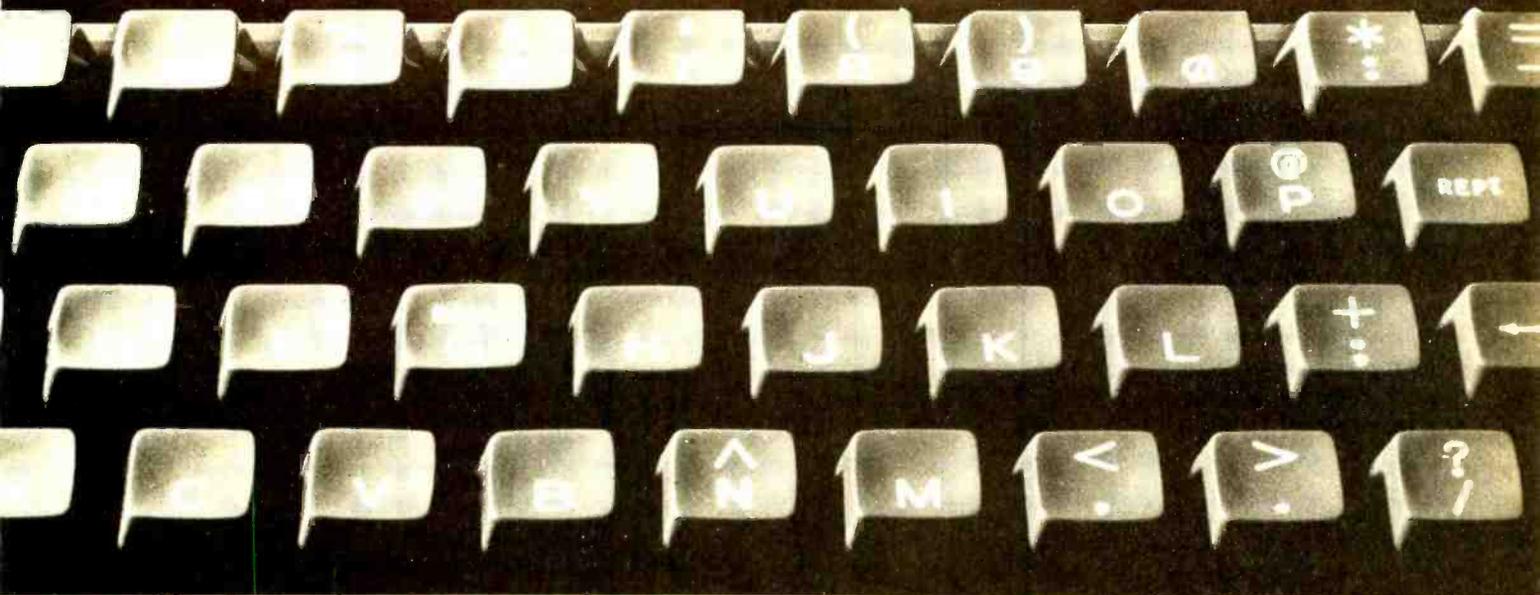
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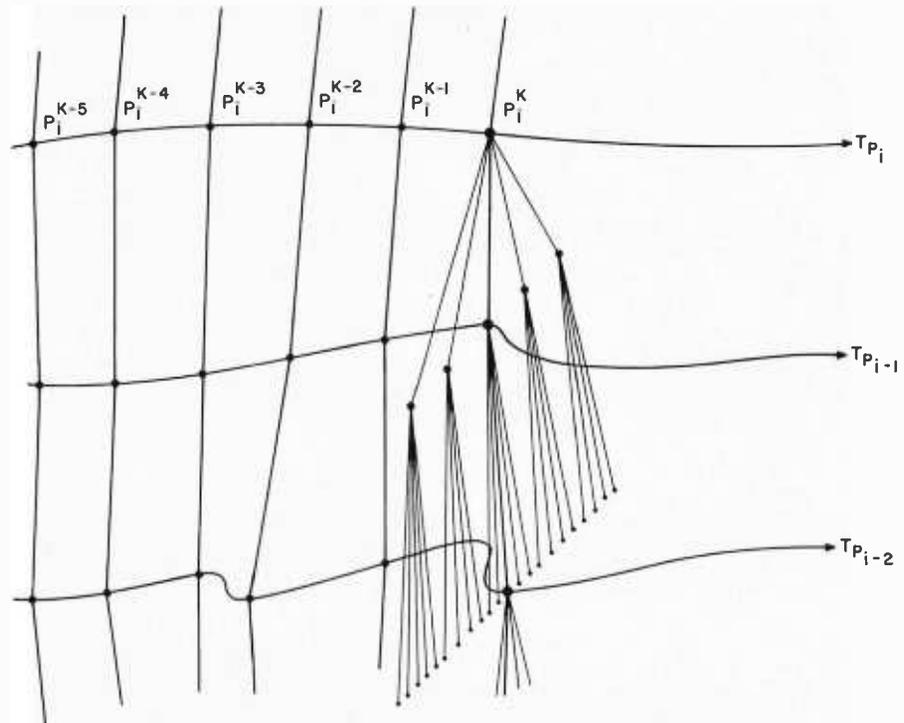
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Figure 22: A set of T_p trajectories in which there is opportunity for branching at many points in time. If behavior can be modified by feedback at many different levels and in many different ways, it appears to be adaptive and flexible. If there are only a few branch points, with only a few alternative actions available at each branch, behavior will appear stereotyped.



in which there is opportunity for branching at *several* different levels at *every* step along each trajectory. At each instant in time the C vector to any particular level depends upon what the C and F vectors were to the next higher level at the previous instant. Thus, a change in the F vector at any level causes an alternative C vector to be sent to the level below. Behavior is continuously modified at all levels by external variables, and hence does not appear stereotyped at all.

Many degrees of freedom place great demands on the H functions for maintaining stability and precision of control in such a large space of possibilities. Since successful behavior is only a tiny subset of all possible behaviors, it is clear that most of the potential branches will lead to disaster unless the H functions produce actions which steer the S and P vectors back into the narrow regions surrounding success trajectories. For a multilevel hierarchy with sensory interaction at many different levels, this is extremely complex. However, if the H functions are trainable, then performance can improve through practice. Complex tasks can be learned, imitated, and communicated from one individual to another.

Conclusion

We have now completed the first step in our development. We have described a hierarchical computing structure which can execute goals, or intended tasks, in an unpredictable environment. We have also

defined a notation by which the behavior of such a hierarchy can be described clearly and concisely. We have asserted that the complexity of behavior resulting from such a control hierarchy depends on four things:

- the number of levels in the control hierarchy;
- the number of feedback variables which enter each level;
- the sophistication of the H functions which reside at each level;
- the sophistication of the sensory processing systems which extract feedback variables for use by the various H functions.

In part 2 we will describe a computer model of a neurophysiological structure in the brain which computes multivariant H functions. We will then suggest how the brain might use such structures to learn skills, remember events, select goals, and plan future actions.■

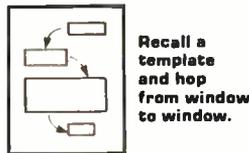
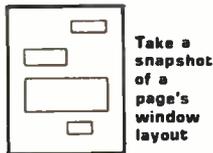
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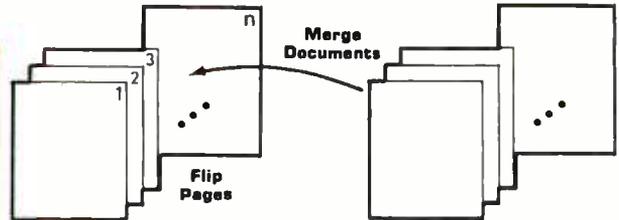
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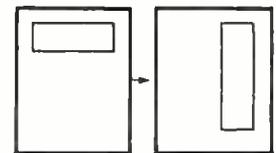
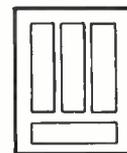
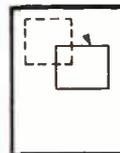
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Simple Maze Traversal Algorithms

Sandra and Stephen A Allen
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This article is a discussion of some solutions to the problem of traversing a maze. The algorithms here represent neither an exhaustive nor a high-powered study of the problem, but rather an intuitive approach. The ideas reflect our thought processes and those of Tony Rossetti in our efforts to compete in *IEEE Spectrum* magazine's ongoing Micromouse contest.

Problem Specification

The *IEEE Spectrum*'s Micromouse Maze contest began time trials last June at the 1978 National Computer Conference in Anaheim CA. A mechanical "mouse" (ie: robot) must find its way under its own power from the entrance of a maze to the exit. Each mouse is given three tries through the maze, with a time limit on each attempt. The mouse with the shortest logged time wins the contest. The solution to the problem, then, is to find the path through the maze that yields the shortest time.

An important consideration in finding a solution is the characteristics of the maze. The corridors are of uniform width. There are only five types of intersections: right angle; left angle; T; U turn; and mouse-trap. These are shown in figure 1. There are no cross-intersections, nor are there any king's chambers, which are large vacant areas in the maze. This simplifies the traversal algorithms somewhat. Finally, there are exactly one entrance and one exit on the perimeter of the maze, but not necessarily on opposite sides.

Characteristics of the mouse should also be taken into consideration. It must be completely self-contained, having an on board computer and any required memory. Since the mouse must carry its own battery, available power is a limiting factor.

Easy Algorithms

The criteria used in looking for a solution were primarily based on the considerations discussed above. The limited power, program space, memory and processor power were perhaps the most important aspects. Simplicity was also an important element in order to provide easy modification and enhancement of the robot.

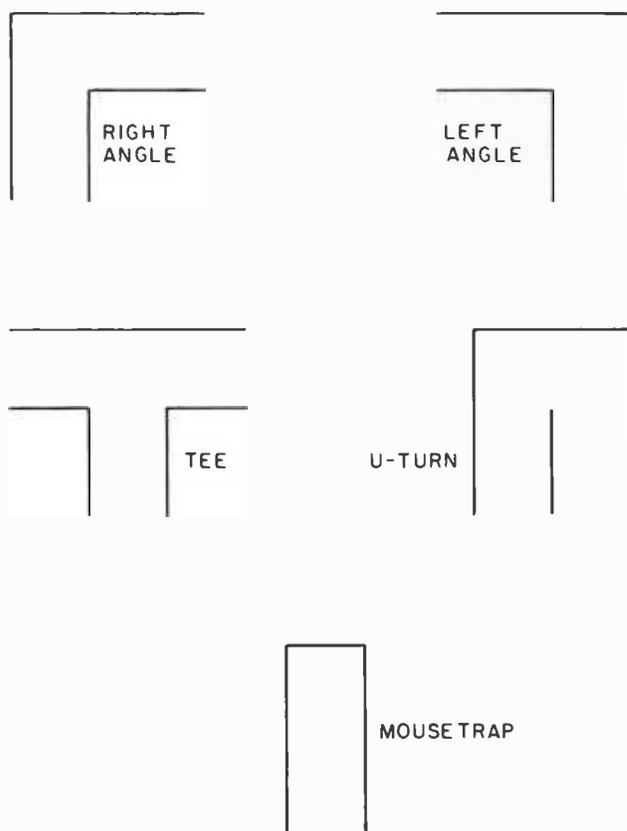


Figure 1: Types of intersections allowed in the maze. All intersections are at right angles and no cross intersections are allowed.

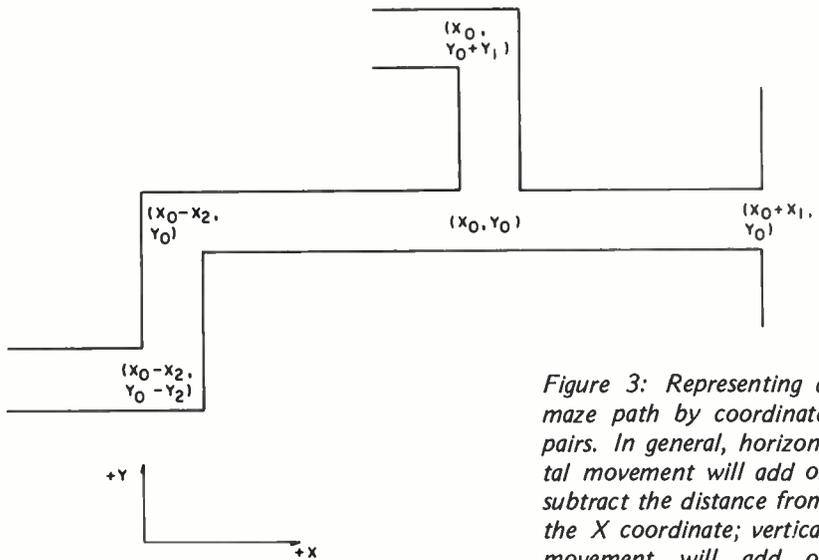


Figure 3: Representing a maze path by coordinate pairs. In general, horizontal movement will add or subtract the distance from the X coordinate; vertical movement will add or subtract from the Y coordinate.

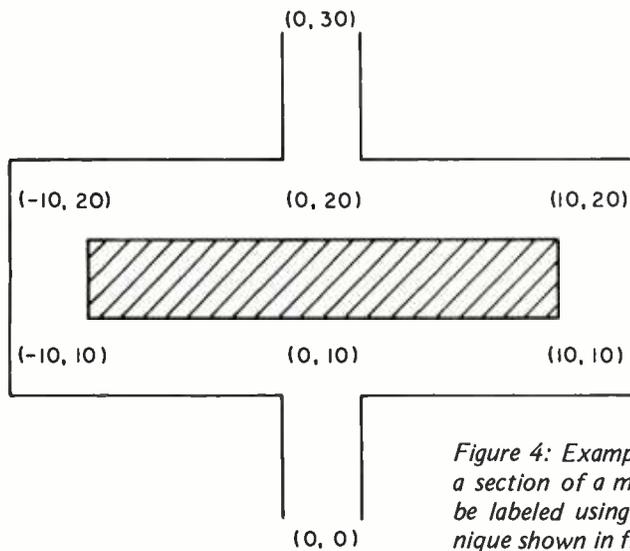
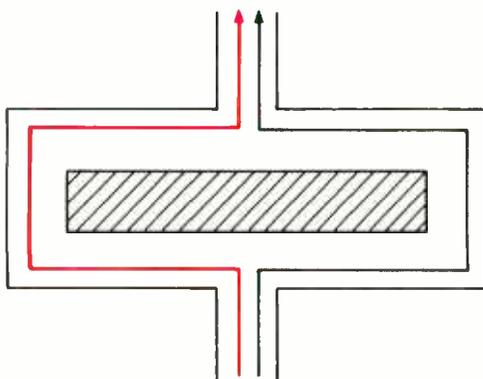


Figure 4: Example of how a section of a maze might be labeled using the technique shown in figure 3.



- | | |
|-----------|----------|
| (0, 0) | (0, 0) |
| (0, 10) | (0, 10) |
| (-10, 10) | (10, 10) |
| (-10, 20) | (10, 20) |
| (0, 20) | (0, 20) |
| (0, 30) | (0, 30) |
| LEFT | RIGHT |

Figure 5: Sequence of X,Y coordinates of all the intersections visited during a maze walk. Two short samples of the leftmost and rightmost path lists through a simple maze section are shown.

leftmost path the second time, and the straightest path the third time. In this way the mouse is allowed to take advantage of having three tries, and perhaps one will yield a reasonably short time.

Smarter Algorithms

An unfortunate characteristic of mazes built for a competition of this sort is that wall-hugging mice (ie: those that don't recognize corridors and intersections, but are built to blindly follow the right or left wall) are heavily penalized. This means that the maze probably has a fairly short and direct path from the entrance to the exit, but that this path has so many dead-end offshoots that a wall-hugger ends up covering a large portion of the maze's interior before reaching the exit. This aspect makes it not such a good idea to use only a rightmost or leftmost algorithm. Rather, it argues for using an algorithm that can be smart about picking the path and learning from its mistakes.

Obviously, the only way the robot can learn from its mistakes is by remembering what it did. In this way, the robot can make a first try through the maze using one of the simple algorithms discussed before, remembering the path taken. Then the remembered path can be optimized. This attack gives the potential for significant time improvement.

Remembering the Path Taken

The most difficult part of remembering a path taken through the maze is how to represent that path in the mouse's memory. One straightforward way to do this is to conceptually map the maze onto an X,Y coordinate grid, picking a convenient origin (ie: the entrance to the maze) and orientation (ie: forward from the entrance is +X). Since all intersections of corridors are at right angles, any movement will be either parallel to the X axis or parallel to the Y axis, and will have either a positive or negative increment. This mechanism provides a way to uniquely name all intersections in a maze simply by giving the X,Y pair which specifies the distances from the entrance at (0,0). See figures 3 and 4 for examples of naming intersections.

As the mouse visits intersections on its walk through the maze, it can record in its memory the X,Y coordinates of each, thus generating a list of X,Y pairs starting with (0,0) which uniquely describes the particular path taken. Figure 5 shows the coordinate lists representing the leftmost and rightmost paths through the labeled maze of figure 4.

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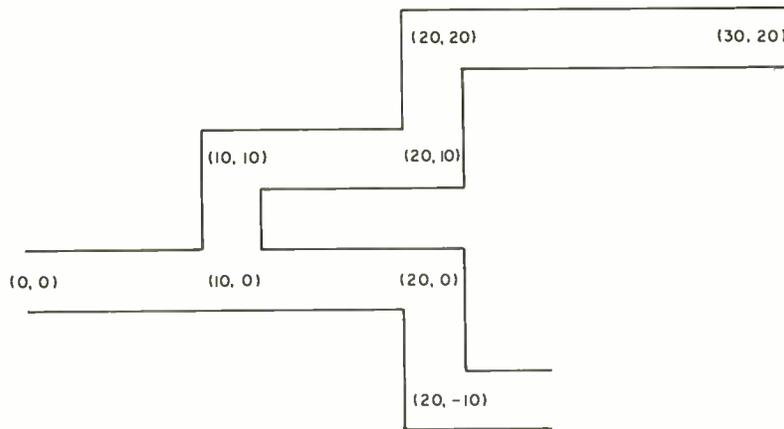


Figure 6: Maze pitfalls. On its first, nonoptimized attempt, the mouse will traverse the entire length of the dead-end corridor. After optimizing the path by deleting backtracked corridors, a shorter path is taken.

LEFTMOST PATH BEFORE OPTIMIZATION

- (0, 0)
- (10, 0)
- (10, 10)
- (20, 10)
- (20, 20)
- (30, 20)
- (20, 20)
- (20, 10)
- (10, 10)
- (10, 0)
- (20, 0)
- (20, -10)

LEFTMOST PATH AFTER OPTIMIZATION

- (0, 0)
- (10, 0)
- (20, 0)
- (20, -10)

Optimization

Now that the mouse has a way of remembering the path it takes on the first attempt through the maze, the next problem is, how can it find a better (shorter) path for the second attempt? The main motivation behind optimizing a path is to chop off all parts of the path that don't contribute to getting closer to the exit. That is, remove any part that had to be backtracked.

The first type of backtracking is that in which a corridor is a dead end, and the mouse has to return to the main corridor to continue. Clearly the time spent negotiating this part of the maze is wasted and should be omitted. Figure 6 illustrates this kind of backtrack optimization: every coordinate pair along the backtracked path can be deleted from the list. Notice that this same method works no matter how long the dead end corridor is (ie: how many intersections it has).

A second kind of backtracking occurs when the maze contains a loop or cycle. The presence of a loop is indicated when the mouse returns to an intersection that it has previously visited. The whole traversal of the loop can be cut out of the maze walk since that part of the maze is useless and cannot lead to the exit. Figure 7 illustrates how it is always the outer edge of the loop that is traversed. Once an intersection is revisited, all corridors leading away from the center of the loop have been already tried and found to be fruitless (otherwise the mouse would not have returned to the loop entrance). And since the exit is along the perimeter of the maze, no corridor leading to the inside of the loop could

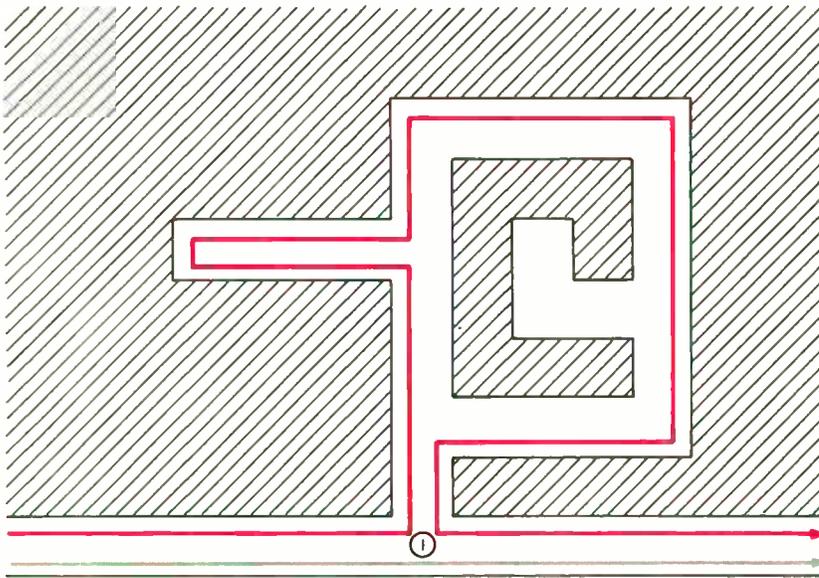


Figure 7: Leftmost versus rightmost maze traversal, in which the robot keeps its right or left side against the respective wall while traversing the maze. The leftmost path the mouse would travel is shown in red. Notice that the outer edge of the loop is completely circumvented. When intersection 1 is visited a second time it is clear that this whole section of the maze is fruitless because all corridors leading away from the center of the loop were tried and found to be useless. Since the exit to the maze is along the perimeter of the maze, no corridor going to the inside of the loop could possibly reach the exit. The rightmost path is shown in gray: in this case the whole loop is neatly bypassed. The mirror image of the above maze section can be used to argue similarly for chopping the loop off the rightmost path.

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possibly reach the exit. Therefore, it doesn't matter that these were unexplored, and every intersection along the loop can be deleted from the optimized path with no loss of important information.

Detecting the two different types of backtracks (straight line and loop) involves answering the same question: has the mouse been here before? The handling of both types of backtracks is also the same too: delete all of the path history between the last visit here and this visit, then continue from there. Up until now, the optimizing process has been discussed in an "after the fact" fashion, as if the whole maze walk path had already been generated from the start to the finish. However, it can be much more efficient if the mouse can perform these optimizations while it is recording the path.

The actual details of the implementation are not important here, since they

would depend on the type of microprocessor used. In general, though, assume that the intersection X,Y coordinates are stored in the mouse's memory in a linear fashion (ie: in an array or list). Furthermore, assume that there is a pointer into the array or list indicating where the next coordinate pair will be stored (ie: NEXT pointer). In this way, each time the mouse encounters an intersection and is about to record its coordinates as the NEXT position in the path list, it can scan backward from the NEXT pointer to the beginning of the list, looking for an occurrence of the same coordinates. If no occurrence is found, this is the mouse's first visit here. These coordinates can be recorded at the NEXT position in the list, and NEXT can be appropriately incremented to prepare for any successive intersections. If an occurrence of the same coordinate pair is found (ie: at position I in the list), the mouse has been here before. The easy way to "forget" the backtracked part of the path (between I and NEXT) is for the mouse to reset NEXT to I, then continue normally by incrementing NEXT and looking for another intersection. Figure 8 shows this diagrammatically.

Incidentally, if the mouse has relatively low accuracy motors and sensors, it is possible to obtain slightly different readings when encountering an intersection for the second time. Therefore, when checking to determine if this intersection has been visited before, allowances must be made for the inaccuracies. This is easily accomplished by checking to see if $X[NEXT]$ is within plus or minus delta of $X[I]$, and if $Y[NEXT]$ is within plus or minus delta of $Y[I]$, where the delta value reflects the amount of possible deviation, instead of checking for $X[NEXT] = X[I]$ and $Y[NEXT] = Y[I]$.

Although it may seem that a lot of computation is done while the mouse is running the maze (and, after all, speed counts), in fact, the time taken for computation is so small compared to the time it takes for the robot to move to the next intersection that it is hardly noticeable. Another factor which makes doing the optimization during the run even more desirable is that the exit of the maze is not always well defined. This means that the robot merely passes through a corridor and trips a light sensor to stop the timer, and then proceeds to "fall off the edge of the world." This makes it difficult for the mouse to determine that the maze run is finished, and that it should now optimize the recorded path. Optimizing during the run is certainly cleaner and more efficient.

A suitable way to take advantage of the *backtrack-trimming* algorithm would be

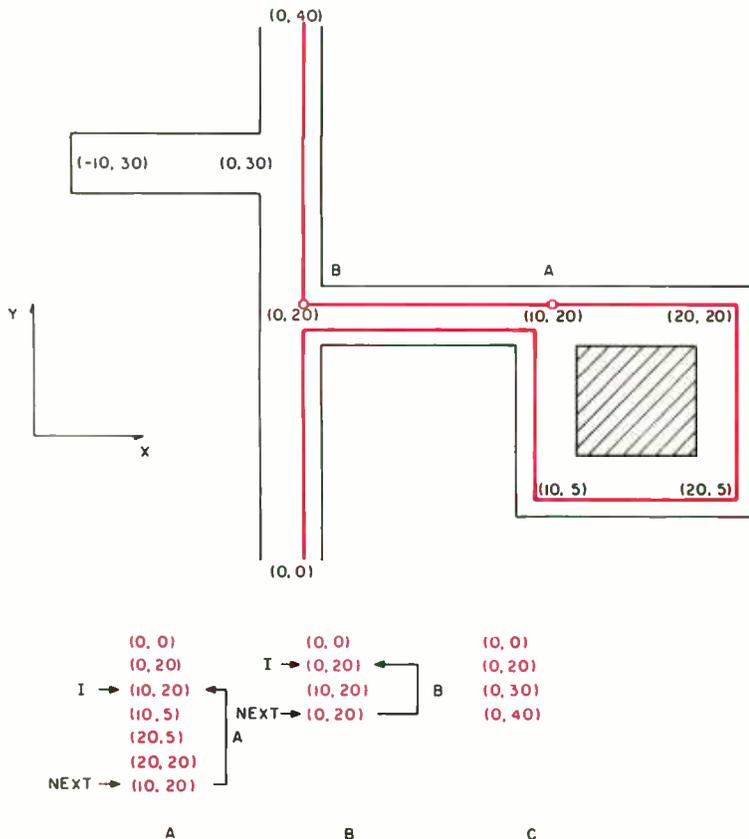


Figure 8: Backtracking checks. Whenever the mouse records the intersection it is in, it checks backward in the path list to see if it has been here before. If so, the path list is pared back to that point, and thus the backtracked path is automatically "forgotten." For example, in A, the mouse is at intersection (10,20); it scans back through its path history and sees that it has been here before at pointer I. So the NEXT pointer is reset to just after I and the mouse continues. In B, the mouse again finds that it has revisited an intersection, and again the NEXT pointer is reset before continuing. In C, the final, optimized path is shown.

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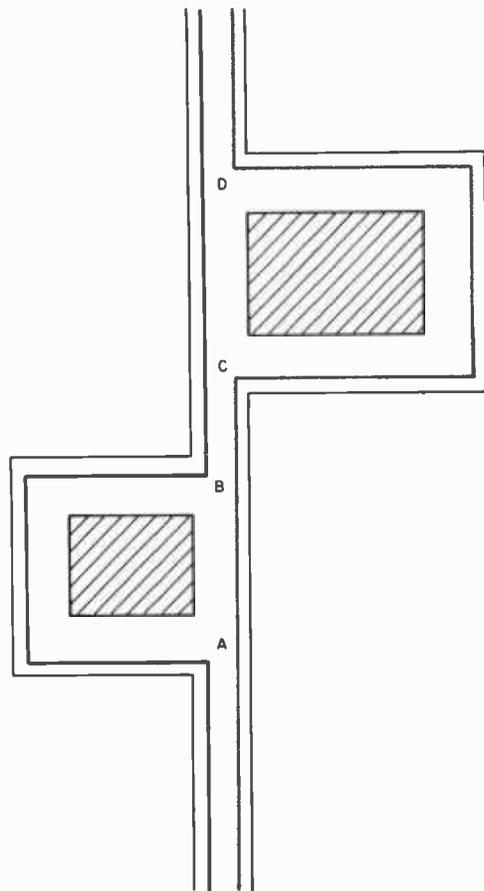
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Figure 9: Optimization. If a leftmost path were to yield the red path and a rightmost path were to yield the gray path, the common intersections would be A, B, C, and D. By taking the shorter path between each successive pair of intersections, one obtains the shortest total path which has been traversed. Examples of short paths are the gray path from A to B, either path from B to C (since they are the same), and the red path from C to D. The final path is the most direct and shortest path through this section of the maze.



for the mouse to take the rightmost path, optimizing and recording as it went on the first attempt, and similarly take the leftmost path on the second try. Now the mouse has recorded in its memory two different optimized paths. At the beginning of the third attempt, each of the two paths can be measured by a straightforward, length of corridors sum, and the shorter of the two optimized paths can be taken on this final run.

A logical extension of this shorter total path philosophy is to compare the leftmost path list to the rightmost path list, finding all the common intersections. A short total path can then be composed by joining the shorter of the path segments between each common intersection pairs. For example, each complete path might go through the origin, intersection A, intersection B, and the exit point (perhaps along with many other different intersections). Then an optimal path could be made by combining the shorter path between the origin and A, the shorter path between A and B, and shorter path between B and the exit. Conceptually, this is like breaking the maze down into "common denominator" sections and picking the shortest path through each individual section. And, in fact, this path is the shortest one which has been traversed through the maze so far (see figure 9).

However, time is critical, not distance, and most likely the robot corners more slowly than it goes straight (see figure 10). So if the shorter path has many turns in it, and the longer run has few turns, the shorter path may not necessarily yield the shorter time for the run. Therefore, a slightly more sophisticated scheme could measure the paths using a weighted sum (a larger value for turns than for straightaways), and yield values which more closely reflect how fast the robot can negotiate the maze by the different paths.

Conclusions

The algorithms presented here are by no means high-powered or devious, but are more the results of a natural, intuitive approach to the maze traversal problem. They are all straightforward and relatively easy to implement. But even so, they are reliable and produce solutions which are reasonably good, especially when compared with the common wall-hugging tactics.

Clearly, there are still many ways to improve the performance of these algorithms. More contests like the *IEEE Spectrum's* Micromouse contest will perhaps encourage investigation in this area and will produce much more sophisticated approaches and solutions to the maze problem. ■

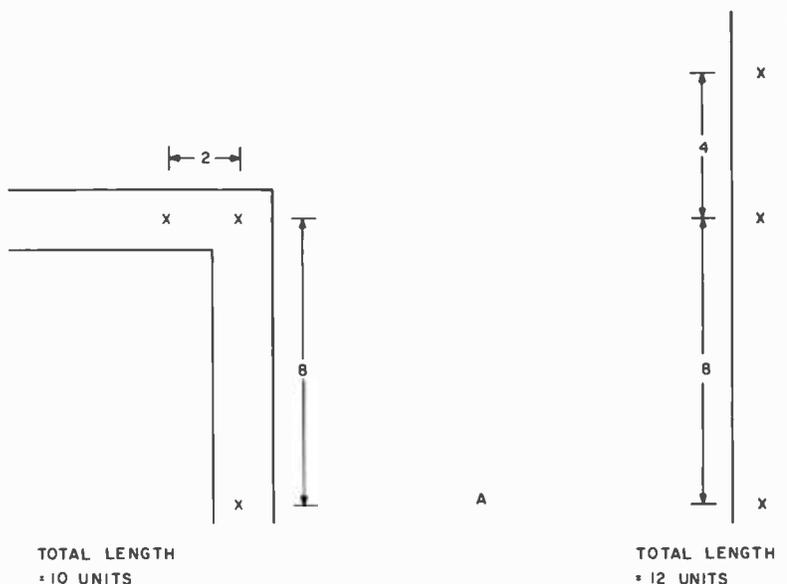


Figure 10: Turning time considerations. Due to the time it takes for the mouse to turn in an intersection, evaluations regarding this difference in the average length traveled per unit time must be made. For example, the mouse moves one unit of length in one unit of time and it takes two units of time to turn in an intersection. Then with the mouse starting in position A in each course, after 12 units of time the mouse has progressed 10 units of length on the left and a full 12 units on the right.

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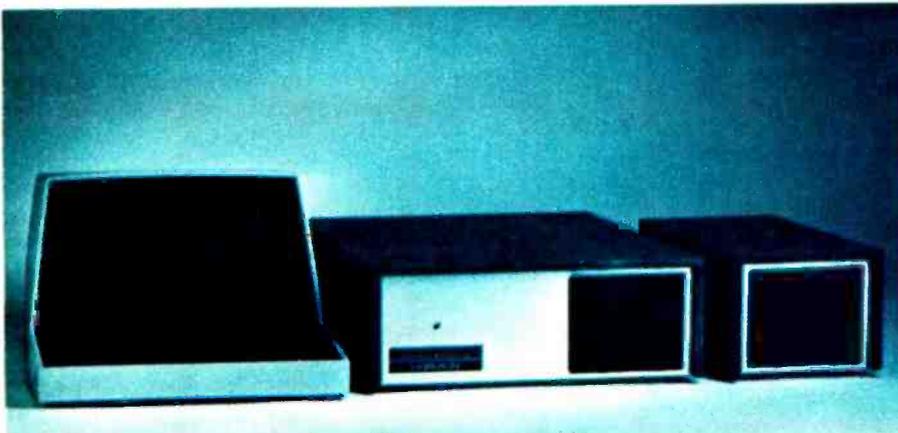
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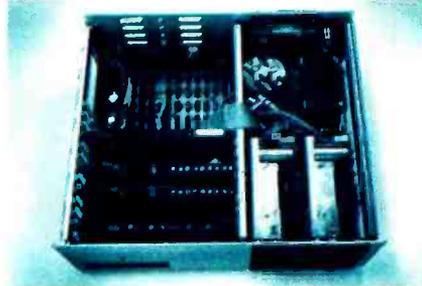
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Mind Over Matter

Add Biofeedback Input to Your Computer

I wouldn't want you to get the wrong idea from photo 1. I haven't given up computers and taken up telling fortunes. Just consider the photo as a slightly dramatized introduction to a topic we've all heard of, but know so little about: biofeedback. In layman's terms, this simply means having the capability to monitor (in this case electronically) physiological processes.

There are a variety of devices on the market referred to as brain wave monitors. Brain waves are but one of the many sources of energy categorized under biofeedback. Their common relationship is that they are all electrical pulses which run through the body as a result of brain or muscle activity. Nerves and muscles within the body generate electricity by electrochemical action similar to that in a battery.

When we want to lift an arm, the brain sends an electrical pulse to the muscles in the arm. Proper magnitude and duration of the signal result in coordinated activity. The actual energy that is transmitted from the brain is very small: on the order of a few hundred microvolts at the most. The most familiar of these signals is the voltage generated by the pumping of the heart. A graph of this voltage versus time is called an electrocardiogram (abbreviated EKG or ECG). An EKG looks like a spiked waveform, with periodic response equivalent to a heartbeat. Many individual muscle contractions contribute to a frequency spectrum of 0.1 to 100 Hz, with an amplitude of about 5 mV.

Another group of signals are the voltages generated using large skeletal muscles like biceps and triceps. A recording of these voltages is called an electromyograph or EMG. Occurring only when the muscles

contract, not periodically like the heart, the frequencies are very low, but the voltage is higher: about 5 to 10 mV. Because of their magnitude, these signals are the easiest to monitor.

The last important biomedical signal is composed of very low amplitude voltages within the brain itself. These are recorded by the EEG (electroencephalograph). They exhibit both periodic and pulse mode. The 50 μ V signals occupy a band that is generally between 1 and 30 Hz. The signals are further subdivided into delta, theta, alpha, and beta waves. These classifications signify activity in defined frequency bands. Differences in activity seem to reflect particular personality tendencies.

Steve Ciarcia
POB 582
Glastonbury CT 06033

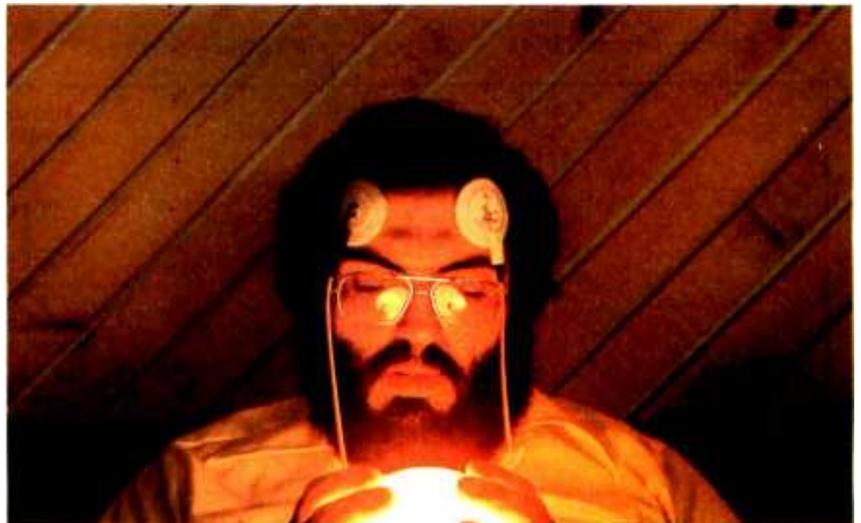
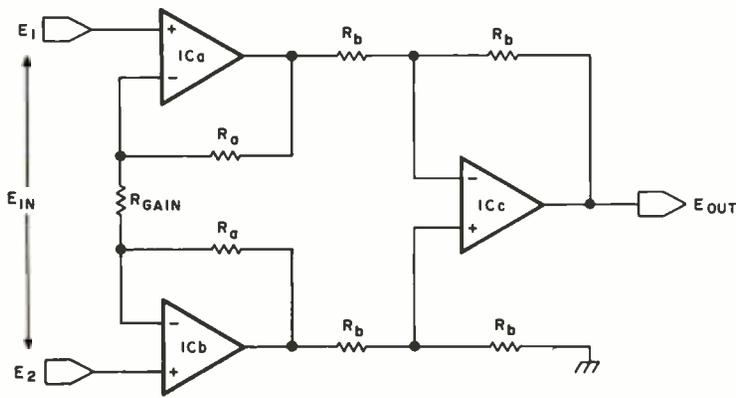


Photo 1: This photo simulates a crystal ball reflection to emphasize the control capabilities associated with this article.



$$E_{OUT} = \left(1 + \frac{2R_a}{R_{GAIN}}\right) (E_2 - E_1)$$

Figure 1: Differential input instrumentation amplifier configured from multiple, single-ended, operational, amplifier elements.

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Monitoring Internal Electrical Activity

Consider the activity within the brain or the muscles. Each neuron is producing minute voltages. In combination with the voltages of billions of other cells involved in similar activities, the result is fairly significant. The situation can be compared to that of a football stadium before, during, and after a game. A listener outside of the stadium would not hear the shouts of a few individuals, but 50,000 people shouting is quite another story. A further consideration is the progress of the game. Loud noise coming from a particular section of the stadium during the game signifies approval. This same ovation, at the conclusion, can imply the identity of the winner. Observa-

tion and association are the keys. EKG, EMG, and EEG readings must be carefully interpreted.

All of the signals discussed thus far can be monitored with surface electrodes. When the biceps is moved, a small voltage which can be measured will be produced across it (ie: referenced to some other point on the body). Monitoring this voltage requires a special amplifier with extremely high input impedance and 60 Hz rejection. Care must be taken to use a device which will not load the signal being sensed, nor have such a low signal to noise ratio that one cannot discern intelligible information. The unique device which satisfies these requirements is called an instrumentation amplifier. Any product which is sold to monitor brain waves, EKGs, etc will contain an instrumentation amplifier.

Instrumentation amplifiers are often called differential or data amplifiers. They are closed loop gain blocks with accurately predictable input to output response. They are especially configured to have extremely high input impedances and common mode rejection which makes them ideal for amplifying low level signals in the presence of large common mode voltages. Figure 1 shows the schematic of a typical instrumentation amplifier built from such standard operational amplifiers as LM301s or 741s.

This common circuit consists of three op amps. ICa and ICb are inserted as high impedance input buffers which provide a differential gain of $1 + 2R_1/R_{gain}$ and unity common mode gain. ICc is a unity gain differential amplifier which combines the voltages from the other amps. The ratio of the differential voltage gain of an amplifier to its common mode gain is enhanced

Table 1: Comparison chart of three different amplification elements.

	Operational Amplifier	Instrumentation Amplifier	Isolation Amplifier
Symbol			
Feedback Configuration	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. User defined feedback such as voltage or current. 2. Can be configured to provide dV/dt, V dt, log V, etc. 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Committed feedback. 2. Gain adjustable within fixed limits. 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Committed feedback. 2. Gain adjustable within fixed limits.
Basic Applications	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. General purpose amplification element. 2. Buffer. 3. Analog computational element. 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. High accuracy analog sense amplifier. 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. High accuracy analog sense amplifier. 2. Analog safety isolator. 3. Prevents ground loops.

by selecting low feedback resistors to reduce the effects of input offsets. A problem arises when selecting matched components to build this otherwise cheap circuit. Slight variations in resistors and op amps can make the difference between a working or non-working circuit. (More on that subject will be discussed later.)

EEG and EMG monitoring requires an instrumentation amplifier because of the low input levels; but, when used in a bio-medical application, a further modification to the amplifier's internal design is necessary. The special device is called an isolation amplifier. Transformers or optical couplers inside the amplifier block isolate the sense inputs of the amplifier from the output circuitry. This means that a $2\mu\text{V}$ signal could be monitored on a 2000 V transmission line and the output connected directly to an analog to digital converter input on your computer. The protection works both ways. This is why any connections to the body are done through isolation amplifiers.

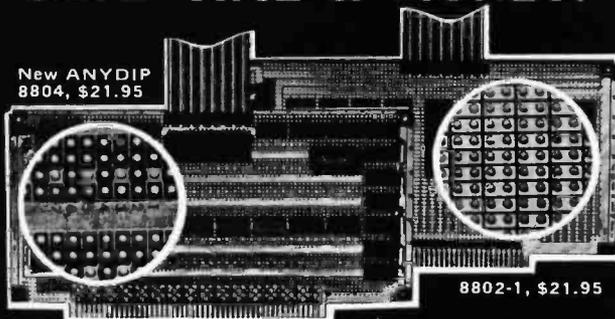
An isolation amplifier is to analog signals as an optoisolator is to digital signals. It prevents ground loops from the data analysis equipment (ie: your computer) through the subject. When the electrodes are attached, skin contact resistance is very low: only a few hundred ohms. A leakage current of just $100\mu\text{A}$ can be fatal. Table 1 summarizes the differences between the amplifiers we've discussed.

Choosing an Isolation Amplifier

There have been many articles on the subject of alpha brain wave and muscle monitors; some even include circuit diagrams for construction of the interfaces. The major thing these articles lack is a caution about matching components, and the critical importance of proper layout. The circuit of figure 1, if breadboarded in the usual fashion, wouldn't have a chance of working on $50\mu\text{V}$ levels. Even the testing of a handful of components to obtain matched pairs would be useless without concise wiring and plenty of ground plane shielding to reduce 60 Hz interference. Personally, I don't like to present circuits with so many strings attached that it takes divine intervention to make them work.

The final most important consideration in this undertaking is to not get electrocuted because of sloppy technique. At this point I'd like to draw the line between this article and other construction oriented articles. A cheap method of attaining minimal isolation is to use batteries to power an instrumentation amplifier. This sounds fine in theory, but it is very risky in practice. Too often a

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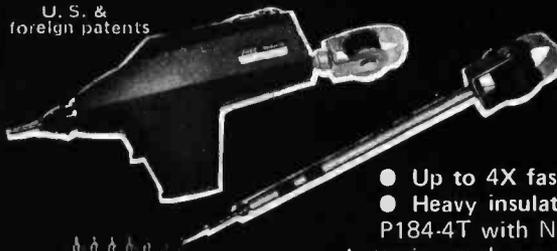
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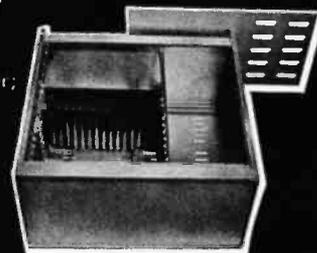
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Photo 2: The Analog Devices 284J isolation amplifier used in this article.



Photo 3: View of the prototype circuit described in figure 2.

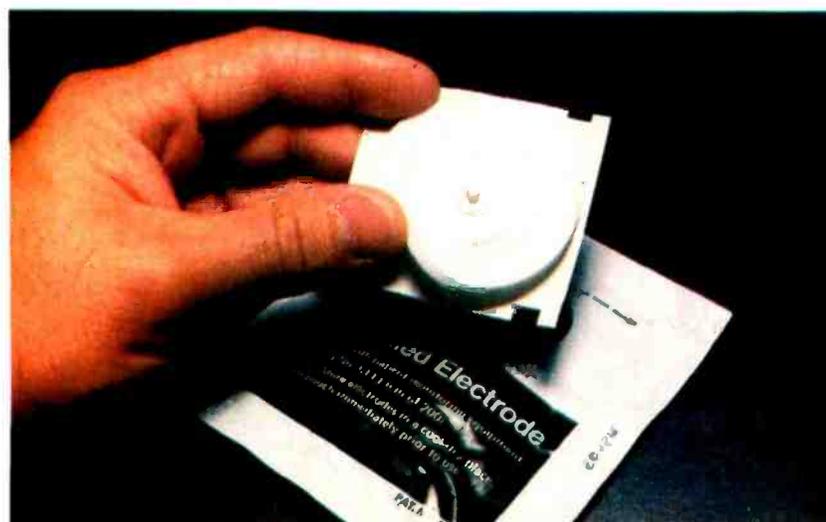


Photo 4: Pregelged American Optical electrodes of the type used in this article. They are available from medical supply outlets.

standard power supply is substituted for the batteries, or a loosely wired component falls against a live wire on another circuit.

Fortunately we can get both safety and performance if we don't assume that everything has to be constructed from scratch. It is a much better idea to take advantage of commercially available isolation amplifiers. (You wouldn't build a 4 bit digital counter from transistors, would you?) A perfect choice for this application is the Underwriters Laboratory approved Analog Devices 284J isolation amplifier shown in photo 2. It provides plus or minus 2500 V isolation, 110 dB common mode rejection, and a gain of 10 V per volt. For the experimenter this eliminates building the only tricky section of the interface. An added benefit is that the isolation is now an internal function of the 284J and not a function of installation. Since the ultimate aim of this article is to produce a biofeedback interface for a computer, I don't want anyone getting injured in the process.

Biofeedback Computer Interface

Figure 2 is the schematic of a circuit which is capable of sensing the minute voltages we've been discussing, and signifying to the computer when a present level has been attained. This is a bare bones, basic interface designed specifically for signal acquisition. It would seem to me that this is the area which would give most people problems. The circuit consists of an isolation amplifier module, two gain stages, and a comparator to sense peak level. The completed circuit is shown in photo 3.

All connections to the body are done through M1. The high and low input terminals are attached across the area to be monitored. If it is an EKG output, you should attach the terminals as shown. For biceps input, these two probes would go on the upper arm and the guard connected to the wrist. All leads between the body and the board must be shielded or 60 Hz will be all that is seen on the output. Gain on the 284J amplifier is set by connecting a resistor between pins 1 and 2. When they are shorted as shown, the result is a gain of 10.

ICs 1 and 2 are configured as common inverting amplifiers, each having a gain of 10. Since the signals we want to amplify are relatively low frequency AC, a capacitor is attached at the input of the first amplifier to filter out the DC component of M1's output. In most cases of muscle monitoring, this total gain of 1000 is sufficient. Picking up brain waves will require additional amplification. Changing the 100 k Ω resistor

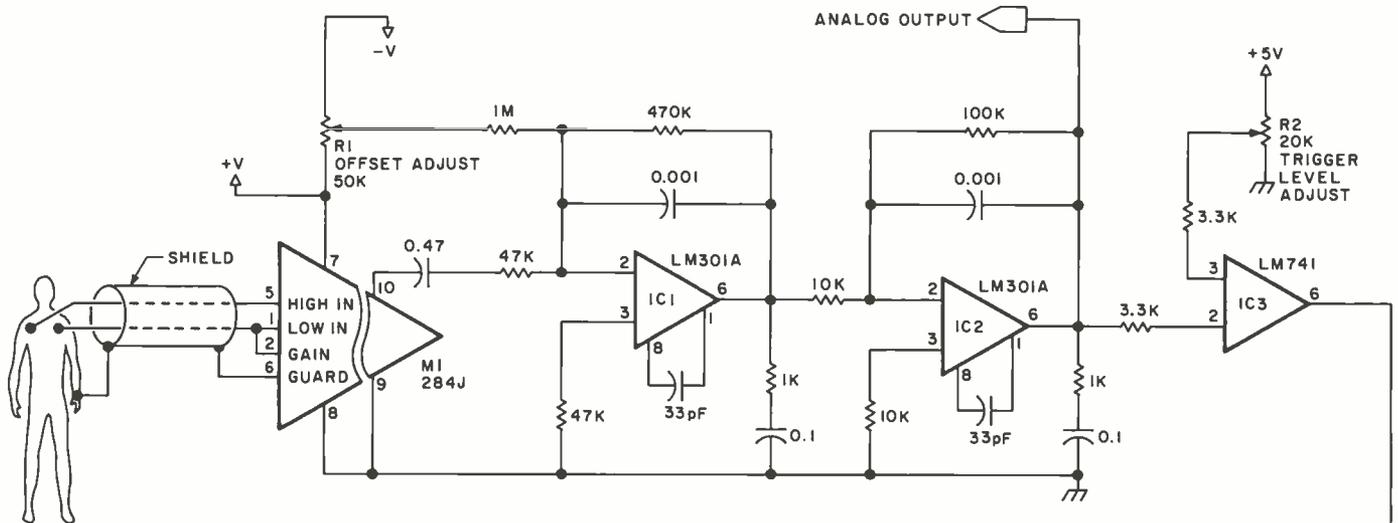
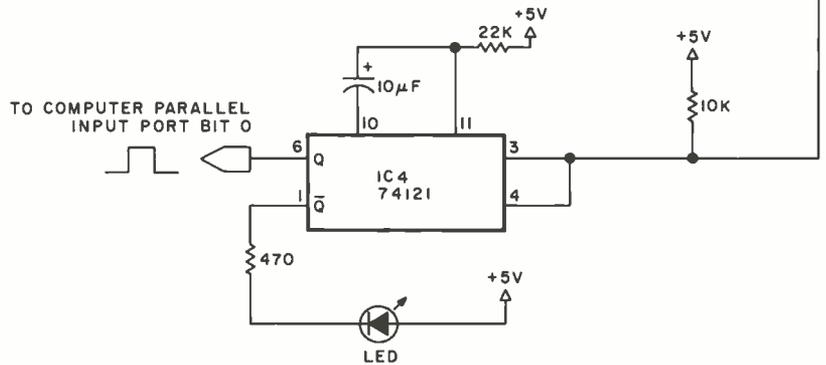


Figure 2: Schematic diagram of biofeedback monitor. IC4 is a type 284J isolation amplifier costing \$59 plus shipping from Analog Devices, Rte 1 Industrial Park, POB 280, Norwood MA 02062. +V is anywhere from 9 to 15 V and -V is from -9 to -15 V. All capacitors are 100 V ceramic unless otherwise noted. All circuitry should be mounted on a ground plane to reduce AC pickup. Connecting wires should be as short as possible. The electrode cable must be shielded to obtain proper operation.



on IC2 to 1 MΩ will increase it another order of magnitude to 10,000. Be aware that raising the amplification also raises the noise on the output. Capacitors in the feedback loops are used in an attempt to keep this noise to a minimum. The amplified analog signal is available at pin 6 of IC2. It can be attached to an oscilloscope if you care to watch yourself in action.

IC3 and IC4 are the interface to the computer. IC3 is a comparator with normally high output. When the signal level from IC2 exceeds the trigger voltage set on R2, IC3 pin 6 goes low, firing the one shot IC4. This signal is in turn connected to a parallel input bit of the computer. Offset potentiometer R1 is adjusted to give 0 V on IC2 pin 6 when M1 is removed and M1 pin 10 is grounded.

Using the Muscle Monitor

Monitoring muscle voltages is much easier than monitoring brain waves. To adequately accomplish the latter, sharp band-pass filters which can separate brain waves from other signal sources must be added to

Number	Type	+5 V	GND	+V	-V
IC1	LM301A	-	-	7	4
IC2	LM301A	-	-	7	4
IC3	LM741	7	4	-	-
IC4	74121	14	7	-	-

Table 2: Power pin connections for figure 2 schematic.

figure 1. As it stands, it cannot differentiate between alpha or theta waves and is optimized for muscle pickup.

To sense the electrical activity of a muscle such as the biceps, three electrodes are necessary. It is not enough to merely wrap three wires around your arm. Special electrodes such as the type shown in photo 4 are necessary. These are referred to as pre-gelled silver-silver chloride disposable electrodes and they are available through medical supply outlets. The electrodes (shown in photo 5) have a spongy center section saturated with a gel to reduce skin contact resistance. The best results will be obtained by using these or similar attachments.

In the case of the forearm muscles, the

Text continued on page 56

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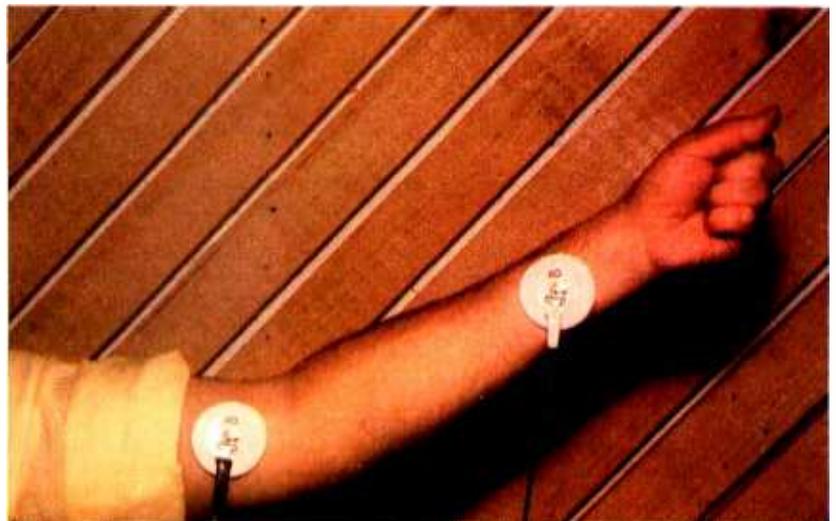


Photo 5: The electrode has a saturated spongy center which serves to reduce skin contact resistance. It is necessary to use this type of connection to the body if satisfactory results are to be obtained.

Text continued from page 53:

high electrode (shown in photo 6) is placed on the wrist, the low electrode on the upper arm, and the guard on my chest, close to the shoulder. When the muscles of that arm are flexed, a large pulse will appear at the analog output terminal of the interface. It is best seen with an oscilloscope. Every movement produces some noticeable deviation in the trace. If the trigger adjustment R2 is set above the ambient noise at the peak of this large pulse, it will fire the one shot every time the muscle is flexed. Actually, adjustment can be much finer. With the electrodes placed as in figure 1 (the guard is on my chest again), they can pick up something as insignificant as moving your eyebrows or gritting your teeth. The setting is made higher than the level produced when talking or breathing, so that it can

Photo 6: To monitor the electrical activity of the muscles in the arm, electrodes should be placed as shown.



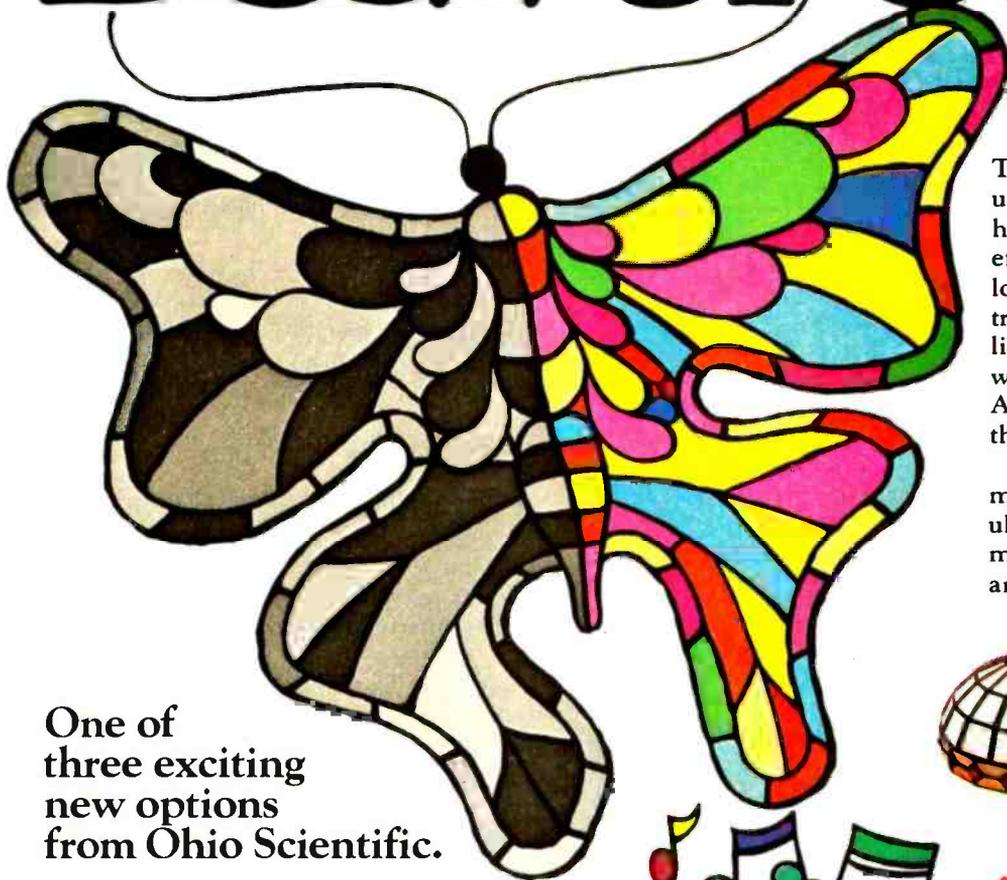
be used as a suitable control input to the computer.

Biofeedback Computer Control

Control is the name of the game. Consider someone who is almost totally paralyzed. This system could be used (perhaps by sensing eyebrow movement) as an on/off switch to a more sophisticated controller. I've seen one computer aid for the handicapped which consisted of an alphanumeric sequencing display. Letters could be individually chosen and eventually combined to produce whole written messages. A lot can be accomplished with a single bit of input if the software is written with time as a pertinent consideration. A single switch could signify a particular choice if each was presented in sequence with time allotted to answer. That is the premise of the BASIC program in listing 1.

This is a simple program written in Micro Com 8 K Zapple BASIC. It presents the operator with a series of seven choices, and branches to special subroutines as a result of these choices. It presumes that the user can see and signify positive response by a high logic level on bit 0 of input port 3. This bit is tied to the output of our eyebrow twitch monitor. Output port 17 has seven lights attached to bits 1 through 7 (bit 0 not used). The program lights the first light, and the user decides whether or not the computer should perform the activity signified by bit 1. If so, the user merely furrows his or her brow and the program jumps to the designated activity. In this simple illustration, I merely flash the light a few times to indicate which was chosen. Should the operator not care for the first choice, the program sequences to the next choice, and so on. Before hook-

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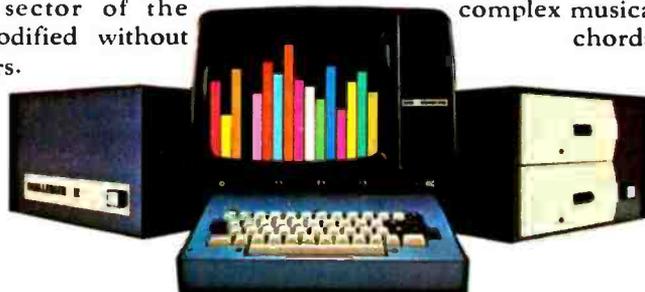
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100 REM This program demonstrates how the computer can be
110 REM used to provide control output from an EMG digital input
120 REM EMG input is on port 3, bit 0. No stimulus is logic 0
130 REM while muscle activity is signified by logic 1.
140 REM Test apparatus uses 7 lights attached to bits 1 thru 7 of
150 REM output port 17. The computer sequences thru the lights until the
160 REM operator signifies a choice by --'THINKING'-- about it !!!
170 REM
180 REM Copyright 1979 STEVE CIARCIA
190 REM
200 REM
210 FOR D=0 TO 300 :NEXT D
220 REM
230 REM This routine sequentially flashes bits 1 through 7 of port 17
240 REM It only exits when an input flash has been set by the EMG monitor
250 B=1
260 X=2^B :OUT 17,X
270 GOSUB 440
280 IF F=1 THEN OUT 17,1 :GOTO 320
290 B=B+1 :IF B>7 THEN GOTO 210
300 GOTO 260
310 REM
320 IF B=1 THEN GOSUB 670 :GOTO 570
330 IF B=2 THEN GOSUB 670 :GOTO 580
340 IF B=3 THEN GOSUB 670 :GOTO 590
350 IF B=4 THEN GOSUB 670 :GOTO 600
360 IF B=5 THEN GOSUB 670 :GOTO 610
370 IF B=6 THEN GOSUB 670 :GOTO 620
380 IF B=7 THEN GOSUB 670 :GOTO 630
390 IF B>7 THEN STOP
400 REM
410 REM
420 REM This routine reads the EMG monitor on port 3 bit 0
430 REM If signal is present it sets flag F=1
440 A=0 :F=0
450 I=INP(3)-254
460 IF I>0 THEN 490
470 A=A+1 :IF A>200 THEN RETURN :REM give operator time to respond
480 GOTO 450
490 F=1
500 Q=INP(3)
510 IF Q>254 THEN 500
520 RETURN
530 REM
540 REM
550 REM These 7 routines can be replaced with outputs to
560 REM individual control programs.
570 PRINT "b=1":GOTO 210
580 PRINT "b=2":GOTO 210
590 PRINT "b=3":GOTO 210
600 PRINT "b=4":GOTO 210
610 PRINT "b=5":GOTO 210
620 PRINT "b=6":GOTO 210
630 PRINT "b=7":GOTO 210
640 REM
650 REM
660 REM This routine flashes individual light to indicate selection
670 FOR T=0 TO 10
680 OUT 17,X
690 FOR T1=0 TO 50 :NEXT T1
700 OUT 17,0 :
710 FOR T1=0 TO 50 :NEXT T1
720 NEXT T
730 RETURN

```

Listing 1: BASIC program to sense input from the biofeedback monitor. This program scans the cursor through several choices and waits a short period of time. If the user squints or blinks within the allotted period, that choice is designated. If it is not designated, it cycles to the next choice. This particular program just blinks the chosen objective to indicate that the interface is working. The required body connections for picking up eyebrow movement are shown in photo 1.

up, the program can be easily tested with the muscle monitor by temporarily attaching a normally closed, pushbutton switch on port 3 bit 0.

Conclusion

All of this effort for a single bit of data acquisition may appear unjustified, but it can prove to be exceedingly significant in situations where no other means of computer interaction is available. At the least, the interface should provide a substantial base for biofeedback experiments. With additional amplification and filtering to monitor brain waves, a whole series of challenging experiments come to mind. Personal computing need not be relegated to the level of canned amusements and commercial presentations. A refinement of this interface could be the one critical design feature which would open the field of personal computing to individuals who are otherwise physically unable to take advantage of it.

If you have any questions on this or any other "Ciarcia's Circuit Cellar" article, or just a good idea, please don't hesitate to write. While it may take some time, I do eventually answer all inquiries. Please enclose a self-addressed stamped envelope. Next month the "Circuit Cellar" topic will be sound generators. ■

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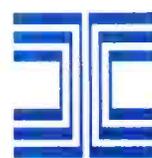
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Circle 182 on inquiry card.

The sales literature for the Apple II lists the specifications for the high resolution color graphics mode this way:

- 280 horizontal by 192 vertical resolution.
- Four colors: black, white, violet, and green.
- Displays 8 K bytes.

The specifications don't sound all that exciting. The resolution seems about right, but why are there so few colors? And why did they pick green and violet instead of, say, red and blue? Well, as it happens, the colors in the Apple II high resolution graphics can be red and green, or blue and yellow, or almost any two complementary colors you want. What's more, on many color television sets you can obtain as many as four colors along with black and white, as demonstrated by the accompanying photograph.

More Colors for Your Apple

Allen Watson III
430 Lakeview Way
Redwood City CA 94062

The classic approach to computer generated color is to generate separate signals for the red, green, and blue inputs of a color monitor. However, color monitors are expensive; it's more economical to use an ordinary color television set. Now instead of generating three simultaneous video signals, we have to generate a composite signal that resembles the standard broadcast signal the television set was designed to receive.

It's not merely that the signal has to be put onto a regular television channel by means of a radio frequency modulator; although that's certainly necessary, there's a lot more to it. Since all the fascinating features of the Apple II high resolution color graphics are the results of the way the Apple II designers solved this problem, let's take a look at just what they did.

The Color Signal

The standards for broadcast color television signals were established by NTSC (National Television Systems Committee) and approved by the Federal Communications Commission in 1953. In order to retain the existing system of black and white television broadcasting, the committee sys-

tem adds color information to a signal which is practically identical to the black and white standard. The resulting composite signal includes a black and white component that amplitude modulates the television carrier frequency in the usual way, and a color component which rides on a 3.58 MHz subcarrier.

This superposition of color and black and white information is necessary in order to crowd a full color video signal into a channel whose high frequency response is limited to just over 4 MHz. The fact that human vision does not resolve image details in color allows us to limit the resolution of the color component of the signal to a maximum of 1.5 MHz. In fact, only part of the color signal gets even this much; the rest is limited to 0.5 MHz.

This narrow band color signal modulates a 3.58 MHz subcarrier which is then added to the black and white picture information. The color subcarrier modulation is a combination of amplitude and phase modulation: the amplitude of the subcarrier corresponds to the amount of color at each point on the screen, while the choice of color is determined by the phase of the color frequency relative to a 3.58 MHz reference signal. This reference signal is generated in the television set from a burst of 3.58 MHz transmitted in the interval between the lines of the picture.

A high subcarrier frequency reduces interference between the color and black and white components because the black and white signal contains less energy at high frequencies. Interference is further reduced by the fact that the subcarrier frequency is an odd multiple of half the picture scanning rates, both horizontal and vertical. This makes any color signal that gets into the black and white video reverse polarity on successive lines; the interference makes little dots in the picture, but the dots on one line will have "undots" above and below. These will tend to average out when viewed from a reasonable distance.

This is where the signal generated by the Apple II deviates radically from the standard signal. First of all, the Apple II signal omits a technique called interlacing, thus reducing the number of horizontal scanning lines by half and likewise the amount of information needed to fill the screen. Noninterlacing is common among low cost computer video displays. The significant deviation from the standard, however, is a slight change in the horizontal and vertical scanning rates such that the interference between the color and the black and white components is maximized, rather than minimized. This is not as strange as it sounds, because this is what en-

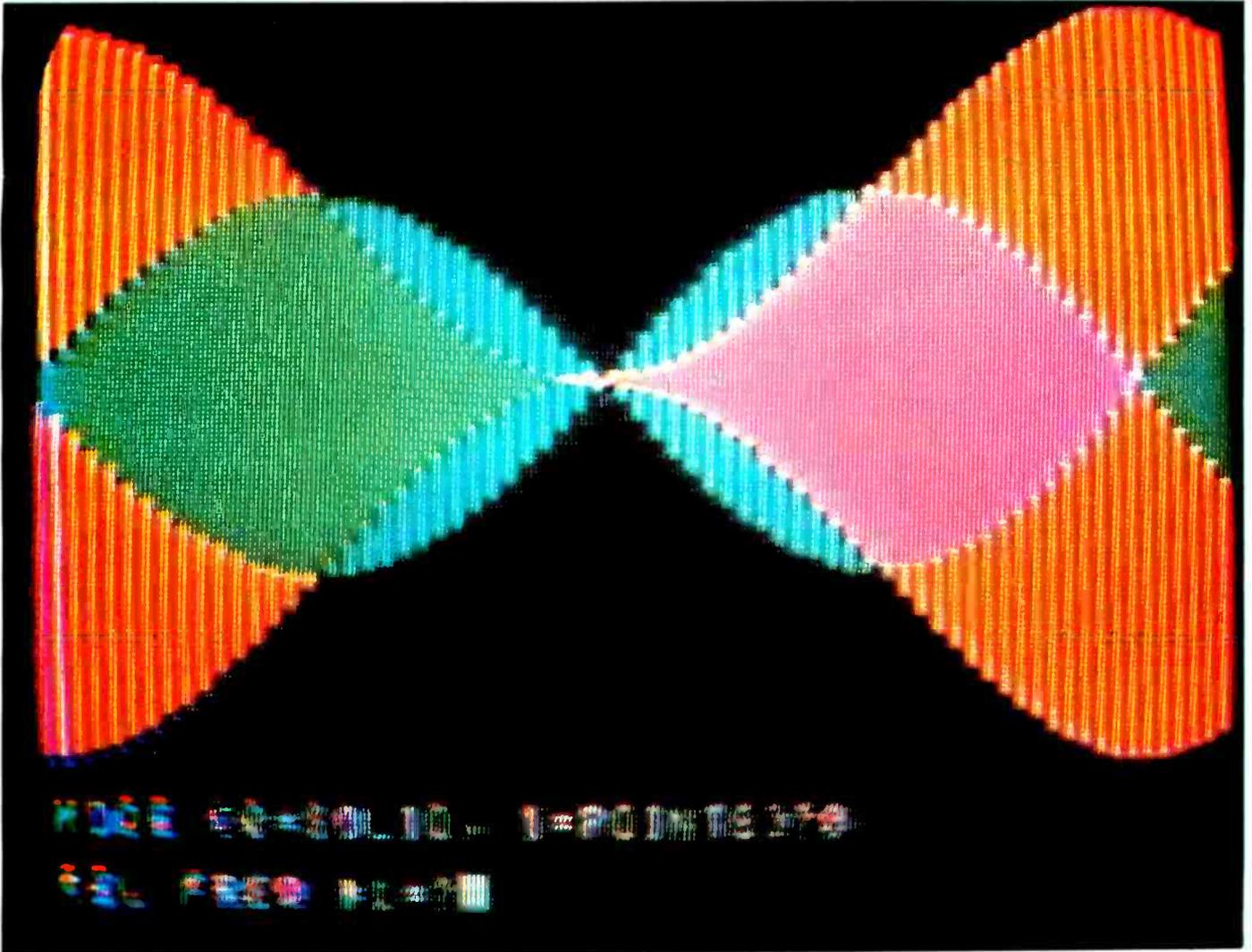


Photo 1: Apple II display showing four colors in high resolution mode.

ables the Apple II to generate color graphics with a signal made up only of ones and zeroes.

An Example

To see what this does to our display, suppose we try to display two small white dots side by side. The smaller the dots and the closer they are to each other, the higher the highest frequency picture signal going into the television set. But everything the Apple II puts out at the high end of the frequency range gets decoded as color, so that, even before our dots are made too small and too close together for a black and white set to be able to distinguish, something else has happened: they have merged into a single dot, and it isn't white, but color.

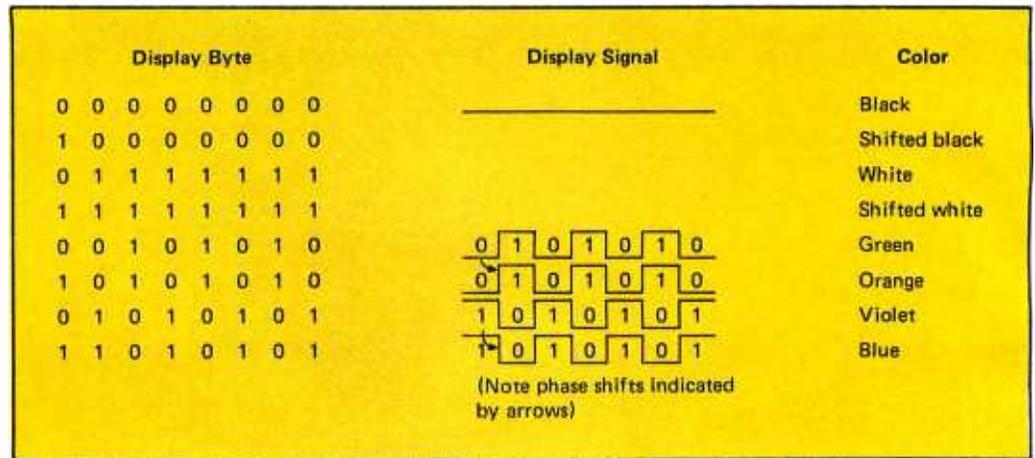
In other words, the resolution we can get using this method is somewhat limited compared with the separate red, green, blue approach, although it is produced with correspondingly less screen memory (ie: 8 K bytes

compared with 24 K bytes). But even if the color interference were minimized, the television set's receiving circuits limit the horizontal resolution to about 300. Incidentally, this is why the Apple II displays only 40 characters in each line of text; the more popular 64 or 80 characters cannot be resolved by a standard color television.

Bits and Resolution

As we have seen, the Apple II produces color by simply putting its smallest dots at the right size and spacing: namely, the color subcarrier frequency. Each dot is really a half cycle, so the dot rate is twice the subcarrier frequency, or something over 7 MHz. Let's see how many of these dots will fit on one horizontal line. There is one horizontal scan every 63.5 μ s, but part of this time is needed to get the electron beam into position to start the next line, and to keep the lines in synchronization. The picture signal is shut off, or blanked, during this time. That leaves about 45 μ s, but just to play it

Figure 1: Colors produced by various bit patterns in relation to the color reference signal.



safe and to make sure that none of our valuable data gets cut off by the television set's normal overscan (the picture is set up to be bigger than the actual screen so there won't be any unsightly black borders), Apple II uses only about 40 μ s of each line for data. This works out to 280 dots per line. In text mode, with 40 characters per line, this gives a character time of about 1 μ s, which corresponds to the Apple II's system clock. Each character takes seven dot times, five for the character and two for spacing between characters.

The question is, exactly what does horizontal resolution of 280 refer to? Well, we can put a single dot at any of 280 different positions across the screen, but our dot will be colored, since it is a half cycle at the color subcarrier frequency. And if we put two dots too close together, they merge. Obviously, if the two dots are actually touching, no set could resolve them — this is really a single spot which happens to be two dots wide. But even if we put a black dot in between, we'll see only one dot, in color, because the dot spacing matches the color subcarrier frequency. Only by putting two or more black dots between our white dots will we be able to see a clear separation.

These relationships are diagrammed in figure 1. The color reference signal is shown at the top. Any signal component at this frequency, even a single dot, will be displayed as colored. Theoretically, a double width dot contains no color frequency component, and hence will be displayed as white.

Apple II High Resolution Colors

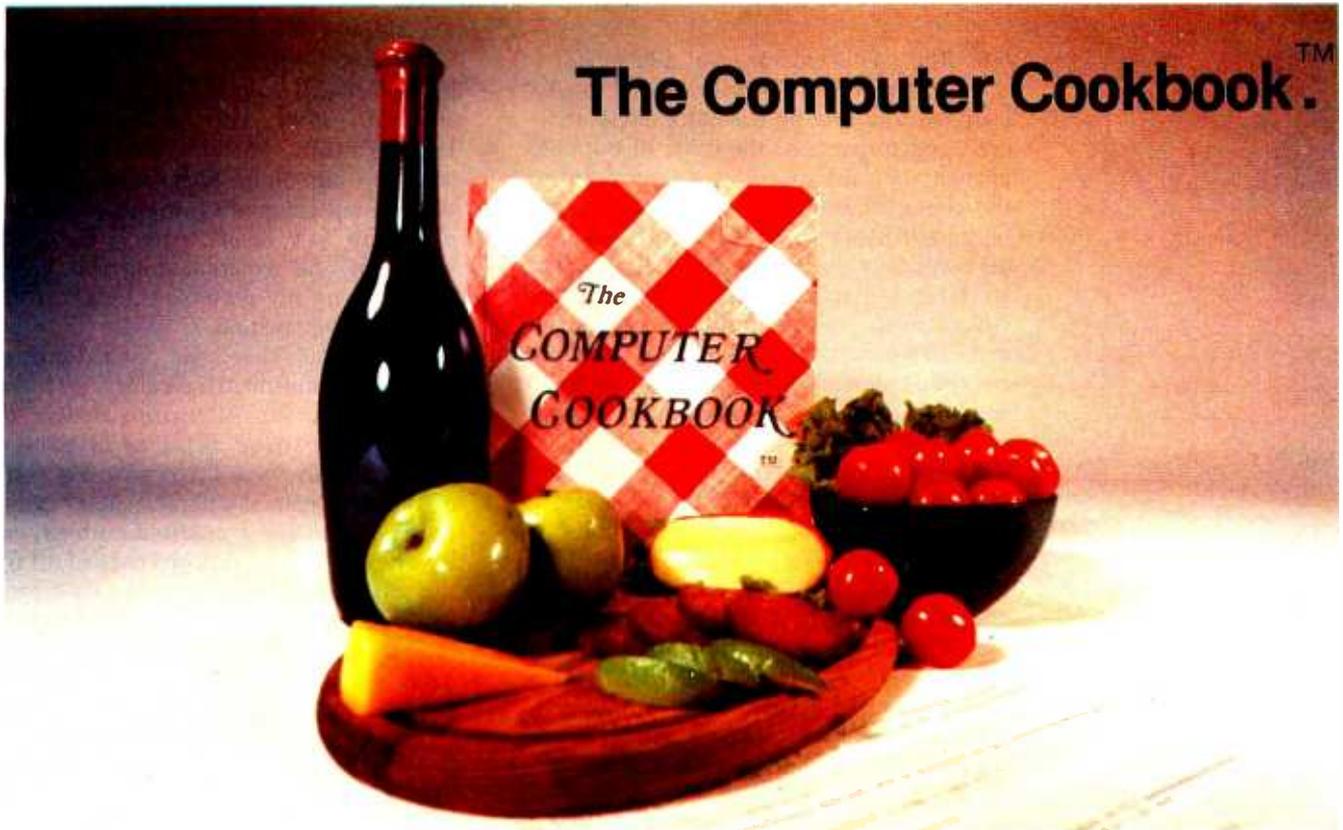
Now we can see how the trade-off between color and resolution affects the way our computer bits are displayed by the television set. But let's look on the bright side: with the right bit patterns, we can put colors onto the screen. Let's ignore the resolution

problem for a while and investigate the colors.

If we fill the screen memory with ones, the display will be all white; all zeroes paints it black. If we alternate ones and zeroes horizontally, we have a signal which is right at the color frequency, so it is displayed as a solid color. Now comes the interesting part — what color is it? As I mentioned earlier, the color is determined by the phase of the picture signal's color frequency component relative to the color reference signal, which is generated by the television set from the 3.58 MHz color burst which we transmit during the horizontal blanking interval. So our question becomes, "How can we control the relative phase of these two signals?"

First of all, our computer bits are output every half cycle of the color reference frequency. This means we can change the phase by 180 degrees by simply inverting the bit pattern so that alternating ones and zeroes become alternating zeroes and ones. Interestingly enough, since the color spectrum is allocated the 360 degrees of possible phase angles that we can have, complementing the bits also complements the color; that is, phase inversion amounts to 180 degrees of phase shift, and complementary colors are 180 degrees apart. The relation of color to phase angle is shown in figure 2. If the alternating bits are in phase with the color reference signal, the color will be yellow-green; out of phase bits will give us blue-violet. This determines the two colors Apple II specifies in addition to black and white. But there is another way to change the relative phase of our computer bits.

While we can't do this under computer control, we can manually adjust both the Apple II video circuit and the color television set so as to change the phase of the color reference signal itself. The Apple II control is labeled *color trim*; the television set's control for this is usually called *tint* or



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hue. The combined range of adjustment of these two controls is usually enough to go at least halfway around the color circle of figure 2, putting one or the other of our complementary pairs of colors at any point on the circle. Thus we can adjust for any pair of complementary colors we want: blue and yellow, green-blue and orange, cyan and red, green and magenta, or yellow-green and violet. So long as we don't require the ultimate in horizontal resolution, we can have any two complementary colors plus black and white for our high resolution graphics using only ones and zeroes as data. If the colors listed above and in figure 2 don't seem exactly complementary, it's largely because of the broad range of hues to which we carelessly apply the name *blue*. If we let the television picture-tube phosphors define our red, green, and blue, then the complementary colors are those of figure 2. The television set is adjusted such that red + green + blue = white. Since complementary pairs also add together to give white, it follows that the sum of any two of the three primaries gives the complement of the third: for example, the complement of red is actually green + blue, or cyan.

Extra Colors

Studying the Apple II specifications in the light of the National Television Systems

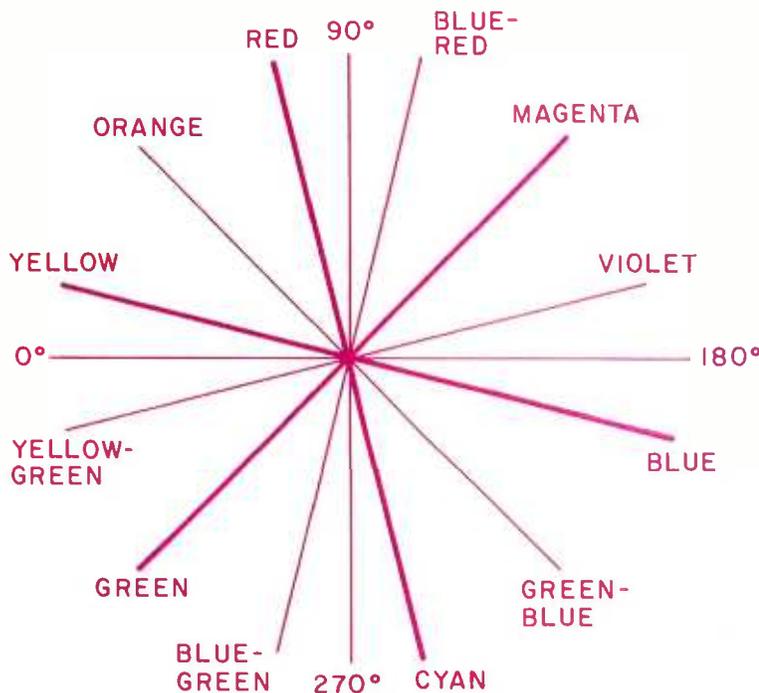


Figure 2: Arrangement of possible colors versus signal phase. The Apple II high resolution graphics outputs two complementary colors (colors that are separated by 180 degrees on the circle).

Committee color standards led me to expect it to work this way, but that isn't quite the end of the story. After I got my Apple II, as I was casually watching the random sine wave program on the high resolution demonstration tape, there in living color was a display with *four* colors. After a bit of head scratching and experimenting with the adjustments on my portable color set, I think I have the explanation.

First of all, the single dot patterns give the two complementary colors, just like it says in the script. Alternating double dots, which ought to be displayed as black and white, actually show up as a weaker version of the same pair of complementary colors if the television set is adjusted normally, that is, with the fine tuning just backed off from the setting that first produces sound bars in the picture. But if I back the fine tuning farther away from this setting (any automatic fine tuning or tint controls should be switched off), just before the color signal drops out, the weak colors on the double dot patterns brighten and shift to another pair of complementary colors. The exact colors depend upon the setting of the tint control, but they are more than 30 degrees from the first pair, so if the single dot patterns give red and green, for example, the double dot patterns appear as orange and blue.

It's hard to figure out how the double dot patterns get displayed in color since they are square waves at half the color frequency and ought to contain a zero component at 3.58 MHz. Apparently the video detector circuit in the set produces enough second harmonic distortion to activate the color circuits. Mistuning puts this signal near the cutoff of the color bandpass filter where there is maximum phase distortion. I tried this out on the more expensive television set at the store where I bought my Apple II, and although it's more difficult to get the adjustments just right, the extra colors are there. Ironically enough, this trick seems to work better on cheap sets.

So there you have it. Whether you prefer colors or resolution, the Apple II high resolution graphics will put out all you can get through the antenna terminals of a color television set with just different patterns of ones and zeroes. To find out what your set will do, you need to display vertical lines with the single dot and double dot patterns. An easy way to do this is to load the Apple II high resolution demonstration tape and select the program that sums two sine waves. When the program asks for two frequencies, enter 63 and 64 to get the pattern shown in photo 1. Other numbers you may want to try are combinations of 31, 32, 33, 63, 64,

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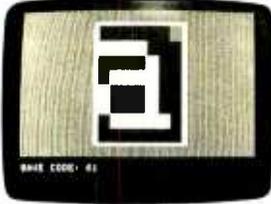
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65, and 95. Apparently there is a lot of sampling error when the frequencies you select don't fit the table the program uses to generate the sine waves. If you experiment until you find the limits of your particular television set, you'll know how to make high resolution pictures on your Apple II in just about any colors you want.

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Addendum

The following comments were received from Steve Wozniak of Apple Computers:

Thank you for passing along Allen Watson's article on the Apple II high resolution colors.

As Allen discussed, Apple II high resolution colors are the result of alternating zeroes and ones on the screen. The exact colors generated depend on the phase (or timing) relationship between the display signal and the color reference phase. By adjusting the television controls, any desired color pair may be displayed.

Oddly enough, only the seven least significant bits of the Apple II high resolution refresh memory bytes are used (examples are shown in figure 1). A simple modification allows the high order bit of each to specify one of two color sets by generating a 90 degree phase shift of displayed information. (Yet more colors may now be obtained by applying the technique suggested by Allen.)

Adding the High Order Bit Modification to the Apple II

1. Remove the Apple II printed circuit board from its enclosure.

- (a) Remove the ten screws securing the plastic top piece to the metal bottom plate. Six of these are flat head screws around the perimeter of the bottom plate and four are round head screws located at the front lip of the computer. All are removed with a Phillips head screwdriver. Do not remove the screws securing the power supply or nylon insulating standoffs.

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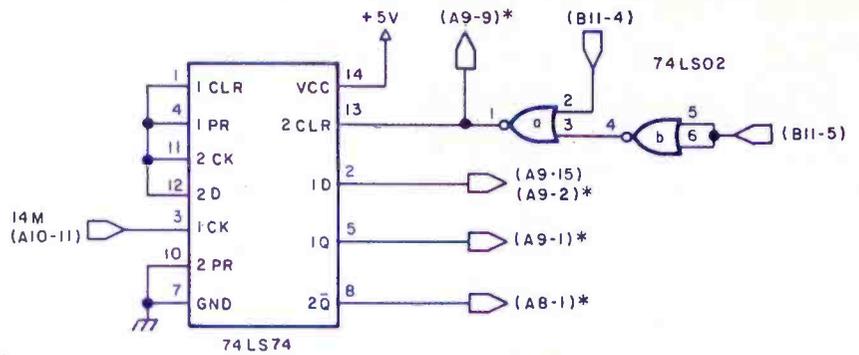


Figure 3: Circuit which must be added to the Apple II to add more colors to the high resolution display. (Caution: Adding this circuit voids the warranty.) A starred assignment (*) indicates that the connection is made to a pin which is out of its normal socket. Besides the connections which are shown, also connect pin (B8-14) to (A8-6) which is out of its socket, and (B8-7) to (A8-13) which has also been removed from its socket. The power connections to the 74LS02 are +5 V to pin 14 and ground connected to pin 7.

- (c) Disconnect the power supply from the printed circuit board.
- (d) Remove the #8 nut and lockwasher securing the center of the printed circuit board. These will not be found on the earlier Apple II computers.
- (e) Carefully disengage each of six nylon insulating standoffs from the printed circuit board (seven on earlier versions).
- (f) Lift the printed circuit board from the bottom plate.

2. Above the board wiring method.

- (a) Lift the following IC (integrated circuit) pins from their sockets.

IC	Pin Number
A8	1
A8	6
A8	13
A9	1
A9	2
A9	9

- (b) Mount a 74LS74 (dual C-D flip-flop) and a 74LS02 (quad NOR gate) in the Apple II breadboard area (A11 to A14 region).
- (c) Wire the circuit in figure 3.

3. Below the board wiring method.

- (a) Desolder all pins of socket A8. Lift the socket and its 74LS257 integrated circuit off the printed circuit board taking care not to destroy it. Cut the trace between pins 6 and 13 of A8 on the top side of the board. Also cut the trace between pins 13 and 15 on the top. Reinsert socket A8 and the 74LS257. *Be careful.*
- (b) Cut traces going to the following pins on the bottom of the Apple II board. Each

pin should have a single trace going to it. *Be careful.*

IC	Pin Number	IC	Pin Number
A8	1	A9	1
A8	6	A9	2
A8	13	A9	9

- (c) Connect pin 15 of ICA8 to ground (pin 8 of ICA7 on the keyboard socket is a nearby ground).
- (d) Mount the 74LS74 and 74LS02 as per step (b) of the above the board wiring method.
- (e) Wire the circuit of the above the board wiring method, step (c). All wires are on the bottom of the Apple II board and no pins need be removed from their sockets or soldered to.

4. Reassemble the Apple II and make sure it is operational. If not, check all wiring very carefully. Make sure that all integrated circuits are in their sockets and properly oriented.

5. The following color values are now applicable to the high resolution subroutines:

BLACK2	128
ORANGE	170
BLUE	213
WHITE2	255

For example, the program below draws an orange line from location (10, 20) to (200, 140). It is assumed that the high resolution routines are already in memory locations hexadecimal 800 thru BFF.

```

0 X0 = Y0 = COLR
5 INIT = 2048 : PLOT = 2830 : LINE = 2836
7 ORANGE = 170 : CALL INIT
10 X0 = 10 : Y0 = 20 : COLR = ORANGE :
CALL PLOT
20 X0 = 200 : Y0 = 140 : CALL LINE
30 END ■

```

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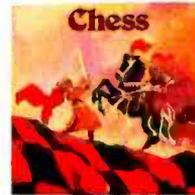
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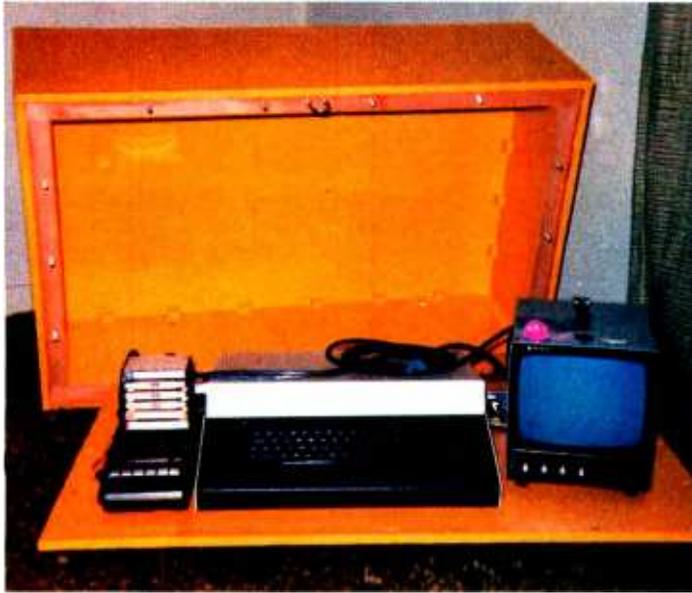


Photo 1: The author's homemade computer system cabinet with top removed.

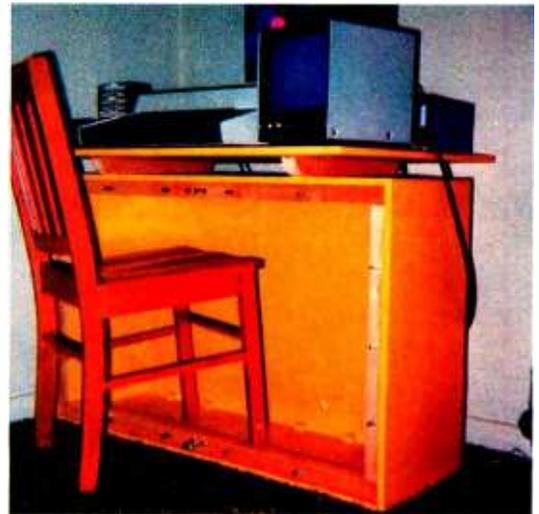


Photo 2: The system as it appears when converted into a desk. Note that the floor of the cabinet becomes a desk top displaying the entire system ready to plug in and run.

A Home for Your Computer

Joseph Dawes
 2510 Broadway
 Big Spring TX 79720

If you're good at woodworking, here's a project that will save you a lot of time and trouble: build a cabinet for your computer! A carefully planned cabinet, as any ham or hi fi buff knows, serves to increase the utility and enjoyability of the equipment inside it.

I started planning my computer system cabinet as soon as I scattered my components around the cabinet I had made for my amateur radio gear. First of all, the cassette unit had to be fastened down: I quickly tired of holding it in place with one hand while unplugging something or changing a cassette. The power supply was constantly running warm and I knew it should be on stilts to increase heat loss. My separate video monitor could have ended up either beside the processor-keyboard cabinet or on top of it, but I quickly decided to reserve the top of the processor cabinet for a desk. The monitor would be beside the processor but angled toward the operating position for improved visibility. The keyboard had to be at a comfortable typing height, somewhere from 28 to 30 inches from the floor.

With these parameters in mind, I had to decide on cabinet style. The styles that first came to mind were the living room furniture piece with finely grained wood and the hobby room piece with modest wood grain or painted wood. However, circumstances led me to develop a somewhat different

cabinet style. I hope my final design will prompt readers to forge ahead with their own cabinet ideas.

The need to transport the system outside my home, combined with my dislike for connecting and disconnecting wires, dictated the cabinet design shown in figure 1 and photos 1 through 3. If I wanted to demonstrate it at the school where I teach or elsewhere, it would have to be operable as soon as it was opened and plugged in. Nothing kills interest more than 30 minutes of wire fiddling.

The cabinet shown is sturdy enough to take some licks in a truck or car. While it is closed and bolted, a bicycle chain can be run through the two U-bolts and around the nearest oak tree, making it very inconvenient to move or to open without some commotion. When the lid is taken off the equipment base, it can be turned up on one side to become a pedestal upon which the equipment base can be set. The whole affair is quite stable when set upon a reasonably level surface, and the lid interior provides knee room and space for keeping notebooks and demolished programs. When closed it can be sat upon, and, although there's absolutely no way to lug it around in a VW beetle, it will fit in the back (not the trunk) of my 2 door Falcon with a little imaginative stevedoring. In short it does what I require very nicely, and if I had to

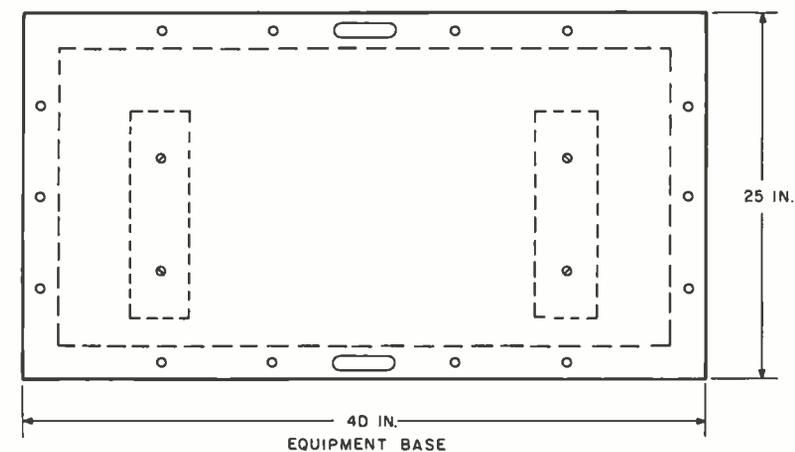
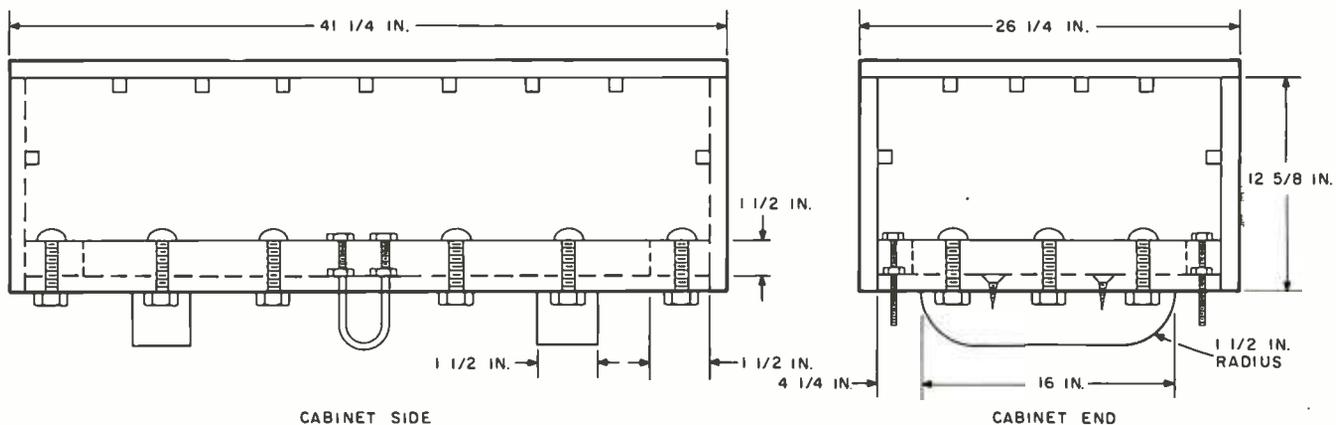


Figure 1: Plans for building the author's computer system cabinet. The unit is built from 5/8 inch plywood and features two U-bolts for adding an antitheft chain. All components are mounted on the floor of the cabinet. See accompanying photos.



build it over again I can think of very little I would change. After I painted the inside of the lid, it looked fine in a corner of the living room. What more could one ask?

Some comments on construction details might be helpful. The size of the equipment base is dictated strictly by the dimensions of the equipment to be placed on it. The width of the base, however, should not be much wider than 25 inches or the work surface will be too high for operating comfort when the cabinet is open (unless you like to stand while you work). Note that all equipment must fit within the dotted line perimeter shown in the equipment base drawing. Otherwise, equipment may get damaged by the bolt rails! I cut the plywood pieces for the lid with a smooth cutting plywood blade in my table saw and took great care to make cuts exactly to dimension, because the whole lid was assembled by gluing the side pieces to the top. The small gluing blocks are tack-nailed in place while the glue dries. These blocks are for structural reinforcement and *do not* hold the lid together while the glue sets. Bar or pipe clamps must be used to provide the necessary pressure. A cabinet-

making friend or a school shop might be a good source for these if you have none. The only permanent metal fasteners used are the two screws through the base into each runner, and they serve primarily as gluing clamps as well.

The bolt rails are glued around the inside edge of the lid (Be certain to recess them a

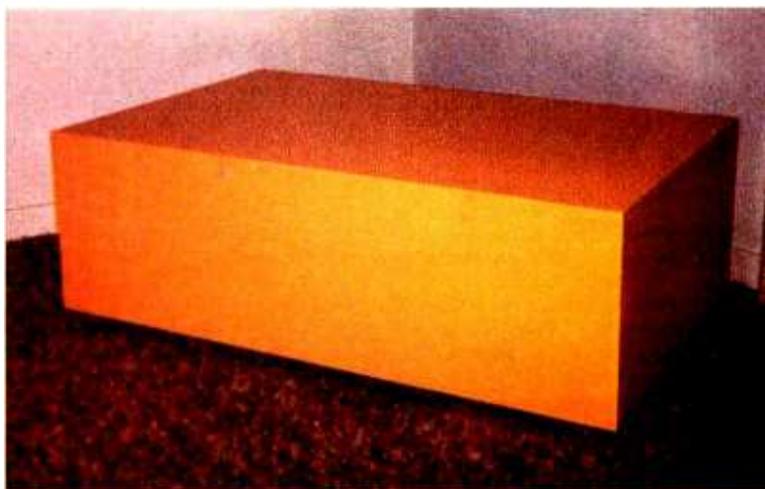


Photo 3: The cabinet locked up and ready for transport.

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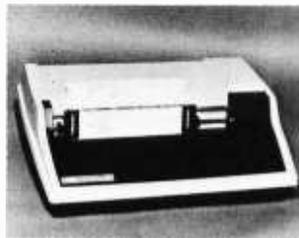
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distance equal to the thickness of the equipment base as the drawing shows!). Holes are drilled through these rails to take carriage bolts. Be sure to use carriage bolts because they have a square section beneath the round head which will set into the wood when pulled up tight and will not require further fastening to the bolt rails.

Trim the equipment base so it fits easily inside the lid, and drill the holes through which the carriage bolts will pass 1/16 or 1/8 inch larger in diameter than the bolts to save trouble when you first try to set the lid down over the base. Cut out the slot through which the U-bolts will pass with a jigsaw or coping saw, and provide a little extra play here too. The position of the runners should not vary much from that shown, but before you decide exactly where they will be, set your components on the equipment base and note where holes will be drilled to fasten the components to the base. Wouldn't it be a shame for one of the equipment mounting screws to have to come up from the underside right where a runner was located? I was lucky! I didn't even think about this hazard until it was too late to do anything about it, but luckily everything cleared.

You will note that edges of plywood tend to have unsightly gaps, and the surface will have dents and dings. Before sanding the wood preparatory to painting, take a putty knife and some patching paste and fill these defects thoroughly. It's easy to do and makes all the difference in the finished job. When you sand, these fillings will level off, corners and edges will get smoothed and slightly rounded, and you'll get a smoothly painted surface. I avoid painting whenever I can, but when painting raw plywood I have to admit that the final results are well worth the trouble of first putting on a primer coat and then a finish coat with a light sanding between coats. The only thing worse than painting once is painting twice, but when it's all over you have a surface you don't mind showing off.

As a finishing touch, some acorn nuts look good on the ends of the carriage bolts since they protrude toward the operator when the cabinet is set up.

For icing on the cake how would you like to hear that this whole project can be cut out of one sheet of plywood? Tough luck! Unless someone out there pulls a topological trick or is the owner of a more compact system than mine, you'll need a whole sheet and a scrap from the lumber company's cutoff pile for one of the ends. Sorry about that, but everything doesn't always work out for the best.

Happy woodworking! ■

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Talk to a Turtle

Build a Computer Controlled Robot

What do personal computer experimenters do with their microcomputers when computer games lose their appeal and they tire of programming things like, "140 FOR X = 1 to 500: PRINT X: NEXT X"? The exciting idea of adding a computer controlled robot suggests building your own R2-D2 robot from *Star Wars*. It might not be wise to start with a project as sophisticated as duplicating R2-D2, but there *is* a way

you can begin a robot project on a smaller scale. It works, too!

The Terrapin Turtle is a fascinating robot project that most experimenters can fully assemble in four hours. It runs forward, backward, turns left or right, blinks light emitting diode eyes, and can talk in a two tone beep. Its shell is mounted on a spindle that engages one of four microswitches. These relay a signal back to the computer

James A Gupton Jr
7416-G Pebblestone Dr
Charlotte NC 28212

ABOUT THE AUTHOR:

Mr James Gupton Jr has a most unusual background including photography, electro-optics research and development (which resulted in five patents on computer video display tubes and phosphor screens), along with teaching electronics. The Union County Career Center is the only high school in North Carolina to provide an electronics program which covers subjects from direct current to microprocessors. This program is under the guidance of Mr Gupton.



Photo 1: Jeffrey Dunn (foreground) and Richard Voss check off the Turtle components against the parts list.

over its 10 foot umbilical cord, indicating when the Turtle has run into something from either front, right, left, or rear side. If you direct the Turtle on an exploratory trip around the room, its journey can be recorded by your microcomputer. On completing its journey, the Turtle can actually draw a map of its path using an internal ball point pen.

The Terrapin Turtle illustrated in this article was assembled by high school students at the Union County Career Center in North Carolina. The total assembly time was four hours from start to initial test. This article is not intended for use as a construction project, but rather to introduce you to computer controlled robots.

Assembling the Terrapin Turtle

The cardinal rule for assembling any electronic kit is to begin by checking off each component on the parts list. Photo 1 shows Jeffrey Dunn and Richard Voss checking the components of the Turtle kit

Resistors

- 510 ohm ¼ W: R9, R10
- 100 ohm ¼ W: R21, R30
- 15 K ohm ¼ W: R5, R6, R7, R8, R29, R22
- 50 K ohm ¼ W: R19, R20
- 1 K ohm potentiometers: P1, P2, P3, P4
- 1 K ohm ¼ W: R1, R2, R3, R4, R11, R12, R13, R14, R15, R16, R17, R18, R23, R24, R25, R26, R27, R28

Capacitors

- C1 0.1 mF 35 V
- C2, C3 500 mF 35 V

Diodes

- 1N4000 D1, D2, D3, D4, D5, D6, D7, D8, D9
- 3.9 V zener D10

Transistors

- 2N2222 Q1, Q2, Q3, Q4, Q5, Q6, Q7
- GE-D40C4 Q8, Q9, Q10, Q11, Q12, Q13, Q14, Q15, Q19

Table 1: The Turtle component part list. The complete Turtle kit, including all hardware, printed circuits, electronic components is available from Terrapin Inc for \$300.

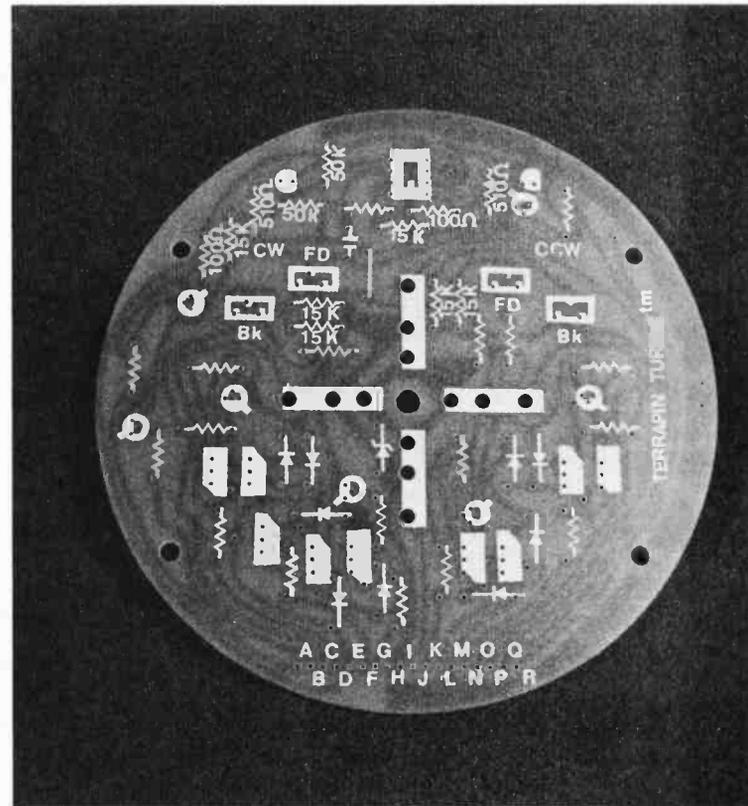
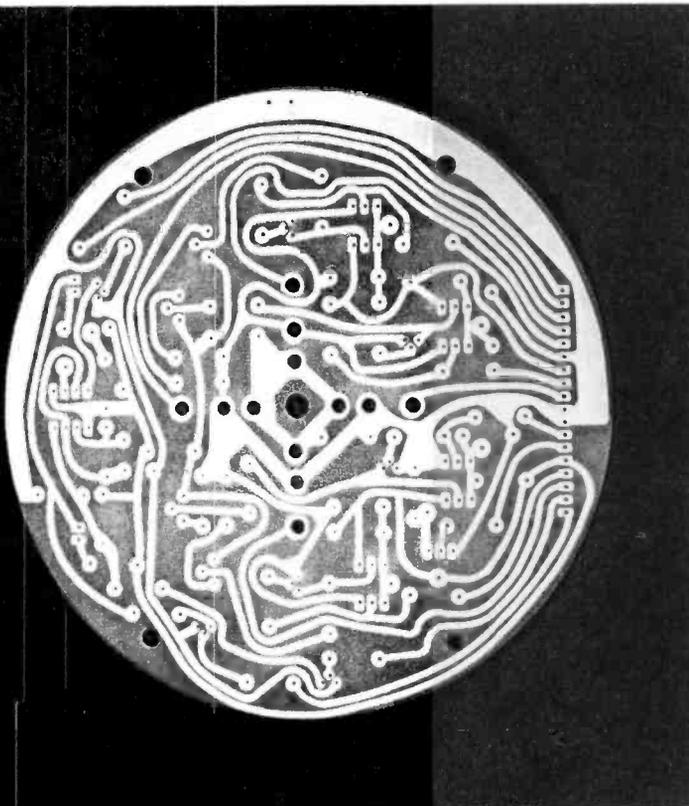


Photo 2: The foil side of the Turtle's printed circuit board.

Photo 3: The component side of the circuit board.

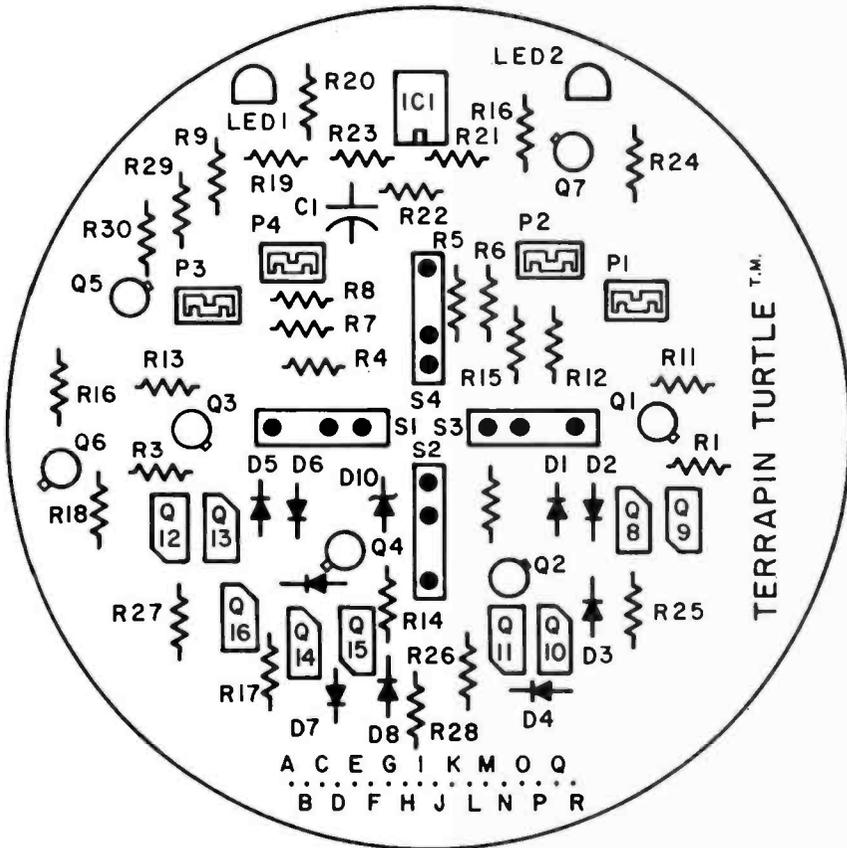


Figure 1: Supplemental diagram showing component identification numbers which relate to schematic locations.

against the parts list. Once assured that everything was included in the kit, the printed circuit board was examined for possible scratches. Photo 2 shows the etch side of the 5 inch diameter printed circuit board. Photo 3 shows the component side. It was quickly noted that not all resistor values were printed on the component side, and that there was no identifying resistor number to relate any resistor to the schematic. The instruction booklet stated that eighteen 1000 ohm resistors should be placed where the resistor symbols did not have a value indicated. Figure 1 is a supplemental instruction that identifies each component corresponding to the schematic diagram.

Richard Voss was in charge of assembling the printed circuit board for the Union County Career Center's Turtle. Photo 4 shows the soldering of the Darlington transistors that control both of the Turtle's drive motors. Notice the micro-tip, low wattage soldering iron and 0.020 inch (0.05 cm) diameter solder being used. All too frequently electronic kits are damaged during assembly by the use of high wattage soldering tools which damage the heat sensitive foil and apply too much solder. An excess of solder can short out both the closely spaced component pads and the circuit paths with solder bridges. Once the soldering has been



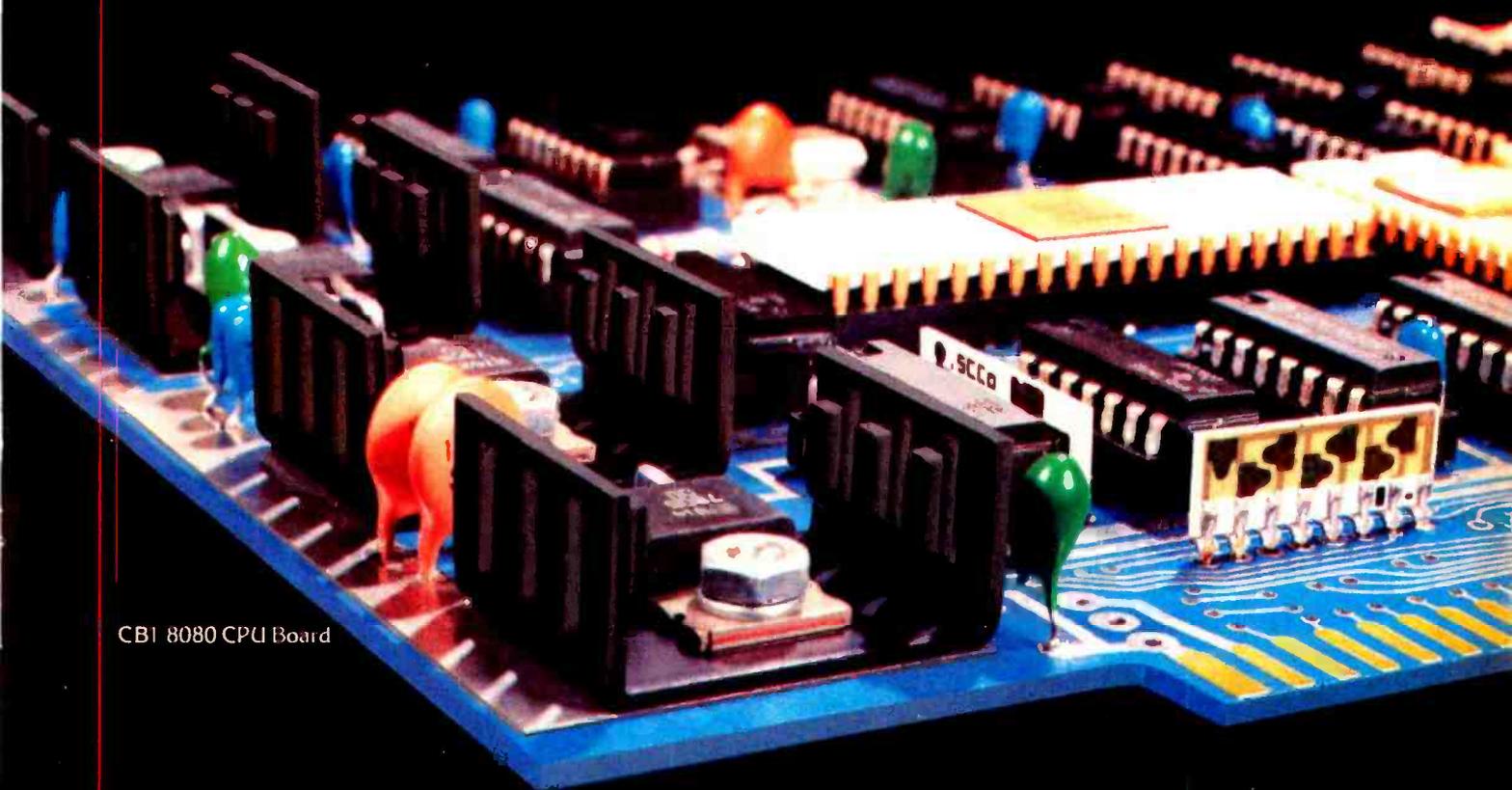
Photo 4: Soldering the installed components.



Photo 5: Inspecting the assembled components.

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finished, it is wise to recheck the placement of the components, just to be doubly sure.

Care must be exercised to keep the tabs on the Darlington transistors from touching one another. A small piece of plastic tape on each tab will save the transistor should the tabs accidentally be brought together while under power. Photo 5 shows the final inspection of the assembly of components onto the printed circuit board. Photo 6 shows the completed circuit board.

Figure 2 provides the circuit schematic for the control of the Turtle's left and right motors and the internal ball point pen. The pen is lowered by a 12 V solenoid upon command from the computer. Figure 3

shows the schematic for shell touch sensors, lights, and sound control. The figure also shows the power attachment points for the operation of the Turtle's electronics and motors. A 12 V, 3 A power source is required for the best performance. The Turtle can operate, however, with a power source of 1 A capacity if the 3 A source is not available. The Turtle illustrated in this article was powered by a 4 A regulated power supply.

Photo 7 shows the final assembly of the printed circuit board onto the motor housing. The most difficult part of the entire assembly was forcing the rubber tires onto the wheels. It is almost impossible to do this

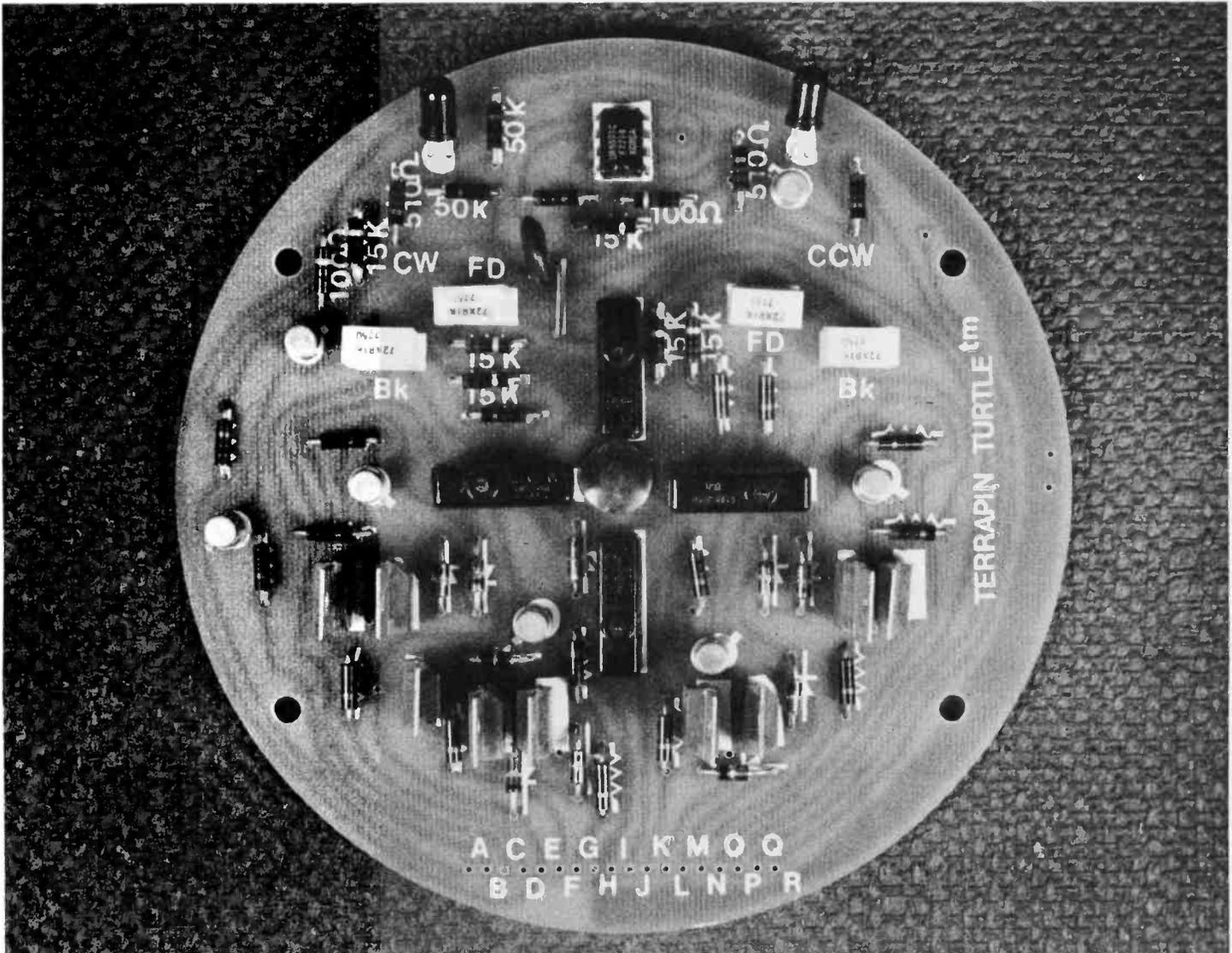


Photo 6: The completed board, showing the uncluttered layout.

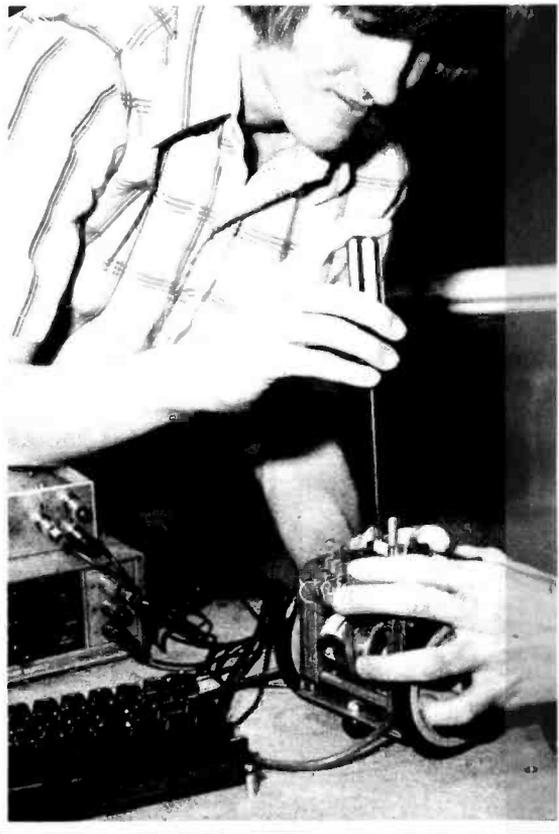


Photo 7: The printed circuit board, shown attached to the Turtle's motor drive housing.

by yourself — a second set of hands will be needed to mount the rubber tire onto the wheel. Photo 8 shows the assembled Turtle minus its sensor shell and the two power supplies used for testing without the use of a microcomputer. The Turtle is controlled with a TTL (transistor-transistor logic) voltage of 0 V and +2 V. This may cause some problems for parallel interfaces that function between 0 V and +5 V. The higher voltages can damage the 2N2222 Darlington tran-

Text continued on page 84

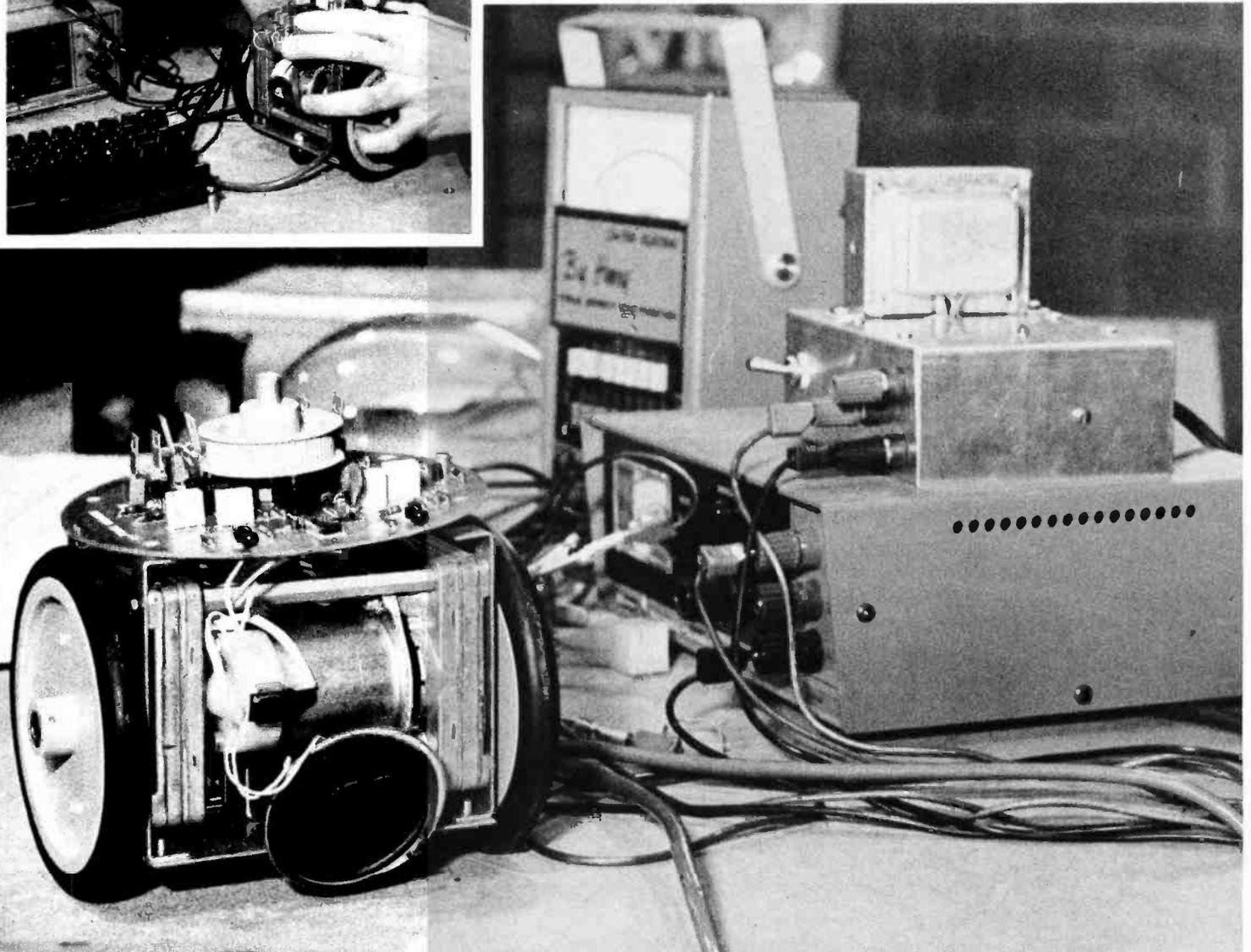


Photo 8: The completed Turtle, connected to a power supply for testing.

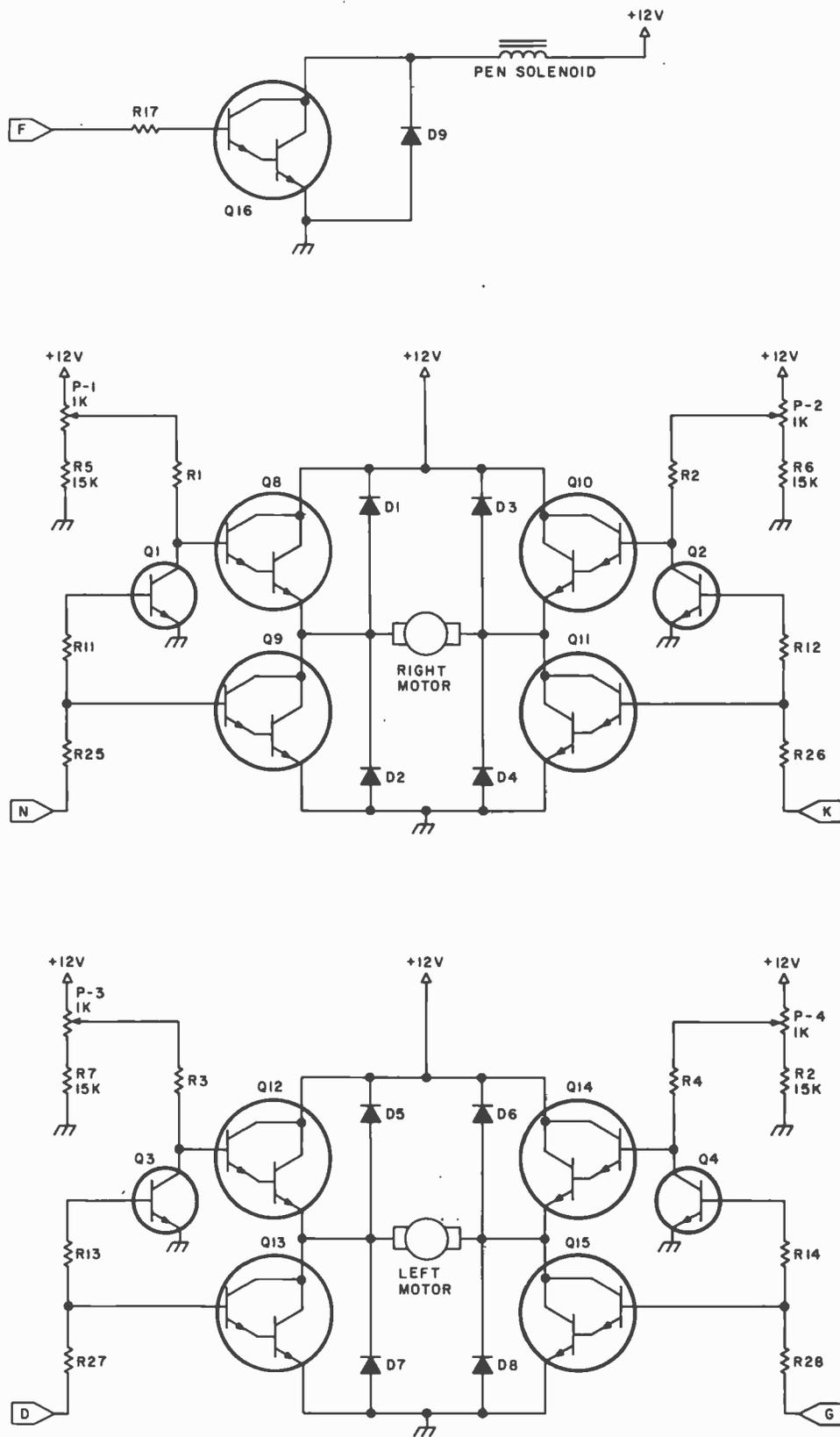


Figure 2: Schematic of the Turtle's motor control and pen control circuitry.

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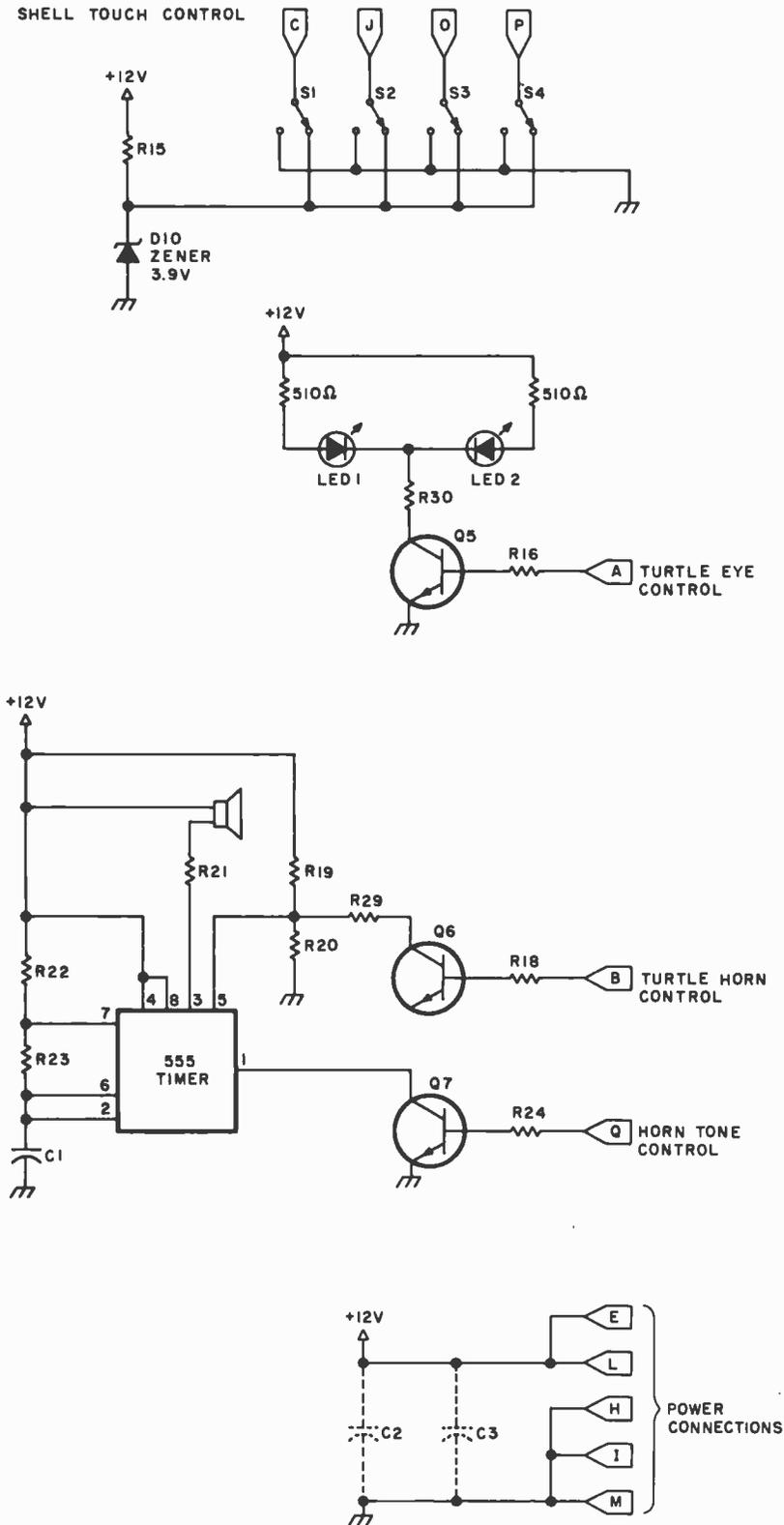


Figure 3: Schematic of the Turtle's touch sensor, lights, and horn control circuitry.

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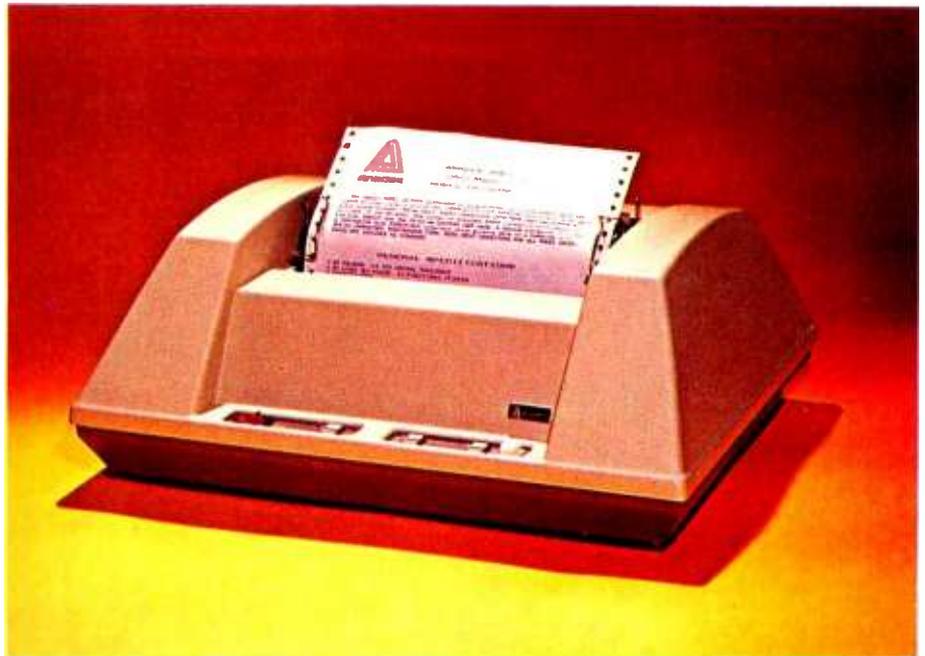
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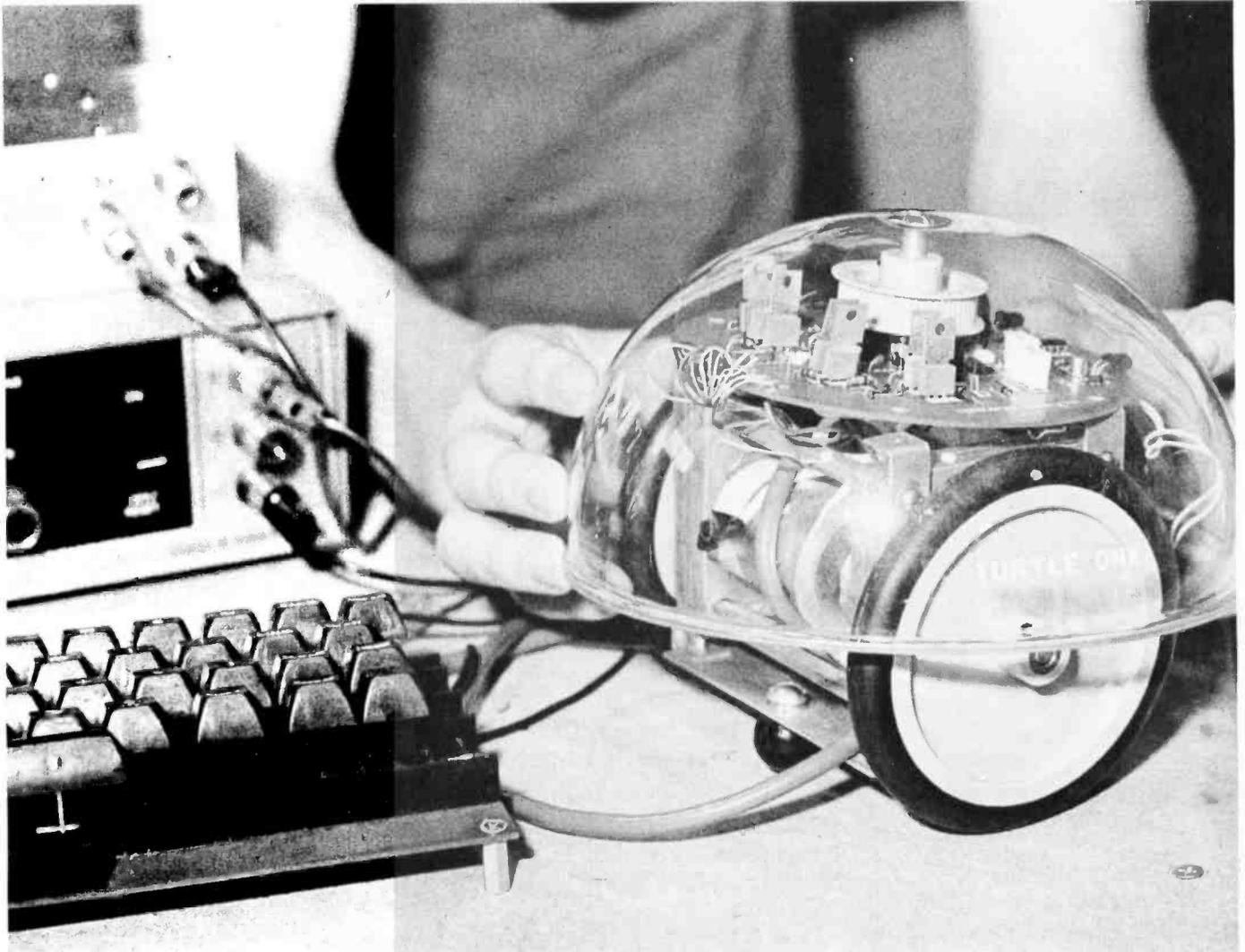


Photo 9: The Turtle with shell attached as a final assembly step.

Text continued from page 79:

sistor driver. Photo 9 shows the attachment of the plastic Turtle shell.

Does the Turtle work? Yes it does, even with a makeshift computer keyboard temporarily substituting for the parallel interface of our computer. The students studied the keyboard's ASCII code and developed a list of keys necessary to command the Turtle's movements, lights, and horn. The Turtle will go under full computer control as soon as an expansion interface can be acquired for our TRS-80 microcomputer.

Those wishing to investigate the Turtle kit, its capabilities, and its cost may obtain

full details by writing to:

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The fun way
into computers.

Few people have ever had the experience of attempting to trace their way through a real maze, so I'm going to ask you to settle back and allow your imagination plenty of freedom.

The absolute darkness surrounding you is barely broken by the candle you carry in your hand. You see enough to know that you are in a featureless corridor, but how far it extends, you can only guess. Somewhere within this maze is a massive gold plate. If you can find this plate, it will become yours and you will be removed to safety.

You are allowed to leave any kind of signs you wish to mark your trail. You know that any corridor you are in will eventually come to a dead end, but it may have any number of similar corridors branching off it. The overall dimensions of the maze are such that the average person could explore it in its entirety before becoming exhausted, if he or she didn't waste a lot of time and energy going in circles.

The Beginning

Years ago I read a brief article about a mechanical mouse that could find its way through simple mazes. Embedded within the walls of the mazes were a number of switches which served as sensors for the brain. The brain was a collection of relays whose points and coils functioned as a large switching network. By trial and error, this mass of hardware could direct the mouse through the maze until it reached the exit.

Over the years, I kept this idea in the back of my mind. I was interested in building such a maze, but the cost and complexity of the project were greater than the potential satisfaction. After I purchased my personal computer, these obstacles disappeared. If I was willing to accept a computer simulation of this project, I could fulfill my dream at no extra expense.

I would need to write a program, of course, but I felt that this would be an easier task than designing and building

David E Stanfield
3408 Catalina Dr
Atlanta GA 30341

My Computer

What follows is the story of how I created a program that would allow my computer to run through mazes similar to the one I've just described. I've included a general description of how the program operates, instructions for using it, and a complete listing of the program.

I regret that I am unable to give you a motion picture of this program in operation. The best I can do is to explain that I first create a maze as simple or complex as I wish on the screen of my video display. I have the cursor operating in its optional nonblinking mode and it therefore appears to be a solid rectangle. As soon as I turn control over to the program, it begins to maneuver the cursor in and out of the various pathways of the maze. The cursor will dodge up and down, back and forth until it eventually finds its goal. The sight of this mad little cursor zooming around the walls of the maze is absolutely fascinating.

Even if you don't intend to get this program up and running, I invite you to come along and explore some areas I found to be quite interesting.

a complete hardware project. As I began to consider what features to include in my program, I came to realize that in several respects, the computer simulation would be superior to the real thing. One important difference was that I could have a maze of greater complexity than would have been feasible with a mechanical version.

Another advantage was the ease with which new mazes could be prepared. Watching repeated runs through the same maze would eventually get monotonous. The choice between shifting and aligning plywood panels or pushing a few keys was no contest. Finally, my entire computer system fits neatly on a small desk. The maze I had visualized making was about the size of my living room.

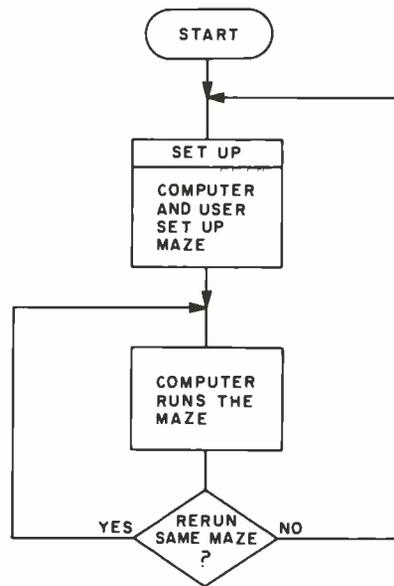
For several weeks I spent much of my spare time considering various ideas for the program. This allowed me the opportunity to explore a wide range of possible features without having to do any actual programming. Gradually, I evolved a straightforward set of goals that I felt would provide an interesting simulation, but would

not be beyond my capability as a programmer.

With these basic goals in mind, I sat down and drew up the simple flowchart you see in figure 1. In graphic form, it indicates that the first function of the program is to assist the user in creating the maze. Once the maze has been prepared, the computer will run the maze until it reaches its goal. At this point, the user can run the same maze again or prepare a new one.

A tremendous number of details had yet to be worked out, but this diagram gave me a secure starting point. Before I could proceed any further I had to make a major decision. From a practical standpoint, designing the program to print out successive sets of coordinates for its moves seemed to be fairly simple. This would mean, however, that the user would have to manually move a marker around on a diagram of the maze. My decision to display the maze on the video display and let the computer move the cursor through the maze increased my work, but made the program far more interesting.

Figure 1: Flowchart of three phases of the maze running program.



Runs Mazes

Program

If you will take a few moments to study figure 2, you will discover that it is really an expanded version of the first block in figure 1. The series of tasks outlined in figure 2 must be performed by the computer and the user in order to set up the maze.

The program begins by having the computer print out a complete list of the commands the user will use to create the maze. After the user indicates his understanding of these commands, the computer issues signals to the display to erase the screen completely. The computer then clears a section of memory that it will later use to remember the maze and the moves through it.

Once the screen and block of memory are cleared, the program prints out a maze and stores a map of it in its special memory. At this point the program allows the user to use a few one letter commands (such as U for up and L for left) to modify the maze. As each command is issued, the

program coordinates the making of changes on the screen and the storing of these changes in its block of memory. Once satisfied with the maze modifications, the user issues a final command to signal this fact to the computer. The program will respond by beginning to run the maze.

Maze Creation

The following additional information should help to clarify the above remarks. Once I decided to have the maze displayed on the screen, I needed to select a method of *getting* the maze onto the screen. One method would have been to allow the user to draw the maze on a blank screen. By properly positioning the cursor, the user could have printed a series of Xs anywhere that a wall was desired. I felt that this approach would work, but due to the heavy burden it would place upon the user, I selected another method.

Figure 2: Flowchart expansion of setup block from figure 1.

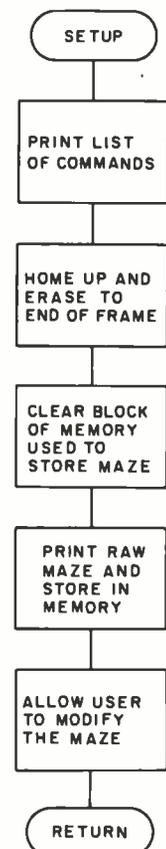


Figure 3: Horizontal paths of maze.

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Figure 4: Vertical paths of maze.

Figure 3 shows a box with alternating rows of Xs and spaces. These represent the horizontal paths and walls of the raw maze. Note that there is no way to get from one horizontal path to another. To create such a pathway, the user would simply erase any X on the line of Xs separating them.

Figure 4 represents the vertical paths and walls of the maze. Again, the paths are totally separate, but the user could easily make an opening between the adjacent paths by erasing one X.

Figure 5 is the result of combining figure 3 with figure 4. What you see in figure 5 is the initial maze that I've been referring to. Another way of looking at it is to think of it as an aerial view of a grid of streets running north-south and east-west. Imagine that roadblocks have been established at every intersection. To get from point A to point B, it is necessary only to remove the specific roadblocks blocking your route. For the purposes of this program, the user performs a similar operation by removing those Xs which block the paths he desires through his maze.

This concept is illustrated in figure 6. By erasing the blocking Xs along the desired horizontal and vertical pathways, we are able to create a functional maze. We must remain on those pathways and can erase an X only if it is blocking us unduly. In practice, we can only erase an X if there is a space either above and below it, or to the right and left of it.

The above can be a little confusing, even after you are used to it. Because of this, I built a routine into the program which automatically checks every X you try to erase and determines whether or not that particular X may be erased. If a given X may not be erased, your command will be ignored. As a result, you need not worry about making an error, but remember when you try to erase an X and nothing happens, that the program is designed to do this.

Among the Xs which cannot be erased are those which form the borders of the initial maze, meaning that there is no escape from this maze. It doesn't really matter. Unlike other mazes (in which the idea is to escape), the goal of the computer in this program is to find "food", indicated by the letter F.

Command Details

While the program does print out a list of all the valid user commands, I feel it is worthwhile to elaborate. One of the basic principles involved in setting up the maze is the fact that the cursor is not allowed to pass beyond any boundary of the maze. This means that when the cursor reaches the right side of the maze, it will not be able to "wrap-around" and reappear on the left side of the screen. It doesn't matter in which direction you are moving: when you reach a boundary line, you will be stopped from going any further. Should you try to go further, the command will be ignored.

I chose this approach to facilitate coordination of the on-screen maze and its counterpart stored in memory. Coordination of the cursor on the screen and the block of reserved memory is critical to the successful operation of this program. It is important that I included a routine designed to abort the program if certain commands are detected.

Because it is so much easier to remember the letter R for right rather than Control-I for right, I decided to allow the user to use U, D, L and R to cause the cursor to move up, down, left and right. In operation, the program recognizes these easy to remember commands and substitutes the specific control character used by the terminal

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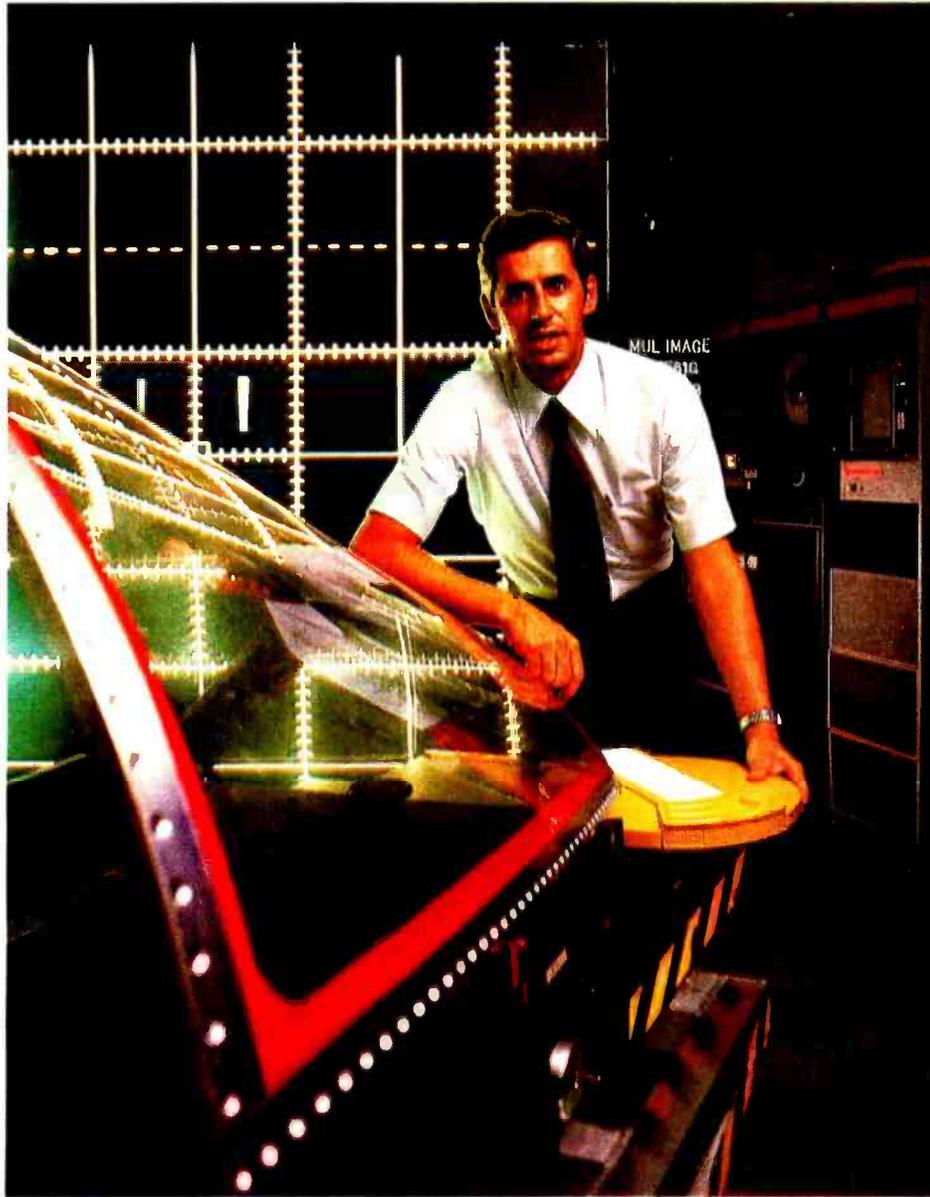
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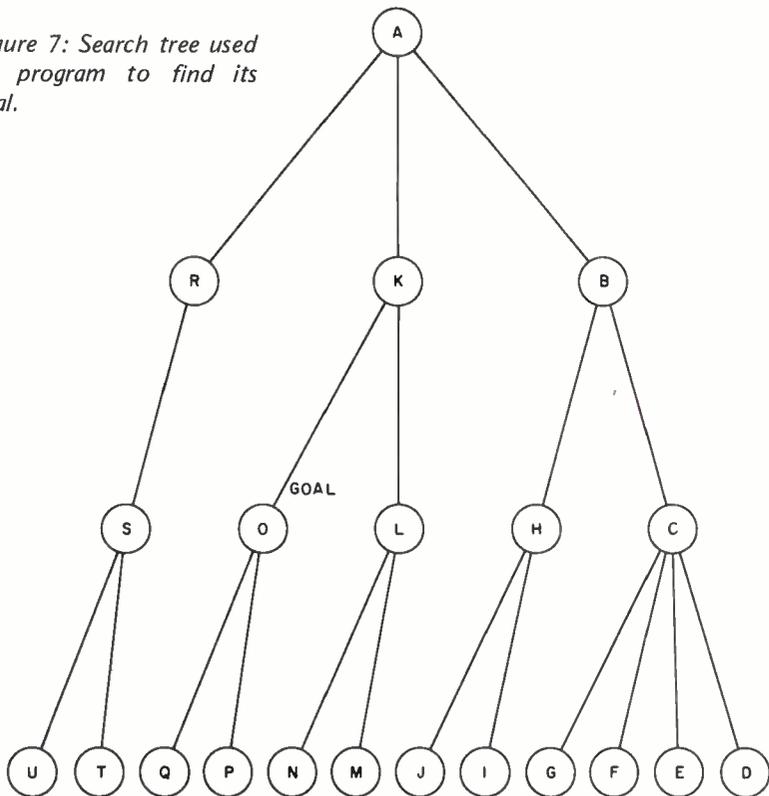
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Figure 7: Search tree used by program to find its goal.



it would react to a wall. A third rule is that when the program is retracing previous steps, it will begin exploring new territory as soon as possible.

Search Details

To make these rules clearer, refer to figure 8. Assume that the computer begins its run at position 1. It will move to the right until it reaches the dead end at position 2. Leaving special signals behind itself in memory, the computer will move back to the left until it encounters the new corridor at position 3. As this is an unexplored passage, it will stop retracing its steps toward position 1 and change direction toward position 4. Once it arrives at position 4, it reverses itself and, again leaving the special dead end signs in memory, backs up until it reaches position 5. Here, the computer decides that it has found another unexplored avenue and begins moving toward position 7. Halfway down this corridor it finds the food at position 6 and, having achieved its goal, stops the search.

In addition to the dead end signs, the computer also marks each path it explores with another signal to indicate that it has been there. Both of these signals are stored in the reserved block of memory to serve as guides in choosing the next move. They do not appear on the video display screen (where they would only cause clutter).

If you refer back to figure 7, you will now be able to understand the strategy that I have employed in this program. The procedure is to start at the top and, after arbitrarily choosing one of the branches, descend along it as far as possible. In this instance, we go from A to D. Unable to continue at D, we back up the minimum possible distance to C, where we encounter three unexplored branches. One at a time, we descend from C to E, F, and G. When exploration of these three branches is complete, we have eliminated everything descending from C. Again, we back up the least possible distance. In this case, we move from C back to B. At B we will descend to explore the paths leading to H, I, and J. Once this sequence has been completed, we back up to A. We have, at this point, thoroughly examined one limb of the tree, and use of the same rules over and over will eventually lead us to the goal.

One last point concerning strategy must be covered. Figure 9 illustrates a normal tree with some abnormal additions: closed circular paths, or loops. These may actually be a true representation of a particular problem. They are not, however, used in

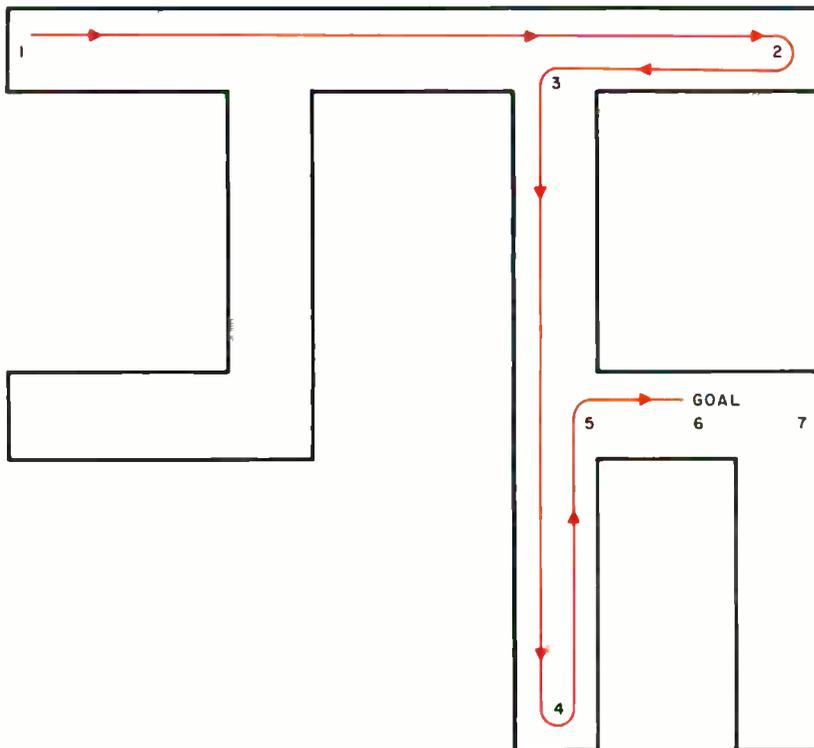


Figure 8: Typical search undertaken by computer. Starting at point 1, the cursor moves right to the dead end at point 2. Marking this position with a special code in memory, the cursor moves left, finding the unexplored corridor at point 3. The cursor changes direction to explore this, until stopped at point 4. Leaving a dead end code, the cursor again reverses, and discovers the new passage at point 5. Changing direction and moving towards point 7, the cursor reaches the "food" at point 6 and stops the search.

classic tree diagrams. Experts in the field of artificial intelligence tend to disapprove of such loops for they can raise havoc with simple search strategies like the one I've been explaining. It is entirely possible to enter one of these loops and, following the rules exactly, remain in the loop indefinitely. This can all be summed up in the following rule: *do not create loops in the mazes you set up for this program to run through.*

Finally, on the matter of loops, figures 10 and 11 are examples of various mazes. Those shown in figure 10 are incorrect because of loops. Those shown in figure 11 are correct.

Run Completion

Now I am going to briefly describe what happens once the computer completes its run. If it was unable to find the goal (because you forgot to include it or placed it out of reach), the program will tell you that it has no valid moves and will ask if you wish to rerun the same maze.

If you indicate that you would like to rerun the same maze, the computer will clean out all the signs it placed in its special block of memory and jump back to that part of the program which allows the user to modify the maze. It will print out a new maze or change the one on the screen. If you desire to start the next run from a new location or further modify the maze, use the same commands you originally used in setting up the maze. When you are ready to begin the new run, input a start command.

When the program actually finds the goal, it goes through the same general routine as when it has no more moves, with one major difference: instead of reporting that it has no more moves, it states that it has found the goal. Beyond this, everything is the same.

If, in either of the above cases, you indicate to the computer that you do not desire to rerun the same maze, the program will erase everything on the screen, completely clear out the special block of memory, and then print out a new initial maze.

Minor Points

A few minor details remain of which you should be aware. Foremost among these is the cursor. I decided to use the cursor to explore the maze because it was the easiest way to do the job. The simulation is very effective when the cursor is operated in the solid mode (as opposed to the normal blinking mode). The program will function perfectly with a blinking cursor, but the visual effect is not as pleasing.

Text continued on page 96

Figure 9: Search tree containing loop paths, which can cause problems.

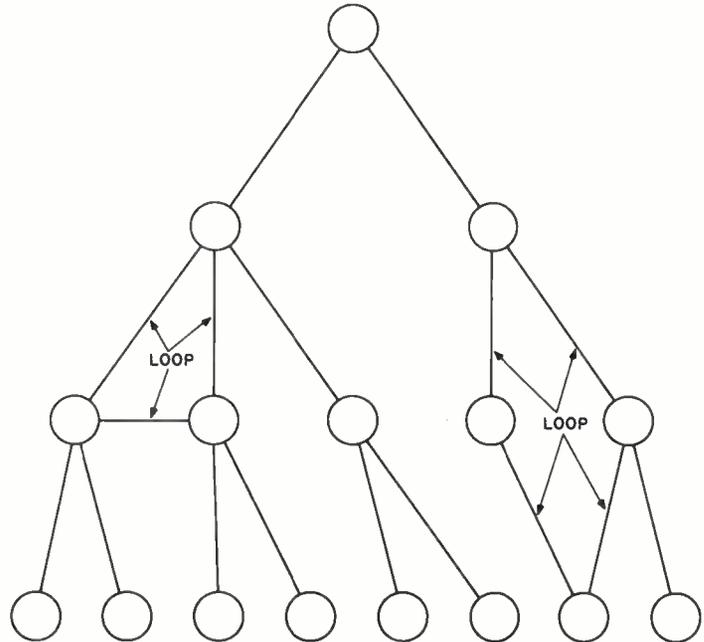


Figure 10: Mazes containing loops. Creation of such mazes is to be avoided.

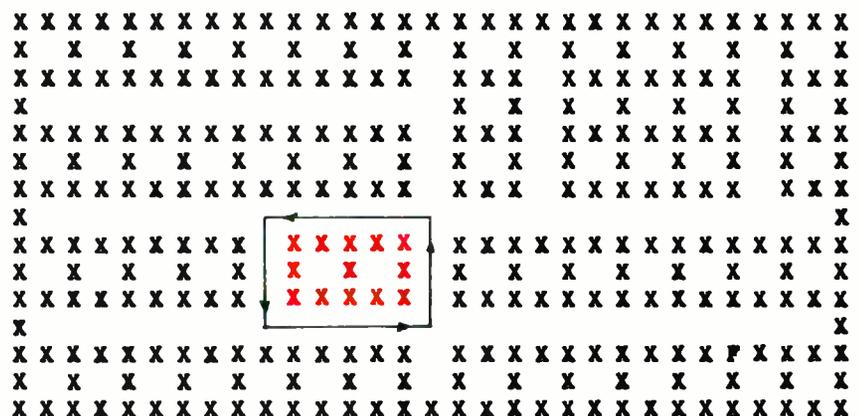
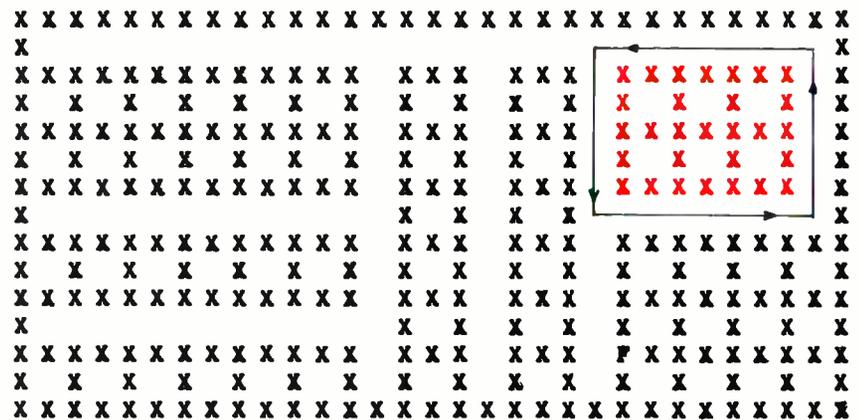


Figure 11: Properly constructed mazes containing no loops.

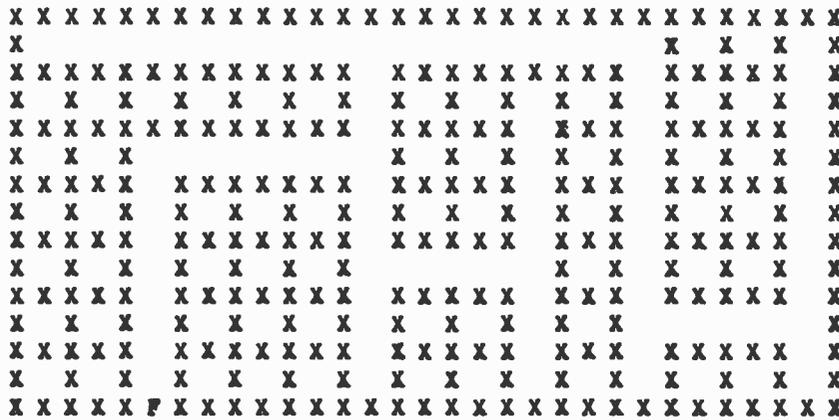
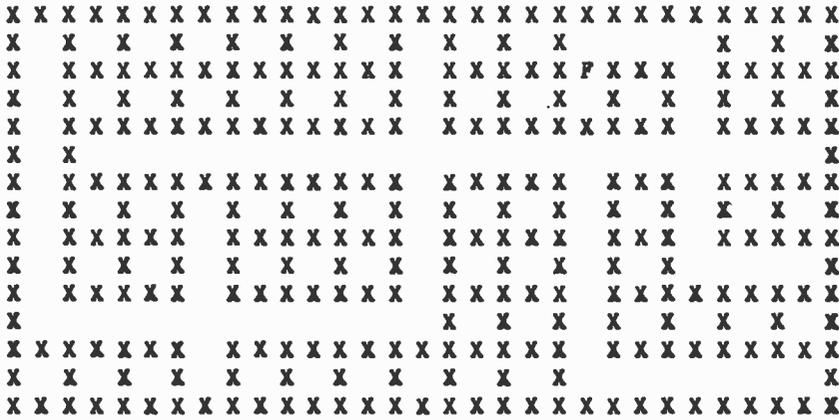


Photo 1: Time lapse exposure of a complete search of the maze. The camera shutter was left open during the entire time the cursor was traversing the maze. When the cursor retraced its steps, it increased the exposure at that point. Thus, the various shadings indicate in a relative fashion the number of times that the cursor passed a given point. The whitest location is the home position at the upper left corner.



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Author's Note:

The program shown in listing 1 uses several routines from the MIKBUG monitor. Other monitors (SWTBUG, Smartbug) designed to be compatible with MIKBUG should work with the program. However, the program will not work with other types of monitor systems.

Be careful not to type an actual control character while setting up the maze. If you do, you must restart the program at hexadecimal location 003D.

Table 1: Control codes used with the Southwest Technical Products Corporation CT-64 video terminal system.

Control Character	Hexadecimal Code	Function
H	08	Back Space
I	09	Forward Space
J	0A	Line Feed
K	0B	Move Up
P	10	Home Up
U	15	Erase End of Line
V	16	Erase End of Frame
M	0D	Carriage Return

Listing 1: Since the original Maze program was hand assembled over several hand written pages, the machine generated object code shown here in MIKBUG format is the only verifiable representation. Spaces on each line make reading easier, but do not enter the spaces into the computer. The last pair of digits on each line is a checksum. The starting address is hexadecimal 003D.

```
S113 0000 6580 6904 6420 2420 A525 6501 4D00 9580 40
S113 0010 2126 6131 63A4 69AC 2D24 2734 EF94 2D2C 5F
S113 0020 FFCA 27FF 92DF 93FF D9FF 9A5F DAF6 DAF6 60
S113 0030 975E 52FB 99DF DAEB D2EB 5ADB DABD 0100 B3
S113 0040 BD02 00BD 020A BD02 18BD 022C BD03 DCBD 09
S113 0050 02E3 BD02 8CBD 0480 BD04 9ABD 0500 7E00 90
S113 0060 58BD BFDE 09C0 8A5F 92FF 9ACF 9DEA 15D2 C0
S113 0070 9ACA CADB 1AC3 D9D7 12CF 9AFA 9ABB 9157 34
S113 0080 7386 64C0 4635 65A3 6CA5 6724 6537 4401 4F
S113 0090 6131 6127 672D 2C2F 6DB6 6785 2520 27A5 33
S113 00A0 9F5B B24B 8ADA 92D3 C85A BAE8 00DB D8DE 37
S113 00B0 88F9 985B 90EA E0EA D0EE 984A 181B C057 9A
S113 00C0 5136 4085 61F5 653F 6DA4 2537 652C 7EAC BE
S113 00D0 B585 7523 6737 6525 9D25 75B8 2F35 25F9 B1
S113 00E0 8708 D2D2 1FF4 AB59 905D 80D1 19C9 800A 18
S113 00F0 82CA 8A4F 98D8 1859 82C0 1A46 82BD 0200 13
S113 0100 CE01 0ABD E07E BDE1 AC39 1016 434F 4D4D 22
S113 0110 414E 4453 0A0A 0D52 2D4D 4F56 4520 5249 23
S113 0120 4748 540A 0D4C 2D4D 4F56 4520 4C45 4654 D6
```

Listing 1 continued on page 98

Text continued from page 93:

While I was developing the program, I found it desirable to include a delay routine to slow the speed at which the cursor runs through the maze. This delay is used whenever the program is exploring new territory. It greatly increases the impression that the computer is carefully considering each move. The amount of delay can be varied by changing the contents of one location in memory. The specific address is hexadecimal 06BE. You may use any value between 01 and FF. The maximum amount of delay is about one second, which occurs when location 06BE is set to FF. As the value stored in 06BE is decreased, the amount of delay is reduced until, with a value of 01, it is almost unnoticeable.

Hardware Dependence

One final important topic is the configuration of my system. This program is designed around that configuration, and any other could cause problems. Most 6800 system owners should not have any difficulty but, to be on the safe side, I'll go over the details quickly.

First, my terminal system is set up to print 32 characters on each line and 16 lines on each page. When I run this program I operate my terminal in the page mode. Table 1 describes all the control characters used by my system to move the cursor around and to erase the screen. The terminal is set to upper case operations.

Loading the Program

The program (listing 1 is in the MIKBUG tape format) is ready for hand entry. To begin entry, assuming that you are under MIKBUG control, type an L (load) and enter each line exactly as it appears. If you make a mistake, the checksum error detection feature of MIKBUG will catch it and cause the terminal to print a question mark. In order to proceed, again enter an L command and retype the line in question.

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S113 0130 0A0D 552D 4D4F 5645 2055 500A 0D44 2D4D 51
S113 0140 4F56 4520 444F 574E 0A0A 0D45 2D45 5241 FE
S113 0150 5345 2041 4E20 580D 0A43 2D43 4152 5249 E4
S113 0160 4147 4520 5245 5455 524E 0A0D 482D 484F 9B
S113 0170 4D45 2055 500D 0A46 2D52 4550 4C41 4345 9E
S113 0180 2041 4E20 5820 5749 5448 2041 4E20 460D C6
S113 0190 0A53 2D53 5441 5254 0D0A 0A55 5345 2041 D4
S113 01A0 424F 5645 2043 4F4D 4D41 4E44 5320 544F EA
S113 01B0 2050 5245 5041 5245 0D0A 4D41 5A45 2041 67
S113 01C0 4E44 2053 5441 5254 2052 554E 2E20 5748 E9
S113 01D0 454E 2052 4541 4459 0D0A 544F 2050 524F 28
S113 01E0 4345 4544 2C20 5459 5045 2041 4E59 204C F8
S113 01F0 4554 5445 522E 2004 0000 0000 0000 0000 25
S113 0200 CE02 06BD E07E 3910 1604 CE08 008C 0A00 2A
S113 0210 2705 6F00 0820 F639 CE02 28BD E07E CE08 FF
S113 0220 2086 08B7 0227 3900 1016 0A04 BD02 467A 50
S113 0230 0227 7D02 2727 05BD 026B 20F0 CE02 43BD B5
S113 0240 E07E 3910 0A04 861E B702 6A86 58A7 00BD EC
S113 0250 E1D1 7D02 6A27 0608 7A02 6A20 EE08 0886 40
S113 0260 0ABD E1D1 860D BDE1 D139 0086 10B7 026A 1D
S113 0270 8658 A700 BDE1 D108 8620 A700 BDE1 D108 BA
S113 0280 7A02 6A7D 026A 2702 20E6 0139 BD02 E781 0B
S113 0290 5527 2581 4427 2481 4C27 2381 5227 2281 F5
S113 02A0 4827 2181 4327 2081 4527 1F81 4627 1E81 16
S113 02B0 5327 1DBD 02D3 20D4 7E03 8F7E 035C 7E03 AF
S113 02C0 257E 0308 7E02 FC7E 0342 7E04 087E 03C2 70
S113 02D0 7E02 F886 08BD E1D1 A600 BDE1 D186 08BD 45
S113 02E0 E1D1 39CE 0820 39BD E1AC 85E0 2701 39BD 23
S113 02F0 0200 BD02 0A7E E0E3 BD02 D339 BD02 D3BD D4
S113 0300 023C BD02 E37E 028C BD02 D3FF 0323 7C03 C7
S113 0310 24B6 0324 841F 881F 2706 8609 BDE1 D108 5B
S113 0320 7E02 8C00 00BD 02D3 FF03 407A 0341 B603 72
S113 0330 4184 1F88 1F27 0686 08BD E1D1 097E 028C EF
S113 0340 0000 BD02 D3FF 035A B603 5B85 1F27 0309 D0
S113 0350 20F3 860D BDE1 D17E 028C 0000 BD02 D3FF E7
S113 0360 038C B603 8C81 0927 1886 20B7 038E 7D03 7E
S113 0370 8E27 0608 7A03 8E20 F586 0ABD E1D1 7E02 17
S113 0380 8CB6 038D 84E0 88E0 27F4 20DD 0000 00BD F6
S113 0390 02D3 FF03 BFB6 03BF 8108 2718 8620 B703 23
S113 03A0 C17D 03C1 2706 097A 03C1 20F5 860B BDE1 8F
S113 03B0 D17E 028C B603 C084 E088 2027 F420 DD00 BF
S113 03C0 0000 BD02 D3A6 0081 5827 037E 028C 8646 16
S113 03D0 A700 BDE1 D186 08BD E1D1 20EF 86FF B708 B3
S113 03E0 7FB7 08BF B708 FFB7 093F B709 7FB7 09BF 91
S113 03F0 8611 B708 5FB7 089F B708 DFB7 091F B709 A9
S113 0400 5FB7 099F B709 DF39 BD02 D3A6 0081 5827 1A
S113 0410 037E 028C FF04 347C 0435 B604 3584 1F88 C3
S113 0420 1F27 EFFF 0434 7A04 35B6 0435 841F 881F 71
S113 0430 27DF 2002 0000 FF04 34B6 0434 8108 270B B0
S113 0440 B604 3584 E088 E027 C820 09B6 0435 84E0 82
S113 0450 8820 27BD FF04 34A6 0081 1127 0781 FF27 C8
S113 0460 1308 20F3 FE04 3486 20A7 00BD E1D1 BD02 A9
S113 0470 D37E 028C FE04 34B6 0435 8401 27F3 20E7 CE
S113 0480 A600 8120 270C 0101 01CE 0495 BDE0 7ECE 9B

```

I've never seen documentation covering the types of errors the MIKBUG error detection feature will catch, so I purposely made a number of different errors and can report that all were detected. I entered incorrect digits, tried nonhexadecimal characters, rearranged the placement of correct digits and entered the address incorrectly. While I can't guarantee absolute reliability in error detection, I can say that I've entered many programs by hand using this method, and to the best of my knowledge every entry error that I made was caught.

As you successfully enter each line, it is stored in memory. Should you be unable to complete the loading of the entire program in one sitting you may use the tape dump feature of MIKBUG to store what you have entered on cassette or paper tape. At the beginning of your next session, load the tape back into memory and begin hand loading at the point you left off previously.

Eventually you will have the entire program in memory. Before you do anything else, I suggest that you generate a tape of the program. Once that is done, prepare your terminal system to use the program. Set it in the page mode, for upper case operation, with the cursor in a nonblinking mode. The hexadecimal starting address is 003D. Once you have this loaded into addresses A048 and A049, you will be ready to issue the go command.

Because I have entered this entire program by hand on three separate occasions, I can appreciate the feelings of those who think that it's just too big a job. To assist those who are lacking the time or inclination to hand load this program, I will be happy to supply a Kansas City standard cassette tape of the program for a \$5 fee.

Conclusion

This program is serious fun. As written, it provides quite a bit of excitement but, human nature being what it is, the urge to improve things may strike one or more of you. Ideas for improvement could include adding land mines, a limited range requiring stops for fuel, magic spots that transport to another location, and even little Klingons. If these or other ideas excite you, I hope you'll get busy and write the program to contain them. I'd like to run it. ■

Listing 1 continued:

S113	0490	0841	3900	0010	0A0A	0904	A620	8120	2735	E2
S113	04A0	A601	8120	2735	BD04	EAFE	04E7	8120	272F	19
S113	04B0	09A6	0008	8120	272B	017E	067B	BDE0	7E7E	F5
S113	04C0	0773	1015	4E4F	204D	4F56	4553	2E04	0000	10
S113	04D0	0000	0000	4086	44B7	04D4	3986	5220	F886	D0
S113	04E0	5520	F486	4C20	F000	0000	FF04	E786	20B7	76
S113	04F0	04E9	7D04	E927	0609	7A04	E920	F5A6	0039	10
S113	0500	BD06	CE86	52B1	04D4	2715	864C	B104	D427	37
S113	0510	2786	55B1	04D4	2756	8644	B104	D427	3486	9B
S113	0520	09BD	E1D1	BD06	BD86	01A7	0008	BD06	CEA6	62
S113	0530	0181	2027	EA7E	0597	8608	BDE1	D1BD	06BD	6D
S113	0540	8601	A700	09BD	06CE	09A6	0008	8120	27E8	78
S113	0550	7E05	9786	OABD	E1D1	BD06	BD86	01A7	00BD	13
S113	0560	058D	BD06	CEA6	2081	2027	E87E	0597	860B	43
S113	0570	BDE1	D1BD	06BD	8601	A700	BD04	EABD	06CE	1E
S113	0580	BD04	EAFE	04E7	8120	27E4	7E05	9786	204D	1A
S113	0590	2704	084A	20F9	3939	8652	B104	D427	1B86	26
S113	05A0	4CB1	04D4	2747	8655	B104	D427	6986	44B1	95
S113	05B0	04D4	275F	CE04	C27E	04BC	BD06	6527	11BD	EA
S113	05C0	0660	2713	BD06	5427	15BD	0659	2717	20E4	D6
S113	05D0	BD04	DFBD	0697	39BD	04D5	BD06	AA39	BD04	E7
S113	05E0	DBBD	0681	3986	04A7	00BD	0690	39BD	0665	CA
S113	05F0	27DE	BD06	6027	E0BD	0659	2708	BD06	5427	3F
S113	0600	0A7E	05CE	BD04	E3BD	068C	3986	04A7	00BD	71
S113	0610	0685	397E	0635	BD06	5427	C3BD	0659	27E4	31
S113	0620	BD06	6527	ABBBD	0660	2703	7E05	CE86	04A7	FD
S113	0630	00BD	06AE	39BD	0654	27A4	BD06	5927	C5BD	65
S113	0640	0660	2793	BD06	6527	037E	05CE	8604	A700	B2
S113	0650	BD06	9B39	A601	8101	3909	A600	0881	0139	2B
S113	0660	A620	8101	39FF	0679	8620	4D27	0409	4A20	F6
S113	0670	F9A6	00FE	0679	8101	3900	00BD	0598	7E04	C3
S113	0680	9A86	01A7	0086	09BD	E1D1	0839	8601	A700	31
S113	0690	8608	BDE1	D109	3986	01A7	0086	0BBD	E1D1	E9
S113	06A0	8620	4D27	0409	4A20	F939	8601	A700	860A	C5
S113	06B0	BDE1	D186	204D	2704	084A	20F9	39C6	1086	A9
S113	06C0	FF4D	2703	4A20	FA5A	5D27	0220	F239	FF07	1B
S113	06D0	0086	214D	2704	094A	20F9	8646	A100	2722	D5
S113	06E0	A101	271E	A102	271A	A120	2716	A122	2712	41
S113	06F0	A140	270E	A141	270A	A142	2706	FE07	0039	7F
S113	0700	0000	CE07	0BBD	E07E	7E07	2C10	1546	4F55	2A
S113	0710	4E44	2049	542E	2052	4552	554E	2053	414D	AB
S113	0720	4520	4D41	5A45	3F20	592F	4E04	BDE1	AC81	2F
S113	0730	5927	1381	4E27	0C86	08BD	E1D1	8615	BDE1	EA
S113	0740	D120	E97E	077F	CE08	20A6	0081	0127	0C81	F5
S113	0750	0427	088C	09FF	2709	0820	EE86	20A7	0020	1B
S113	0760	F286	0BBD	E1D1	8615	BDE1	D186	OABD	E1D1	88
S113	0770	7E07	79CE	0716	7E07	058E	A042	7E00	4F8E	37
S113	0780	A042	7E00	4043	BF58	97A9	AE19	FF6C	8F51	19
S113	0790	DF55	BF3D	9739	A44B	AF39	9A79	8A1B	A76C	B3
S113	07A0	2092	4806	4887	5802	4106	40A2	40C2	4086	2B
S113	07B0	5897	50C5	60E7	6808	61D0	5086	5C86	68A2	87
S113	07C0	FE3F	9F79	AFBD	BF6C	FF5D	DF75	FF7D	DE3D	62
S113	07D0	FF59	9F59	9F7F	8F7F	BF6D	B731	A671	A77B	4C
S113	07E0	0184	1C82	5082	40C7	10B6	4147	50AB	6806	52
S113	07F0	5086	2041	6182	1882	4186	7003	7003	0083	11

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Computer Generated Maps,

Part 2

William D Johnston
1808 Pomona Dr
Las Cruces NM 88001

In part 1 (May 1979 BYTE, page 10) we discussed the fundamental techniques involved in the production of computer generated maps and how to apply those techniques to some common map projections. We also presented several simple programs in BASIC which could be easily implemented in your own system to create maps for a variety of purposes. Nevertheless, these simple programs do have their limitations. In this installment we will develop a map projection program which is only slightly more complex, but far more versatile in what it can accomplish.

One of the most interesting projections mentioned in part 1 was the perspective projection, whereby the Earth is shown exactly as it appears to an observer at some specified height above the surface. Several perspective projections were illustrated, but all of these were simplified examples where the observer (or point of projection) was at infinity. It would be much more useful to have a program which would generate maps of the Earth as it appears from *any* chosen altitude and over any desired location. Such a program would give enormous flexibility to displays for space war games and other such practical applications as creating map overlays for weather satellite photographs.

Although details of a program to produce this type of projection were not discussed, the reader was encouraged to investigate the subject of perspective (or projective) geometry to see how the task could be accomplished. By this time many of you have, no doubt, learned that the solution is really quite simple.

Development of Perspective Projection

The key element of the solution can be explained in the following manner: if a line is extended from the center of the Earth to an observer in space, the point on the surface of the Earth that the line passes through is called the observer's *subpoint*. In other words, the observer is directly over this point with respect to the center of the Earth. Now, extend a sight line from the observer to any visible point on the surface of the Earth. You will find that the azimuth angle of the sight line (as measured clockwise from true north) is the same as the great circle bearing from the observer's subpoint to the distant surface point.

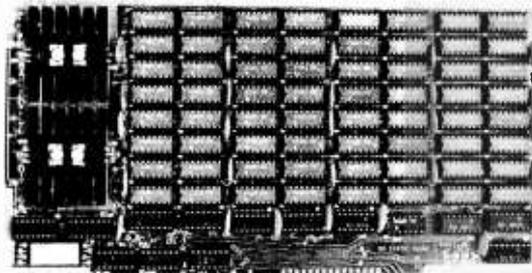
Knowing this, you should have been struck by the realization that you might be able to use the same program that was used to generate azimuthal equidistant maps in part 1, to also generate perspective maps. Can it be used? Almost.

The portion of the program which computes the angular component of the polar form of the map coordinates is indeed the same, and the computation of that angle constitutes the major part of the program. As its name implies, however, the azimuthal equidistant projection portrays radial distances uniformly. In a perspective view, distances are not uniform, but become increasingly compressed toward the Earth's limb (ie: edge of visible disk). All we have to do is replace a single statement in the program to correctly compute the radial distance. We will then have the means to produce a perspective projection of the Earth as viewed from any desired altitude over any desired point. By using a simple logic flag, we can choose between either of the two projections and use the same program to generate both types of maps.

You will also recall from part 1 that polar equidistant maps are simply special cases of the azimuthal equidistant map, while the orthographic equatorial and orthographic polar maps are nothing more than special cases of the perspective projection. We can

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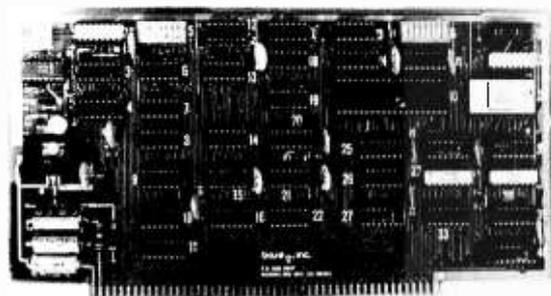
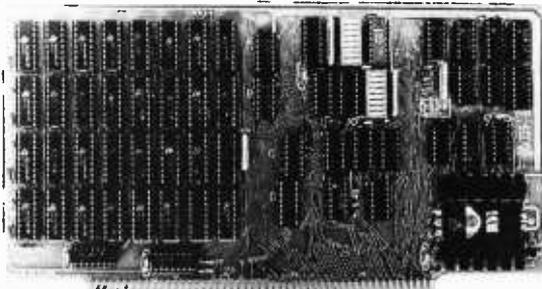
This 8K board is available in two versions. The 8KS-B operates at 450ns for use with 8080 and 8080A microprocessor systems and Z-80 systems operating at 2MHz. The 8KS-Z operates at 250ns and is suitable for use with Z-80 systems operating at 4MHz. Both kits feature factory fresh 2102's (low power on 8KS-B) and includes sockets for all IC's. Support logic is low power Schottky to minimize power consumption. Address and data lines are fully buffered and 4K bank addressing is DIP switch selectable. Memory Protect/Unprotect, selectable wait states and battery backup are also designed into the board. Circuit boards are solder masked and silk-screened for ease of construction. These kits are the best memory value on the market! Available from stock . . .

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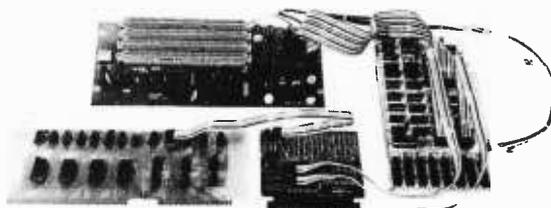


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Listing 1: BASIC subroutine for generating general purpose, perspective projection maps.

```

1000 REM SUBROUTINE TO COMPUTE MAP COORDINATES
1005 REM FOR PERSPECTIVE, MODIFIED PERSPECTIVE,
1010 REM AND AZIMUTHAL EQUIDISTANT PROJECTIONS.
1015 REM
1020 REM
1025 REM THE FOLLOWING FUNCTION MUST BE DEFINED
1030 REM BEFORE THIS SUBROUTINE IS CALLED:
1035 REM
1040 REM FNC( ) COMPUTES THE ARC COSINE OF THE
1045 REM ARGUMENT. THE FUNCTION MUST BE
1050 REM NON-AMBIGUOUS; THAT IS, IT MUST
1055 REM ATTACH THE CORRECT ALGEBRAIC
1060 REM SIGN TO THE RESULT. A GOSUB TO
1065 REM AN ARC COSINE SUBROUTINE MAY BE
1070 REM SUBSTITUTED IF DESIRED.
1075 REM
1080 REM
1085 REM THE FOLLOWING CONSTANTS MUST BE DEFINED
1090 REM BEFORE THIS SUBROUTINE IS CALLED THE
1095 REM FIRST TIME, AND ARE NEVER CHANGED:
1100 REM
1105 REM E = 6378.0, THE MEAN RADIUS OF THE
1110 REM EARTH, IN KM.
1115 REM
1120 REM K1 = 1.0
1125 REM
1130 REM K2 = 1.5707963, THE VALUE OF PI/2.
1135 REM
1140 REM K3 = 3.1415927, THE VALUE OF PI.
1145 REM
1150 REM K6 = 6.2831853, THE VALUE OF 2*PI.
1155 REM
1160 REM T = 0.00015, USED AS A TEST VALUE.
1165 REM
1170 REM Z = 0.0
1175 REM
1180 REM
1185 REM THE FOLLOWING VARIABLES MUST BE DEFINED
1190 REM BEFORE THIS SUBROUTINE IS CALLED THE
1195 REM FIRST TIME FOR ANY GIVEN MAP. EACH
1200 REM TIME A NEW MAP IS TO BE STARTED, THESE
1205 REM VARIABLES MUST BE REDEFINED BEFORE
1210 REM CALLING THE SUBROUTINE THE FIRST TIME
1215 REM FOR THAT MAP, AND ARE NOT CHANGED UNTIL
1220 REM THE MAP IS FINISHED:
1225 REM
1230 REM A IS THE GEOGRAPHIC LATITUDE OF THE
1235 REM LOCATION ON WHICH THE MAP IS
1240 REM CENTERED.
1245 REM
1250 REM A1 IS EQUAL TO SIN(A).
1255 REM
1260 REM A2 IS EQUAL TO COS(A).
1265 REM
1270 REM F IS THE MAP SCALE FACTOR TO CONVERT
1275 REM TRUE PROJECTED RADIAL DISTANCE TO
1280 REM THE MAP RADIAL DISTANCE.
1285 REM F = R/(E*SIN(M)), WHERE R IS THE
1290 REM RADIUS OF THE FINISHED MAP, IN CM OR
1295 REM INCHES; E IS AS DEFINED ABOVE; M IS
1300 REM AS DEFINED BELOW.
1305 REM F IS USED ONLY FOR PERSPECTIVE AND
1310 REM MODIFIED PERSPECTIVE PROJECTIONS.
1315 REM
1320 REM F1 IS THE MAP SCALE FACTOR TO CONVERT
1325 REM TRUE ARC DISTANCE TO THE MAP RADIAL
1330 REM DISTANCE. F1 IS USED FOR AZIMUTHAL
1335 REM EQUIDISTANT PROJECTIONS ONLY.
1340 REM F1 = R/M, WHERE R IS THE RADIUS OF
1345 REM THE FINISHED MAP, IN CM OR INCHES;
1350 REM AND M IS AS DEFINED BELOW.
1355 REM
1360 REM G IS A PRECOMPUTED FACTOR USED IN THE
1365 REM COMPUTATION OF THE RADIAL COMPONENT

```

Listing 1 continued on page 104

see that by this very simple modification of the azimuthal equidistant map program, we can use a single subroutine to generate any desired perspective map, as well as all of the orthographic, polar equidistant, and azimuthal equidistant maps illustrated in the earlier article! We will add a few frills that will make the program still more versatile.

Modified Perspective Projection

The azimuthal equidistant map portrays radial distances in a linear fashion. On the other hand, radial distances in a perspective map are computed from an involved trigonometric formula in order to show them as they actually appear when viewed from some point in space. Each of these maps has its own special applications, but also has (as do all maps) certain distortions.

A projection which is a compromise between the kinds of distortions inherent in the azimuthal equidistant and the pure perspective maps can be easily developed. This is done by using the same angular component, but presenting the radial distance in direct proportion to the sine of the arc distance. For the sake of simplicity, I will call this a *modified perspective projection*. It has been included as an option in the accompanying program. This projection is quite useful, especially when used in conjunction with the pure perspective projection, as we will see in some later examples. As an added bonus, the sine of the arc distance has to be computed anyway to come up with the angular component of the map coordinates, so we don't have to do any extra work to include this projection in the program.

General Purpose Perspective Projection Program

The program in listing 1 is in the form of a subroutine, and is to be used in the same manner as the subroutines presented in part 1. The subroutine is fully documented by the remarks contained within it, so there is little need to elaborate. In fact, of the 300 lines in the listing, fewer than 60 are executable statements; the other 240 or so are all remarks concerning the use and operation of the program.

As in the case of the earlier programs, certain parameters are initialized, then the subroutine is called once for each pair of coordinates to be converted. A geographic latitude and longitude from the data base (see part 1 for a description of the data base) are supplied to the subroutine each time it

Text continued on page 108

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```

1370 REM
1375 REM
1380 REM
1385 REM
1390 REM
1395 REM
1400 REM
1405 REM
1410 REM
1415 REM
1420 REM
1425 REM
1430 REM
1435 REM
1440 REM
1445 REM
1450 REM
1455 REM
1460 REM
1465 REM
1470 REM
1475 REM
1480 REM
1485 REM
1490 REM
1495 REM
1500 REM
1505 REM
1510 REM
1515 REM
1520 REM
1525 REM
1530 REM
1535 REM
1540 REM
1545 REM
1550 REM
1555 REM
1560 REM
1565 REM
1570 REM
1575 REM
1576 REM
1577 REM
1578 REM
1580 REM
1585 REM
1590 REM
1595 REM
1600 REM
1605 REM
1610 REM
1615 REM
1620 REM
1625 REM
1630 REM
1635 REM
1640 REM
1645 REM

      JF THE POLAR FORM OF THE MAP
      COORDINATES FOR PERSPECTIVE
      PROJECTIONS ONLY.
      G = E * (H2 - E* $\cos(M)$ ), WHERE E IS
      AS DEFINED ABOVE; H2 AND M ARE AS
      DEFINED BELOW.

      H2 IS THE SUM OF THE EARTH'S RADIUS AND
      THE HEIGHT OF THE OBSERVER, AND IS
      USED ONLY FOR PERSPECTIVE AND
      MODIFIED PERSPECTIVE PROJECTIONS.
      H2 = E + H, WHERE E IS AS DEFINED
      ABOVE, AND H IS THE HEIGHT OF THE
      OBSERVER (POINT OF PROJECTION) ABOVE
      THE SURFACE OF THE EARTH, IN KM.

      I IS THE AZIMUTH THAT THE OBSERVER IS
      FACING, FROM 0 TO 2*PI RADIANS,
      CLOCKWISE FROM TRUE NORTH, AND IS
      USED ONLY FOR PERSPECTIVE AND
      MODIFIED PERSPECTIVE PROJECTIONS.

      J IS A FLAG WHICH INDICATES THE TYPE
      OF PROJECTION TO BE DONE:
      J=0, PERSPECTIVE PROJECTION.
      J=1, MODIFIED PERSPECTIVE PROJECTION.
      J=2, AZIMUTHAL EQUIDISTANT PROJECTION.

      L0 IS THE GEOGRAPHIC LONGITUDE OF THE
      LOCATION ON WHICH THE MAP IS
      CENTERED.

      M IS THE MAXIMUM POSSIBLE ANGULAR
      DISTANCE, IN RADIANS, THAT THE
      OBSERVER CAN SEE FROM THE POINT OVER
      WHICH HE IS LOCATED, TO THE LIMB
      (VISIBLE EDGE) OF THE EARTH, FOR A
      PERSPECTIVE OR A MODIFIED PERSPECTIVE
      PROJECTION. THIS BECOMES THE
      ANGULAR DISTANCE, IN RADIANS, FROM
      THE MAP CENTER TO THE EDGE OF THE
      MAP. M =  $\text{FNC}(E/H2)$ , WHERE E AND H2
      ARE AS DESCRIBED ABOVE, AND FNC IS
      THE ARC COSINE FUNCTION, AS
      DESCRIBED ABOVE.
      FOR AN AZIMUTHAL EQUIDISTANT
      PROJECTION, M IS NORMALLY SET EQUAL
      TO PI (WHICH WILL PRODUCE A MAP OF
      THE ENTIRE EARTH), BUT THE USER MAY
      ALSO SET IT EQUAL TO ANY VALUE LESS
      THAN PI IF IT IS DESIRED TO MAP A
      SMALLER PORTION OF THE EARTH.

      THE FOLLOWING VARIABLES MUST BE DEFINED
      PRIOR TO EACH CALL OF THIS SUBROUTINE:

      P IS THE GEOGRAPHIC LATITUDE (FROM THE
      DATA BASE) OF THE POINT BEING
  
```

```

1650 REM
1655 REM
1660 REM
1665 REM
1670 REM
1675 REM
1680 REM
1685 REM
1690 REM
1695 REM
1700 REM
1705 REM
1710 REM
1715 REM
1720 REM
1725 REM
1730 REM
1735 REM
1740 REM
1745 REM
1750 REM
1755 REM
1760 REM
1765 REM
1770 REM
1775 REM
1780 REM
1785 REM
1790 REM
1795 REM
1800 REM
1805 REM
1810 REM
1815 REM
1820 REM
1825 REM
1830 REM
1835 REM
1840 REM
1845 REM
1850 REM
1855 REM
1860 REM
1865 REM
1870 REM
1875 REM
1880 REM
1885 REM
1890 REM
1895 REM
1900 REM
1905 REM
1910 REM
1915 REM
1920 REM
1925 REM
2000 LET S = Z
2100 REM
2200 REM
  
```

```

PROCESSED.

L IS THE GEOGRAPHIC LONGITUDE (FROM
THE DATA BASE) OF THE POINT BEING
PROCESSED.

THE FOLLOWING VARIABLES ARE COMPUTED BY
THIS SUBROUTINE:

B1 IS THE ABSOLUTE VALUE OF L1 (SEE
BELOW).

C IS THE NORMALIZED ANGULAR COMPONENT
OF THE POLAR FORM OF THE MAP
COORDINATES.

C1 IS THE COSINE OF THE VALUE OF C
BEFORE C IS NORMALIZED.

D IS THE ANGULAR DISTANCE (THE ARC
DISTANCE), IN RADIANS, BETWEEN THE
LOCATION ON WHICH THE MAP IS
CENTERED AND THE POINT BEING
PROCESSED.

D1 IS TEMPORARY STORAGE FOR THE SINE
OF D.

D2 IS TEMPORARY STORAGE FOR THE COSINE
OF D.

L1 IS THE DIFFERENCE BETWEEN THE
LONGITUDE OF THE POINT BEING
PROCESSED, AND THE LONGITUDE OF THE
LOCATION ON WHICH THE MAP IS
CENTERED.

P1 IS TEMPORARY STORAGE FOR THE SINE OF
THE LATITUDE OF THE POINT BEING
PROCESSED.

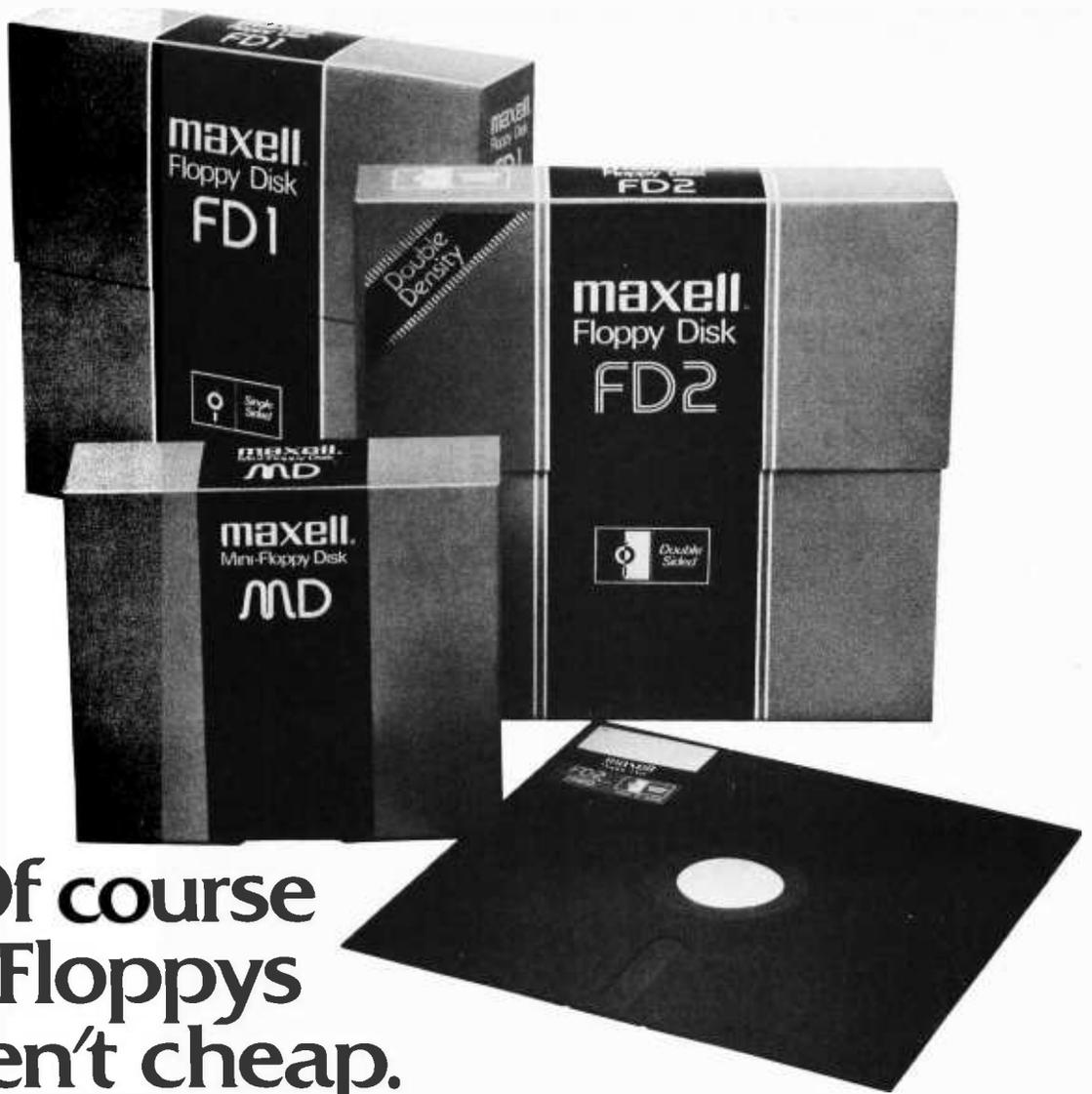
R1 IS THE RADIAL DISTANCE COMPONENT OF
THE POLAR FORM OF THE MAP
COORDINATES.

S IS THE OFF-SCALE FLAG. S=0 MEANS
ON-SCALE. S=1 MEANS OFF-SCALE.

X IS THE MAP X-COORDINATE, IN CM OR
INCHES.

Y IS THE MAP Y-COORDINATE, IN CM OR
INCHES

      COMPUTE THE DIFFERENCE BETWEEN THE
      LONGITUDE OF THE POINT BEING PROCESSED
  
```



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```

2300 REM AND THE LONGITUDE OF THE LOCATION ON
2400 REM WHICH THE MAP IS CENTERED, THEN
2500 REM NORMALIZE THAT VALUE BETWEEN -PI AND
2550 REM +PI.
2600 LET L1 = L - L0
2700 IF L1 >= -K3 THEN 3000
2800 LET L1 = L1 + K6
2900 GO TO 5400
3000 IF L1 <= K3 THEN 4000
3100 LET L1 = L1 - K6
3200 REM IF THE LONGITUDINAL DIFFERENCE (THE
3250 REM VALUE OF L1) IS WITHIN 0.00015 RADIAN
3300 REM OF 0 (OR PI), THEN THE DIFFERENCE IS
3350 REM CONSIDERED TO BE EXACTLY 0 (OR PI). IN
3400 REM SUCH CASES, THE GREAT CIRCLE BEARING, C,
3450 REM CAN HAVE A VALUE OF ONLY 0 OR PI (NOT
3500 REM NECESSARILY RESPECTIVELY), AND THE
3550 REM STATEMENTS FROM HERE THROUGH STATEMENT
3600 REM (LINE) NUMBER 4215 PROCESS THE DATA FOR
3650 REM THESE CONDITIONS.
4000 LET B1 = ABS(L1)
4002 REM IF THE LONGITUDINAL DIFFERENCE IS NOT
4004 REM WITHIN 0.00015 RADIAN OF 0, GO TO 4050.
4005 IF B1 > T THEN 4050
4010 LET D = ABS(A - P)
4015 IF D > M THEN 4300
4020 LET D1 = SIN(D)
4025 LET D2 = COS(D)
4030 LET C = Z
4035 IF P >= A THEN 5000
4040 LET C = K3
4045 GO TO 5000
4047 REM IF THE LONGITUDINAL DIFFERENCE IS NOT
4048 REM WITHIN 0.00015 RADIAN OF PI, GO TO 4250.
4050 IF ABS(K3 - B1) > T THEN 4250
4060 LET D = K3 - A - P
4070 IF D > K3 THEN 4100
4080 LET C = Z
4090 GO TO 4200
4100 LET D = K5 - D
4150 LET C = K3
4200 IF U > M THEN 4300
4205 LET D1 = SIN(D)
4210 LET D2 = COS(D)
4215 GO TO 5000
4220 REM COMPUTE THE ARC DISTANCE, D, AND THE
4225 REM GREAT CIRCLE BEARING, C, BETWEEN THE
4230 REM LOCATION ON WHICH THE MAP IS CENTERED
4235 REM AND THE POINT BEING PROCESSED.
4250 LET P1 = SIN(P)
4255 LET D2 = A1 * P1 + A2 * COS(P) * COS(L1)
4260 LET D = FNCD2)
4265 REM IF THE COMPUTED ARC DISTANCE IS GREATER
4270 REM THAN THE MAXIMUM POSSIBLE ARC DISTANCE
4275 REM FOR THIS MAP, THEN THE POINT IS
4280 REM OFF-SCALE, AND CONTROL RETURNS TO THE
4285 REM CALLING POINT AFTER SETTING THE
4290 REM OFF-SCALE FLAG.

```

```

4295 IF D <= M THEN 4500
4300 LET S = K1
4400 RETURN
4500 LET D1 = SIN(D)
4520 LET C1 = (P1 - A1 * D2) / (A2 * D1)
4540 IF C1 < -K1 THEN 4300
4560 IF C1 > K1 THEN 4300
4580 LET C = FNC(C1)
4600 REM NORMALIZE THE VALUE OF C, DEPENDING
4620 REM UPON THE RELATIVE LONGITUDES OF THE
4640 REM LOCATION ON WHICH THE MAP IS CENTERED
4660 REM AND THE POINT BEING PROCESSED.
4680 IF L1 >= Z THEN 5000
4700 LET C = K6 - C
4720 REM AT THIS POINT C IS IN THE RANGE FROM
4740 REM 0 TO 2*PI, MEASURED CLOCKWISE FROM TRUE
4760 REM NORTH.
4780 REM IF THE VALUE OF I IS NOT 0, ROTATE THE
4800 REM COORDINATES BY THE AMOUNT OF I.
4900 REM
5000 IF I = Z THEN 5500
5050 LET C = C - I
5100 IF C >= Z THEN 5500
5150 LET C = K6 + C
5200 REM REVERSE THE DIRECTION OF MEASUREMENT OF
5250 REM C AND ROTATE IT BY PI/2. THEN
5300 REM NORMALIZE THE RESULT BETWEEN -PI AND
5350 REM +PI, C THEN REPRESENTS THE NORMALIZED
5400 REM FORM OF THE ANGULAR COMPONENT OF THE
5450 REM POLAR FORM OF THE MAP COORDINATES.
5500 LET C = K2 - C
5600 IF C >= -K3 THEN 6000
5700 LET C = C + K6
5800 REM IF A TRUE PERSPECTIVE PROJECTION IS NOT
5900 REM TO BE USED, GO TO 6500.
6000 IF J <> Z THEN 6500
6050 REM COMPUTE THE RADIAL COMPONENT, R1, OF
6100 REM THE POLAR FORM OF THE MAP COORDINATES
6150 REM FOR A TRUE PERSPECTIVE PROJECTION.
6200 LET R1 = F * (G * D1) / (H2 - E * D2)
6250 GO TO 7000
6300 REM IF A MODIFIED PERSPECTIVE PROJECTION IS
6400 REM NOT TO BE USED, GO TO 6700.
6500 IF J <> K1 THEN 6700
6520 REM COMPUTE THE RADIAL COMPONENT, R1, OF
6540 REM THE POLAR FORM OF THE MAP COORDINATES
6560 REM FOR A MODIFIED PERSPECTIVE PROJECTION.
6600 LET R1 = F * E * D1
6620 GO TO 7000
6640 REM COMPUTE THE RADIAL COMPONENT, R1, OF
6660 REM THE POLAR FORM OF THE MAP COORDINATES
6680 REM FOR AN AZIMUTHAL EQUIDISTANT PROJECTION.
6700 LET R1 = F1 * D
6800 REM CONVERT THE POLAR MAP COORDINATES TO
6900 REM RECTANGULAR MAP COORDINATES.
7000 LET X = R1 * COS(C)
7010 LET Y = R1 * SIN(C)
7020 RETURN
7030 END

```

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VIEWED FROM INFINITY, OVER 32:18S 105:56E, FACING 0 DEG AZIMUTH
PERSPECTIVE PROJECTION PREPARED BY WILLIAM D. JOHNSTON

Figure 1: A view of the Earth as seen from a point over the southeastern Indian Ocean.

Text continued from page 102:

is called. It returns the rectangular (X,Y) map coordinates (in inches or centimeters) corresponding to that point for the selected projection. The units (inches or centimeters) in which the computerist initially specifies the radius of the finished map automatically determine the units of the map coordinates. All constants, such as π and 0, have been given variable names because most BASIC interpreters can operate faster on variables than on numeric constants.

Remember that all angular parameters are in radians. The program uses spherical trigonometry to arrive at the solution, and some tests have been included to prevent the trigonometric functions from "blowing up" when the map center and the distant point both lie on the same meridian.

The trigonometric functions can also blow up if you attempt to generate an azimuthal equidistant map centered on either of the two poles (ie: a polar equidistant map). This can be avoided by simply specifying the latitude of the map center as slightly less than 90° (perhaps 89.99°).

The exact maximum value that can be used will depend upon the precision of your trigonometric routines, but, in any case, you won't be able to see the difference on the finished maps. Incidentally, the longitude that you specify for this kind of map will determine its orientation. This capability was not available with the simplified polar equidistant map program presented in part 1.

For all other types of maps, an option (I) has been included in the program to permit the user to specify the azimuth that the observer in space is facing (ie: to specify the orientation of the map). While this option has little value for a printed map (which the user can turn in any direction), it comes in handy on a video display which is simulating the view from a window of a maneuvering spacecraft.

Within the limits of resolution of any map that you produce, you can assume, for perspective projections, that if the observer is beyond 10,000,000 km above the Earth, the distance is infinite. If you wish to generate an orthographic map, simply assume a height of 10,000,000 km for the observer, and there will be no detectable difference between the resulting map and a truly orthographic map.

Grid lines generally enhance the appearance of perspective maps. These can be included by generating the geographic coordinates within loops in your main (driver) program, then calling the subroutine to obtain the map coordinates. Keep the number of generated points down to the minimum required to obtain the desired resolution, as it is not difficult to expend more processor time creating the grid than creating the map.

Having covered the major operational features of the program (additional details are contained in the remarks within the listing), let us now look at some specific examples. All of the maps illustrated here were generated using the subroutine given in listing 1. Each map was created for a specific purpose and should give you some ideas as to the applications of this program to your own system.

Perspective Maps

Figure 1 provides a good example of what this program can do. Here, the point of projection has been placed at infinity, over a point in the southeastern Indian Ocean. This gives us an excellent view of Australasia, as well as Antarctica. You can create a similar view of any part of the Earth by simply providing the coordinates of the central point. Orthographic perspective

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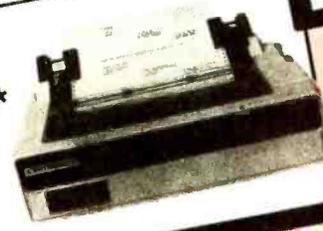


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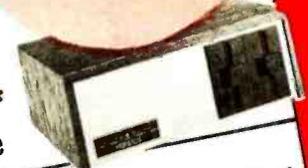
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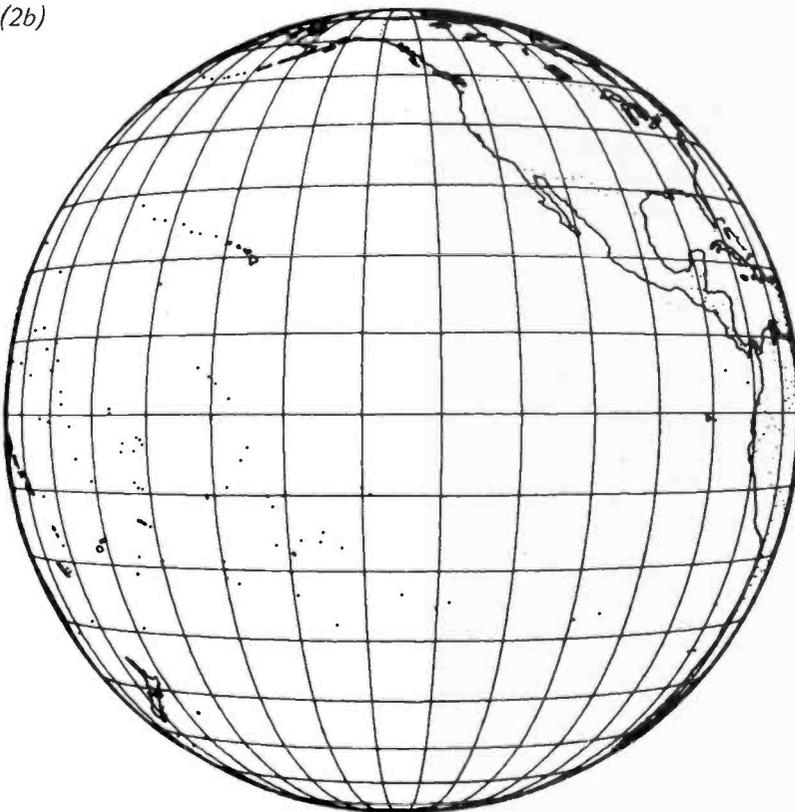
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(2a)



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PERSPECTIVE PROJECTION PREPARED BY WILLIAM D. JOHNSTON

(2b)



VIEWED FROM 35862 KM OVER 0:00N 135:00W. FACING 0 DEG AZIMUTH
PERSPECTIVE PROJECTION PREPARED BY WILLIAM D. JOHNSTON

Figure 2: The Earth as seen by a geosynchronous weather satellite. Figure 2a is a view from GOES-2 and figure 2b is from GOES-3. Compare these maps to the weather photographs shown on evening television newscasts.

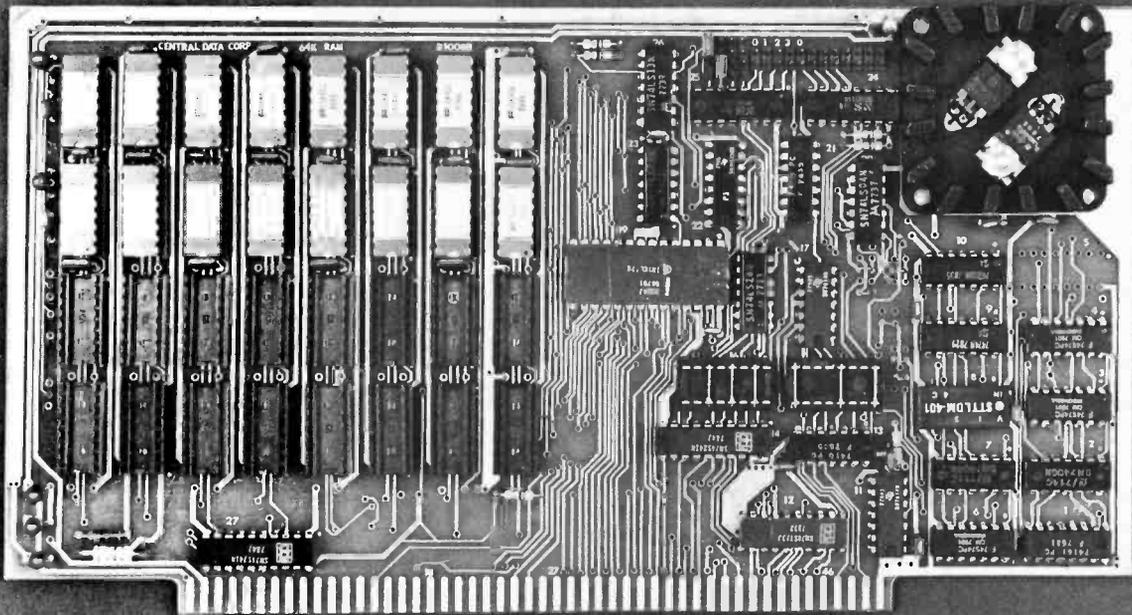
projections, such as this one, find widespread use in scientific applications and are also quite attractive when used in games.

Anyone who watches television weather reports regularly should recognize the maps in figures 2a and 2b. These are the views seen by the two primary United States geosynchronous weather satellites, GOES-2 and GOES-3. (Note that these are not orthographic projections; the field of view extends only about 80° from the central point). Sequences of pictures from these satellites are frequently made into film loops and shown as a sort of jerky motion picture. Although the photographs you see on television usually have outline maps drawn on them, the original pictures transmitted by the satellites do not.

A number of enterprising amateur radio operators and experimenters around the world have built equipment to receive the signals directly from the satellites and print out up-to-the-minute weather pictures in their own homes. Through the use of the perspective projection program, one can generate map overlays in the same scale as the received pictures. This is particularly easy if the weather pictures are being displayed on a video screen where the map can be overlaid electronically.

The same principle is applicable to pictures received from some of the lower altitude polar orbiting weather satellites. Many of the early US APT (automatic picture transmission) satellites, such as those in the ESSA series, used a "snapshot" technique to record the images. The satellite would snap a photograph and transmit it in its entirety before snapping another one. By entering into the computer the altitude of the satellite and the coordinates of its subpoint, one could generate a map overlay to fit the photograph snapped by the satellite at that particular point.

When the next picture was snapped a few minutes later, the satellite would have traveled several hundred miles, but by entering the new coordinates a correct map overlay would be created for each picture. In actual practice, a tracking subroutine is usually incorporated to compute the coordinates of the satellite subpoint. (As exotic as this sounds, it requires only a few simple calculations.)



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Figure 3: Here the Earth is shown exactly as it appears to the Oscar 7 amateur radio communications satellite as it passes over Atlanta GA. Compare this map to that in figure 4.



VIEWED FROM 1453 KM OVER 33:45N 84:24W. FACING 0 DEG AZIMUTH
PERSPECTIVE PROJECTION PREPARED BY WILLIAM O. JOHNSTON

The newer US polar orbiting weather satellites, such as TIROS-N, use a slightly different transmission system which greatly improves the picture quality, the ease of reception, and the amount of data received. It makes the generation of map overlays more difficult, however, and the program presented here cannot be used. (Once you are familiar with the transmission system, it is not difficult to develop a program to do the job.) There are a few satellites, including some of the Soviet Meteor series spacecraft, that still use the older system, but their picture quality is relatively poor and hardly worth the effort to obtain them.

Figure 3 represents the scene below the Oscar 7 amateur radio communications relay satellite as it passes over Atlanta GA. Anyone engaged in satellite communications would do well to have available the capability for such a display. Updated in real time, it provides a continuous panorama of the area visible from the satellite and, hence, the area with which communications through the satellite are possible at any particular time. Any two or more stations can talk to one another as long as they are located within the mapped area. As the satellite moves in its orbit, the mapped area changes, but as long as your own location is within the map you can talk to all other points on the map.

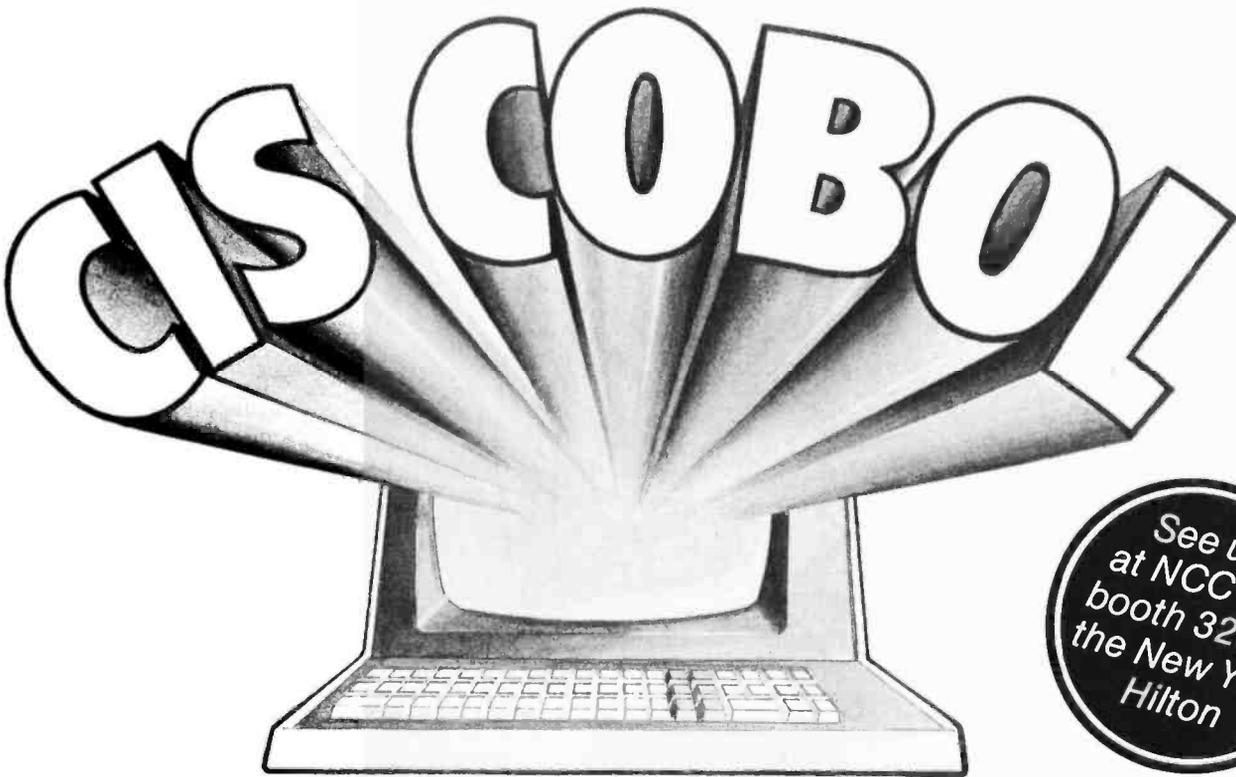
Modified Perspective Maps

We have also come upon the ideal occasion to make use of the modified perspective projection. Figure 4 illustrates the same area as that of figure 3, but the modified projection has been used to reduce some of the distortion inherent in the pure perspective version. Note the differences between the figures, especially in the west coast areas of the US, the northern coast of South America, and the upper reaches of Hudson Bay.



VIEWED FROM 1453 KM OVER 33:45N 84:24W. FACING 0 DEG AZIMUTH
MODIFIED PERSPECTIVE PROJECTION PREPARED BY WILLIAM O. JOHNSTON

Figure 4: This is the same view as that in figure 3, but here we have used the modified perspective projection to reduce some of the distortion. Compare the west coast of the United States, the northern coast of South America, and the upper reaches of Hudson Bay. Remember that both maps cover the same area.



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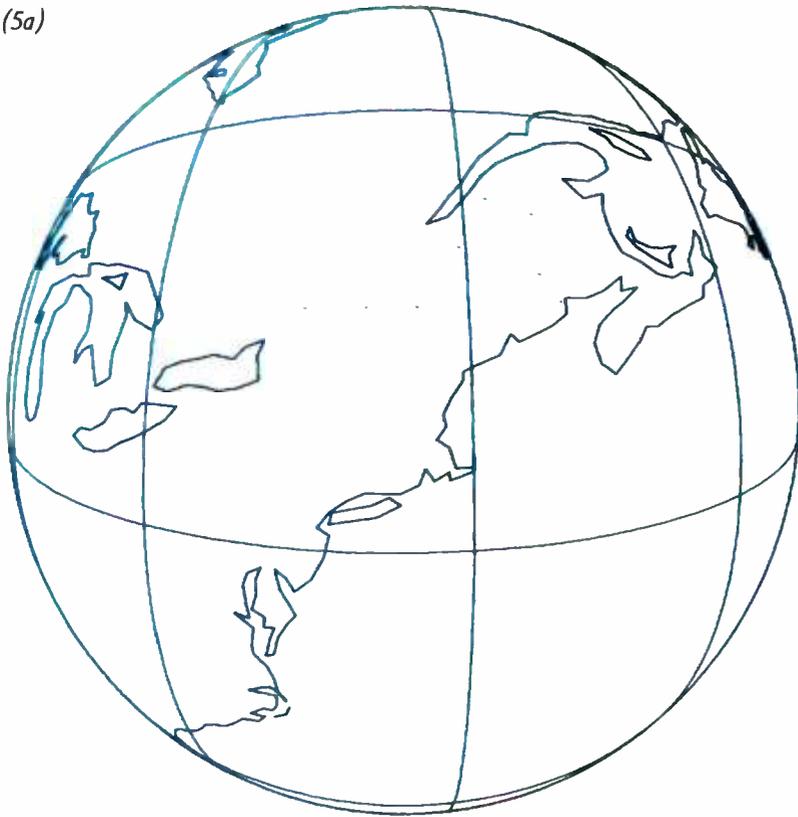
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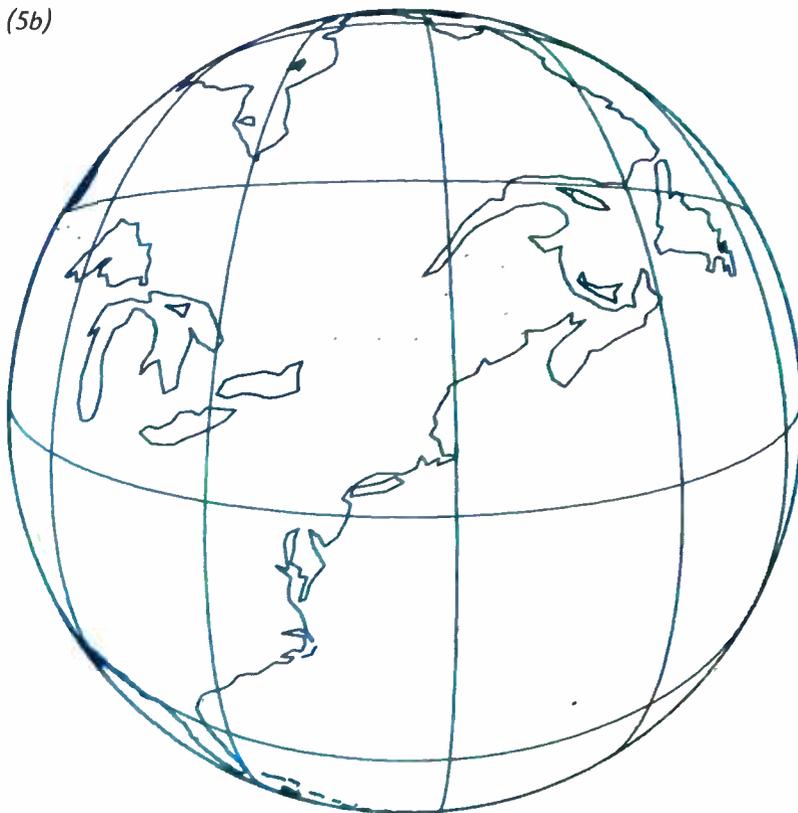


(5a)



VIEWED FROM 250 KM OVER 42:53N 71:57W, FACING 0 DEG AZIMUTH
PERSPECTIVE PROJECTION PREPARED BY WILLIAM O. JOHNSTON

(5b)



VIEWED FROM 500 KM OVER 42:53N 71:57W, FACING 0 DEG AZIMUTH
PERSPECTIVE PROJECTION PREPARED BY WILLIAM O. JOHNSTON

Figure 5: This is a sequence of views of the Earth as one would see it out the window of a spacecraft taking off from Peterborough NH. The final two views are orthographic, with the last of these illustrating the view after the spacecraft has made a 45° turn to the right. (Figures 5c, 5d, 5e and 5f are shown on pages 118 and 119.)

of Hudson Bay. While figure 3 reproduces the scene as it appears visually, figure 4 shows more clearly all of the areas with which communications can be established when the satellite is at the given point.

Incidentally, all of the Oscar satellites are at altitudes comparable to those of the various polar orbiting weather satellites. Indeed, they are launched on the same rockets. The Oscars take the place of otherwise useless ballast and are ejected a few minutes before or after the weather birds. Consequently, the pictures transmitted from this type of weather satellite, especially the earlier versions, are views similar to that shown in figure 3.

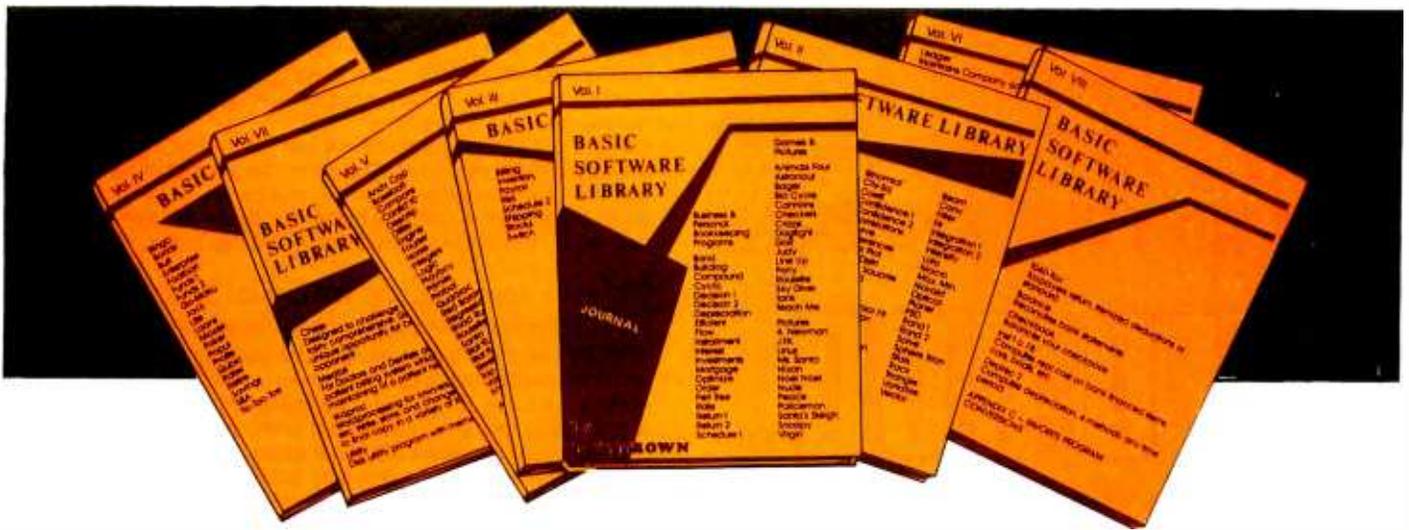
Maps for Space Games

Let us now take a look at some maps that will be of special interest to space game fans. Figures 5a through 5f comprise a sequence of views of the Earth as seen from the window of a spacecraft taking off from Peterborough NH (where BYTE Publications is located). The particular altitudes used in generating these figures were chosen arbitrarily, but they could just as well be input from the game program itself. A fairly large altitude change is required to get a significant change of scenery (assuming no lateral movement). Therefore, it is not necessary to update the display very often if the spacecraft is ascending or descending vertically. Whenever the craft is moving laterally, however, you will want to change the display more often.

The final two views in the sequence of figure 5 are orthographic; that is, the point of projection is at infinity. Although this is not truly realistic in terms of what space travelers see as they recede from the Earth, it is typical of the display that the ship's navigator might have on his video console, regardless of altitude. (Of course, the navigator would want to have a map display of an area considerably larger than what could be seen out the window.)

The last view of the sequence shows the orientation after the spacecraft has made a 45° turn to the right (assuming the observer

Text continued on page 122



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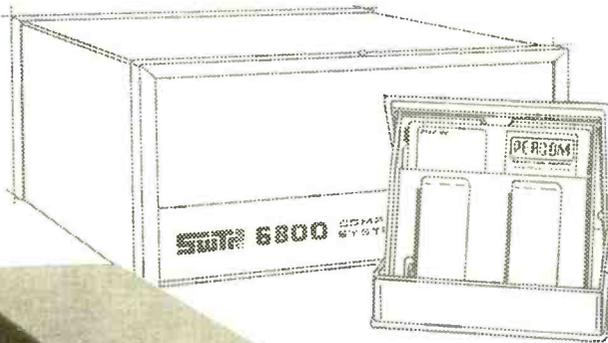
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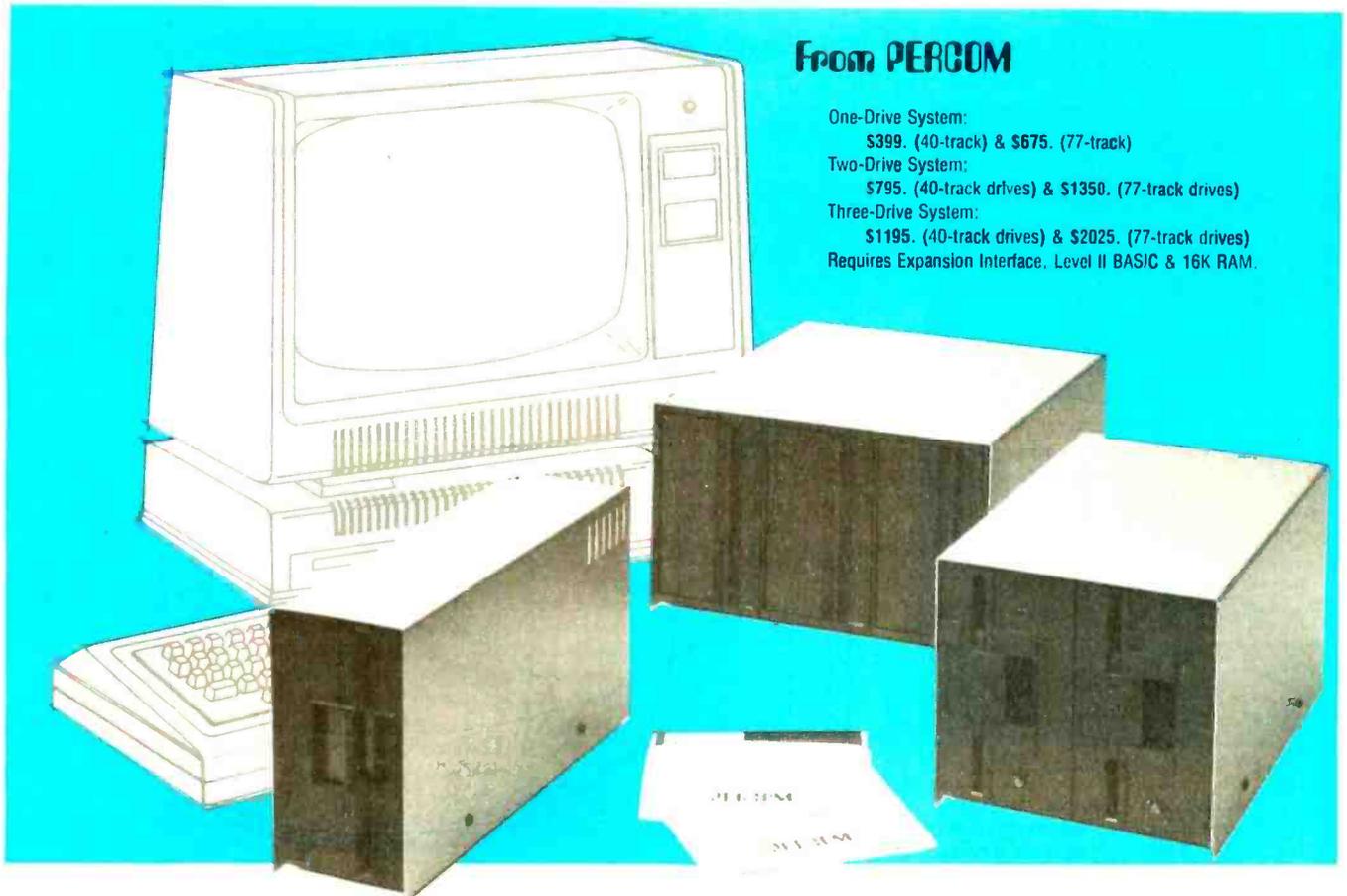
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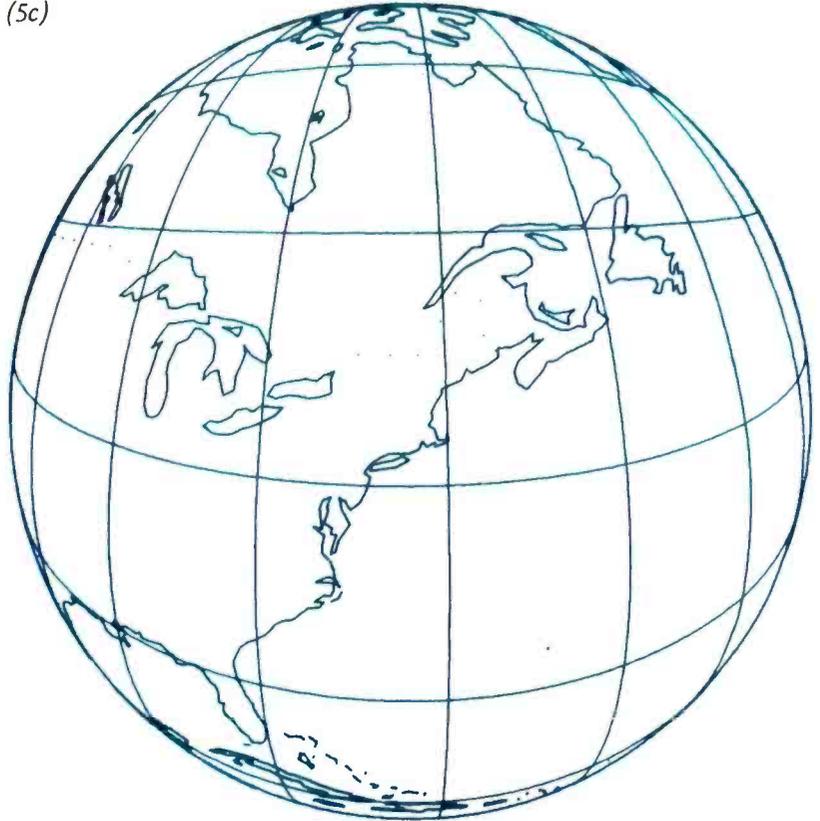
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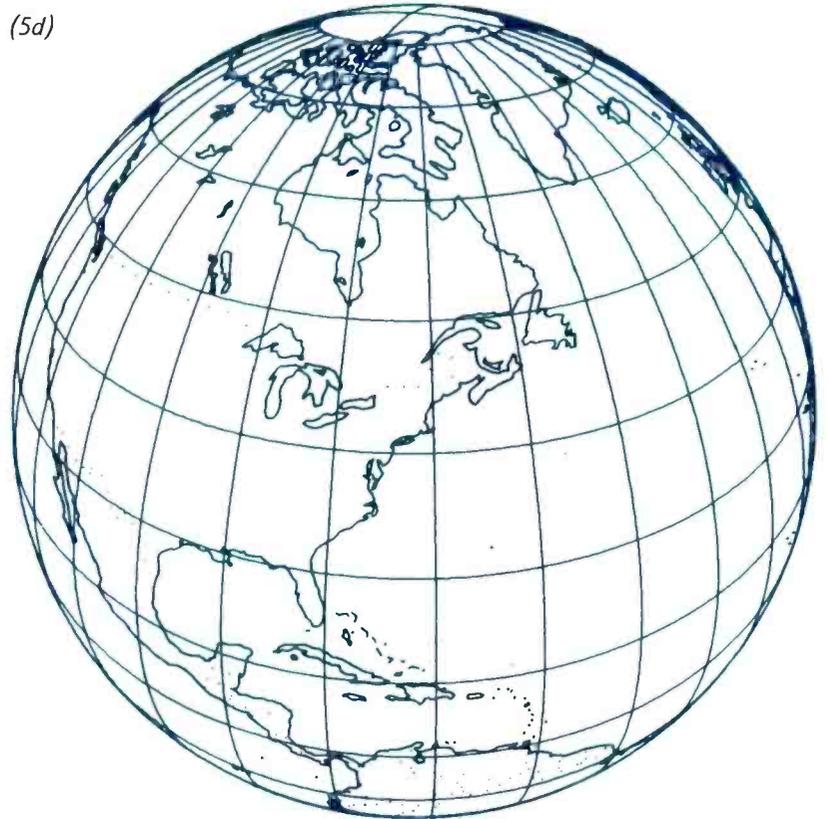
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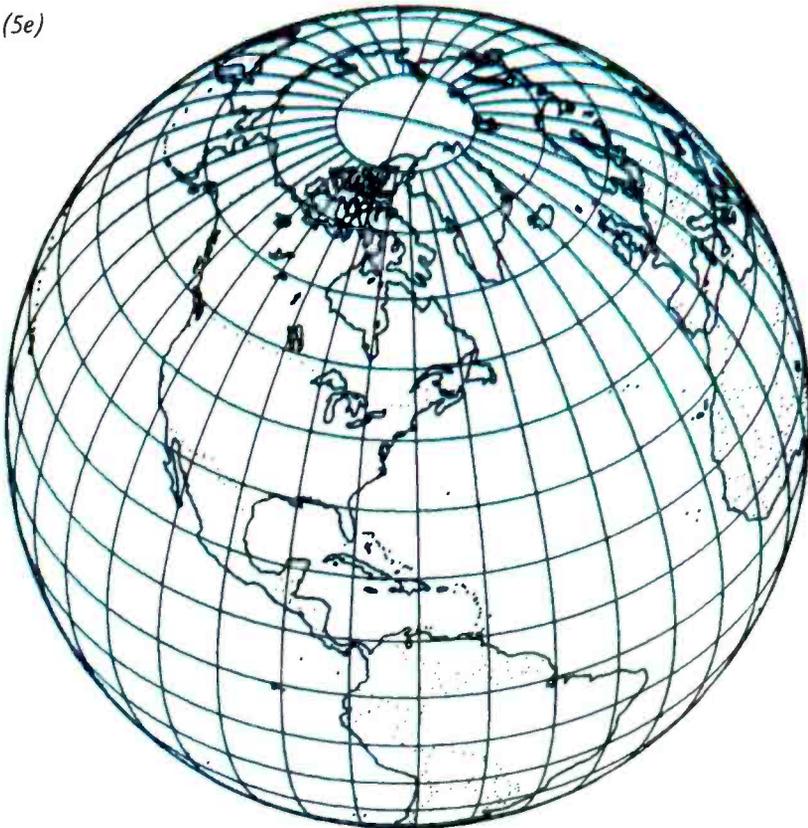
VIEWED FROM 1000 KM OVER 42:53N 71:57W. FACING 0 DEG AZIMUTH PERSPECTIVE PROJECTION PREPARED BY WILLIAM D. JOHNSTON

(5d)



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(5e)



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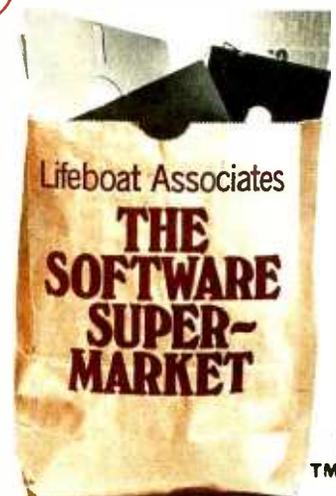
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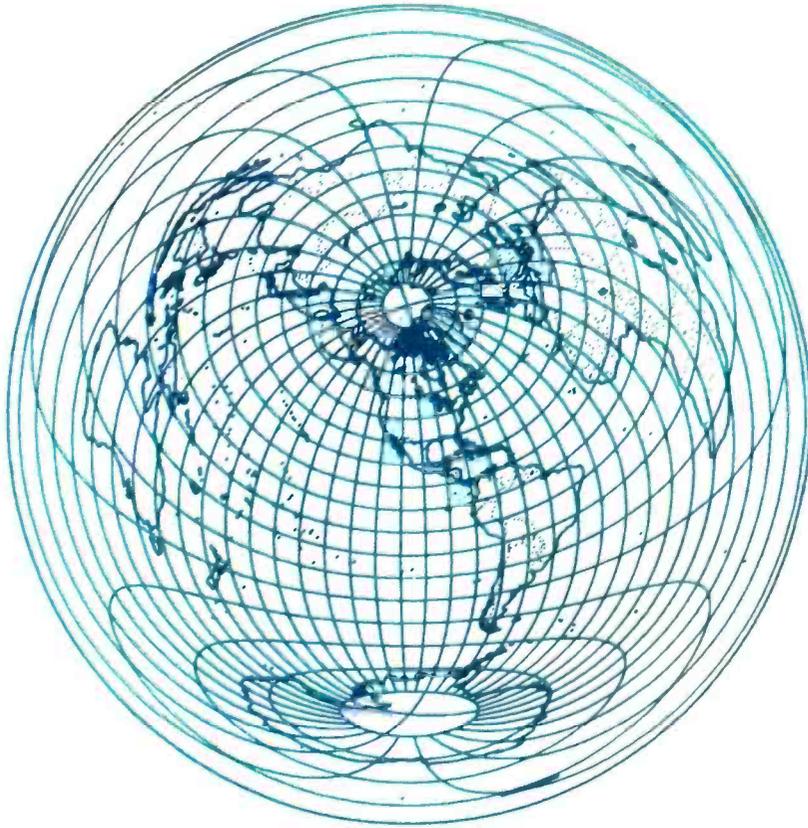
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41:58N 106:47W
 AZIMUTHAL EQUIDISTANT PROJECTION PREPARED BY WILLIAM O. JOHNSTON

Figure 6: This azimuthal equidistant map is basically the same as those illustrated in part 1. We have added a grid of meridians and parallels to emphasize geographic distribution.

Text continued from page 114: was facing north to begin with). The program permits the view to be rotated by any amount and for any map, regardless of altitude. As mentioned earlier, this feature is particularly useful when the map is being generated on a video terminal.

Azimuthal Equidistant Maps

Figure 6 illustrates a map that is very similar to the azimuthal equidistant (great circle) maps shown in part 1. The primary difference is that we have added a grid of meridians and parallels to figure 6 to give more meaning to geographic distribution. This map projection is extremely useful when applied to such fields as navigation and radio communication, but you must not forget the inherent distortions. The grid system on this map helps dramatize where these distortions lie.

Another azimuthal equidistant projection is presented in figure 7, but the coverage is limited to 90° of arc (half that of the map in figure 6). This not only expands the scale of the map, but it eliminates the portion with the greatest distortion. The example is of an Oscar satellite communications coverage map centered on a location near Geneva, Switzerland. By taking advantage of the fact that radial distances (and, hence, arc distances) from the center are linear in this type of projection, it is a simple matter to draw a circle that will indicate the maximum possible communication range through a given satellite. The central location (Geneva, in this case) can then communicate to any location within the circle, at some time or another, depending upon the satellite's position.

The map, in this example, has been overlaid with three different circles to show the maximum range for all of the currently operational satellites (Oscar 7, Oscar 8, and RS:1-2, starting with the inner circle and moving outward). Note the difference

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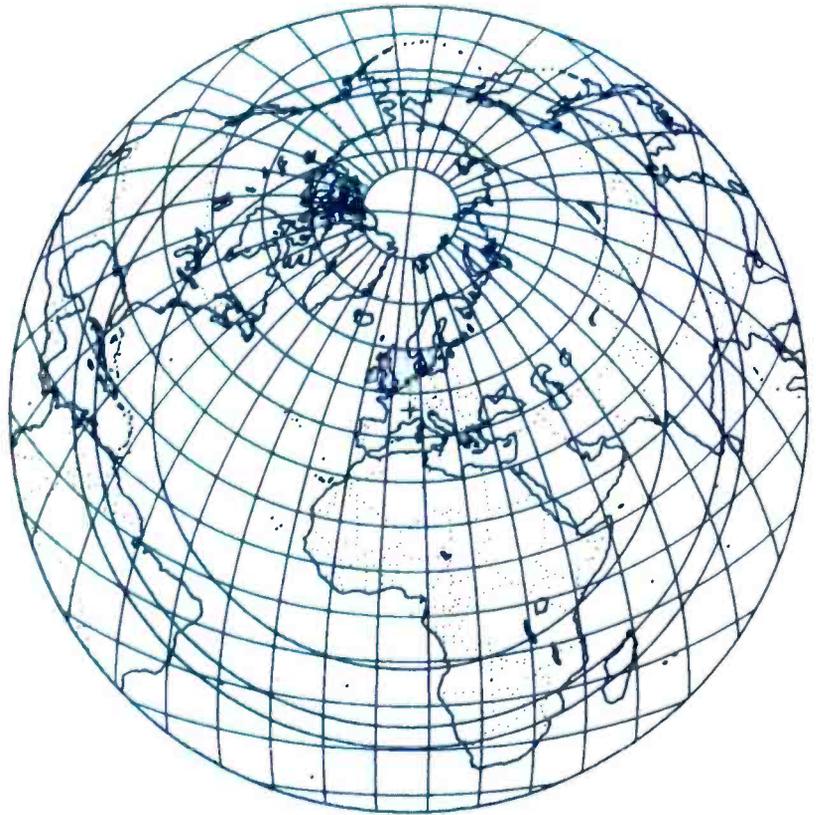
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between this map and those in figures 3 and 4. The map in figure 7 shows *all* locations with which communication is possible, irrespective of satellite position, whereas the maps of figures 3 and 4 show where communication is possible at some particular moment in time when the satellite is over a given point.

Summary

In part 1 we discussed the fundamental methods and resources required to produce any kind of map on a computer. We also presented several simple programs in BASIC, each containing only about a dozen executable statements, but which are capable of producing a number of attractive and useful map projections.

In this conclusion to "Computer Generated Maps", we have shown both the need and the means to develop a single, general purpose, map projection program with the flexibility to produce a variety of perspective and azimuthal equidistant maps. The subroutine given in listing 1 is an efficient, functional program which does just that, yet it only contains about 60 executable statements. All of the maps illustrated in this article were produced by that program, and they are only a sampling of its total capability. Whether you plan to generate maps for use with communications satellites, maps for the captain's console of a spacecraft, or maps for the sake of having maps, the program presented here can enhance your system's capability enormously and give you many hours of enjoyment. ■



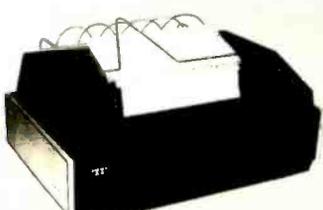
46°12N 6°09E
AZIMUTHAL EQUIDISTANT PROJECTION PREPARED BY WILLIAM D. JOHNSTON

Figure 7: Another azimuthal equidistant projection is presented here, but we have limited the coverage to 90° of arc. This expands the scale of the map. The three concentric circles that have been superimposed on this map show the maximum possible communications range from the central location, through all of the currently operational amateur radio communications satellites (Oscar 7, Oscar 8, and RS:1-2).

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Text continued from page 6:

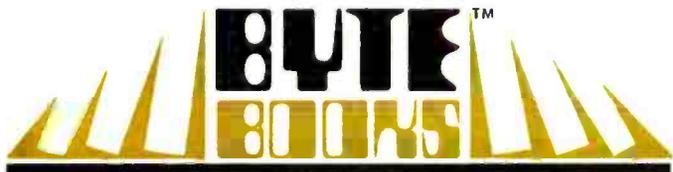
will be a more elaborate set of read only memory code which interacts with the music keyboard and a special function keyboard to be defined. Limited timbre setups of the synthesizer can then be made when it is played and isolated from the data base facilities of the Pascal machine.

As for main software, capacity will be needed to execute some form of interpretive real time control software, possibly through the use of a threaded interpretive language somewhat like Forth. Implementations of this sort of language abound: Forth, Urth, IPS, and numerous unnamed homebrew versions. Such interpreters, which are fairly simple to code in machine language without an assembler, provide an excellent path to more significant software in a homebrew situation with a new processor. Everyone I know who uses them becomes a fanatic, so there are obviously some strong emotional arguments for flexibility and power that get people addicted. Why not try one?

Hardware reflecting this requirement will perhaps be 4 K bytes of read only memory for the kernel of the interpreter design. Software design and development will, of course, be done in machine language using the Pascal machine as a filing and program development tool.

In addition to the 6809 processor, the hardware of the new machine will probably include 32 K bytes of programmable memory in the low end of address space, 16 K bytes of 2708 read only memory sockets for the various segments of the detail low level software, a serial port for the communications interface, a parallel port for the synthesizer interface, a parallel port for the music keyboard and miscellaneous key-switch inputs, several uncommitted parallel ports, and a parallel port for the Sykes floppy, borrowed from the older system to be used as a mass storage subsystem.

This new processor will reflect a number of the improvements that have been made in the experimenter's computer system art over the past few years. It will have a much smaller parts count due to the 16 K dynamic memory parts I intend to use and I will pay attention to packaging, as I want to be able to carry the results around. It will be entirely fabricated with convenient Vector Slit-N-Wrap interconnection, although I now use the motorized tool to minimize the chance of open connections which occurred when I used that method by hand. And, of course, there is the thrill of experimenting with a new processor, the 6809 design described by Terry Ritter and Joel Boney in recent issues of BYTE. ■



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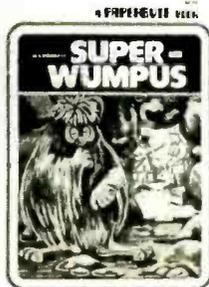
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NEW

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 micro-computer. 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
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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

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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
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BYTE News

NCC/NYC TO BE THE BIGGEST COMPUTER SHOW EVER. The National Computer Conference (NCC) will happen again June 6 thru 9. Last year 57, 224 attendees turned out for the show, held in Anaheim CA. This year the NCC will be held in the New York City Coliseum. AFIPS, the sponsoring organization, expects attendance to top that of last year. Approximately 400 companies have reserved 1,700 booth spaces on four floors of the Coliseum, with overflow at the New York Hilton and Americana hotels. Last year 396 companies occupied 1,400 booths.

NCC will have a personal computing adjunct at the Americana Hotel, a few blocks away. It will probably be played down, as it was last year. By way of example, the personal computing exhibitors and speakers were not listed in the regular show program book handed out to each attendee; hence, many attendees last year were unaware of the personal computing part of the show.

S-100 BUS STANDARD TO BE ADOPTED SOON. An IEEE committee has been working on a standard for the S-100 bus for over a year, and adoption is expected very soon. Much of the credit for this standard goes to George Morrow of Thinker Toys.

This standard will do two things. One, it will resolve the conflicts between the use of many bus pins by different manufacturers and eliminate the lack of compatibility between many "S-100 compatible" plug-in boards. Two, and possibly more important, it provides use of the S-100 bus for 16 bit processors for extended addressing of up to 8 M bytes of memory and for master-slave multiprocessor systems. This will make the S-100 bus the most powerful bus around and will, no doubt, continue and increase its popularity.

TI AND HP PC SYSTEMS RUMORS. Texas Instruments and Hewlett-Packard continue to maintain tight lips on their rumored personal computer systems. As TI has said, "TI will not discuss products that have not yet been announced." However, information has leaked out on these units which are expected to have a tremendous impact on the personal computing market. Several rumors have been reported in previous BYTE NEWS columns. The latest is that TI will introduce their entry at either the NCC show in June or the Consumer Electronics Show in July. In either event, it is expected to be ready for the 1979 Christmas market.

The HP computer is also expected to be ready by Christmas, and is anticipated to be a stripped down version of their current table-top system. This means that it will use BASIC and be expandable.

Both HP and TI are expected to have \$500 list prices for the basic unit. Key retailers have already been approached by both TI and HP to set up a selective distribution. It is rumored that they will favor selected personal computing stores that can do justice to software requirements.

INTEL TO PRODUCE ANALOG MICROPROCESSOR AND SUPER 8 BIT MICROPROCESSORS. Real time processing of analog signals by microprocessors has been severely limited by the slow speed of most microprocessors. For example, an 8080 clocked at 2 M Hz can, at best, synthesize clean sine waves at about 1 to 2 k Hz, which is the low end of the audio spectrum. This fall, Intel will introduce an integrated circuit which combines an analog-to-digital converter, a digital-to-analog converter, microprocessor and read only memory on a single device. It will be capable of processing analog signals up to 13 k Hz. Called the 2920, the integrated circuit will have a 9 bit conversion register. It could be used in conjunction with an 8080 processor, where the 2920 does the signal processing while the 8080 does the data processing.

Intel has done another clever thing. They have taken an 8086 and limited its data I/O (input/output) to 8 bits and memory addressing to 16 bits. It is called the 8088 and will deliver five times the performance of the 8080 (2 M Hz). Actually, the 8088 is an 8086 split into two 8 bit microprocessors on one integrated circuit, one handling I/O and the other data processing. It offers most of the features of the 8086 (eg: hardware multiply/divide).

NATIONAL SEMICONDUCTOR TO INTRODUCE NEW MICROS. It is nearly three years since National introduced their last microprocessor. (Actually, we must give National credit for pioneering the 16 bit microprocessor with the PACE and IMP-16 microprocessors introduced in 1975.) Now National is bringing out a new CMOS 8 bit microprocessor that will be software compatible with the 8080, have added features and consume less power. Further, they will introduce a 16 bit microprocessor that is a "cut above" the Z-8000 and 68000. Production is expected by the end of the year.

MICROPROCESSORS FOR \$1 APIECE? Maybe not this year. . . but it is approaching fast. Synertek recently reduced the 100 lot price for the 6502 (used in the PET, Apple, OSI, etc) from \$10 to \$7. In high volume they have reduced the price from \$4 to \$2.50. I can still remember paying \$350 for an 8080, just four years ago!

DOUBLE SIDED DISK DRIVES STILL IN LIMITED PRODUCTION. Despite advertising and promotion for double sided disk drives, most makers are still having trouble gearing up from prototype runs to full production. Shugart Associates, for example, does not expect to be in normal production until the end of the year.

COLOR VIDEO TERMINALS COMING ON STRONG. The prices of color video terminals, which until now have been very expensive as compared to black and white video terminals, are expected to decrease substantially within the coming year. Further, they will have more features. The reasons for the price decrease are cost reduction in electronics and increased production, as demand increases. More businesses are finding that the difference in price for color is worth it in many applications, an example being Management Information Systems. We can expect low cost color video terminals on the market for under \$1,000.

At the same time, manufacturers are developing driver software for video terminals which exploit the color capability, in particular, combining graphics and alphanumeric. One example would be bit map routines allowing the creation of multiple graphics regions on the video terminal while having alphanumeric regions.

PASCAL NOW AVAILABLE FOR 6800. All 6800 owners who have been envious of the Pascal that is available to other processor users can now have their own Pascal. Control Systems Inc, Kansas City KS, has just introduced a 6800 version of the UCSD Pascal, Version II.

HOW ABOUT A COMPUTER VACATION? Want to combine vacation and hobby? A group of 20 to 50 personal computerists are doing just that during Christmas week. They have organized a weeklong workshop to be held at a Caribbean resort. Families are welcome. If you are interested in participating, write either Dr Andy Bender, 400 Old Hook Rd, Westwood NJ 07675, or Dr Jeff Brownstein, 2 Tor Rd, Wappinger Falls NY 12590.

QUIP VERSUS THE DIP. The new 16 bit microprocessors and the 32 bit microprocessors on the drawing boards have created packaging problems for integrated circuit makers. How are they going to get all addressing, data, I/O (input/output) lines on an integrated circuit package? Anyone who handles 40 pin dual-in-line packages knows the handling problem. Well, Intel and 3M have jointly developed a new 64 pin integrated circuit header called QUIP (quad-in-line package). It will have two rows of 16 pins along both edges of the package and will shrink the package from 3 1/8 inches, for a 64 pin dual-in-line package (DIP) to 1 5/8 inches for a QUIP. Further, internal lead paths will decrease, reducing capacitance, resistance and inductance, and allowing higher operating speeds. Pins will still be on 0.1 inch centers and the QUIP will cost 15 percent less than the DIP.

4 K BYTE PROGRAMMABLE MEMORY INTRODUCED. As the size of memory circuits increases, integrated circuit makers are going the byte-size memory route to afford easier interfacing to microprocessor buses. Zilog is the first to introduce an 8 bit byte programmable memory. Called the Z6132, it is a 32 K bit memory organized as 4 K words by 8 bits. It uses a one transistor memory cell and includes on-chip refresh control circuitry. Pinout permits easy use in 16 bit systems. Hardware keeps getting easier!

DOD LOVES ADA. After years of trying to standardize a high level computer language, the United States Department of Defense (DOD) has created a special group for this purpose. The final approved language will be called ADA, after Ada Augusta, Countess of Lovelace, who is credited with being the very first programmer.

The DOD have narrowed their choice to two different Pascal-like designs. The preliminary design is due for delivery in May of this year, with final approval expected at the end of the year.

LIQUID CRYSTAL DISPLAYS IMPROVING. The graphics terminal marketplace is going to see some radical changes within the next few years as new technologies develop to compete with the age old video type graphics terminal technology. Plasma panel and liquid crystal display elements (LCDE) are examples of a new graphics technology. The plasma panels offer higher brightness, no flicker, and touch sensing ability. The LCDE are created by a scanning laser beam. The LCDE have their own memory, and do not have to be refreshed. Further, they offer very high resolution, color and projection capabilities. Both Western Electric and IBM are doing developmental work in this area.

DEC OPENS SECOND RETAIL STORE. Digital Equipment Corp recently opened its second store in Boston. Their first store was opened in New Hampshire in July of last year. More stores are planned for "off the shelf" purchases. Further, the stores will offer services such as mail list generation and word processing.

COMPUTER STORES' FUTURE APPEARS EXCELLENT. According to a recently completed study by marketing research firm Frost and Sullivan, the main distribution channel for microcomputer systems will continue to be the dedicated computer store, for many years. The hobby business will continue to increase, but at a lower rate. The larger increase will come from small business purchases.

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The Nature of Robots

Part 1: Defining Behavior

William T Powers
1133 Whitfield Rd
Northbrook IL 60062

A scientific revolution is just around the corner, and anyone with a personal computer can participate in it. The last time this happened, 250 years ago, the equipment was the homebrew telescope and the subject was astronomy. Now, astronomy belongs just as much to amateurs as to professionals. This time the particular subject matter is human nature and in a broader scope, the nature of all living systems. Some ancient and thoroughly accepted principles are going to be overturned, and the whole direction of scientific investigation of life processes will change.

The key concept behind this revolution is control theory. Control theory has been developing for almost 40 years, and has already been proposed (by Norbert Wiener) as a revolutionary concept. It has not been easy, however, to see just how control theory can be made part of existing scientific approaches although many people have tried. Most of these attempts have tried to wedge control theory into existing patterns of thought. To apply any new idea in such a way, while ignoring the new conceptual scheme made possible, is to deny the full potential of the new idea.

Many life scientists who have tried to use control theory have tried to imitate the engineering approach, dealing with human beings as part of a man-machine system instead of complete control systems in their own right. Others have used control theory directly to make models of human and animal behavior, but have concentrated on minor subsystems, failing to see that the organism as a whole can be dealt with in terms of the same principles. The result has often been a strange mixture of concepts -- a patchwork instead of a system.

Strangely enough, many engineers who do understand control theory haven't done much better. Here the problem is that these

engineers tend to accept the basic concepts developed by biologists and psychologists, and to use control theory to explain cause-effect relationships they are told exist -- but which in fact do not exist. We will start this development by looking at something called *behavior*, which biologists and psychologists have assured engineers is very important, thereby leading the engineers astray.

What is all this supposed to mean? A lot is meant, though in different ways. Roboticians, for example, are trying to develop machines which will imitate human organization, and so are the artificial intelligence experimenters. But from whence came the description of the system they are trying to model? Basically, it came from the life sciences. If the life sciences are using the wrong model, it would be essential to know that before much more labor is invested in imitating an imaginary creature.

Perhaps the most general reason control theory is interesting is that it concerns people. There aren't many sciences left in which important discoveries can be made by amateurs working at their own tables. Control theory opens up an entirely new field of experimentation, a kind that has never been done before in psychology or any other life science.

All that is needed by amateurs who want to participate in these developments is a basic grasp of control theory, an understanding of the procedures that go with it, some basic equipment, and curiosity about human nature. I shall now provide the first two items on that list. The rest is up to you.

The Problem With Behavior

The word *behavior* is used frequently -- we hear about behavioral science, behavior modification, behavior therapy. For example, *Science News* now has a "Behavior Column";

BYTE's Bugs

A Negative Sine

The arcsine and arccosine routines discussed in "Inverse Trig Functions" by Alan Miller (March 1979 BYTE, page 92) will not work for negative values of X. For arcsine, I recommend (in Mr Miller's notation):

```
DEF FNSN(X) = ATN(X/SQR(1-X*X))
```

and for cosine:

```
DEF FNCS(X) =  
1.570796327-ATN(X/SQR(1-X*X)).
```

The constant 1.570796327 is, of course, $\pi/2$. These routines give the correct principal value for any value of X with an absolute value of less than 1.

John A Ball
Oak Hill Rd
Harvard MA 01451 ■

BYTE's Bits

Robot Information

James A Gupton Jr, author of "Talk to a Turtle" which appears in this issue of BYTE, has offered the following additional sources for robot information:

International Institute for Robotics
POB 615
Pelahatchie MI 39145
Attention: Dale Cowser, Director

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it was formerly the publication's "Psychology Column". An innocent bystander might conclude that any word this important must have a universally accepted definition, but that is not true. Behavior is a slippery concept.

Here is an example of a person behaving. Chip Chad is seated in front of a teletypewriter pounding keys. What is he doing?

Is he alternately tensing and relaxing muscles in his arms? Yes. Is he moving his fingers up and down? Yes. Is he typing strings of symbols? Yes. Is he adding a return instruction that he forgot at the end of a subroutine? Yes. Is he writing a program for plotting stock market prices? Yes. Is he making a little extra money for a vacation? Yes. Is he justifying his hobby to his family? Yes.

Clearly, each description of what Chip is doing is, in fact, an accurate description of the very same collection of actions. Which one, then, is Chip's behavior? Obviously, they all are expressions of behavior.

Suppose Chip decides that he really doesn't need a subroutine, and substitutes a jump instruction for the return. Now, he is writing the program — obviously the same program — by using a different behavior. Or suppose he buys an input device, and continues working on the subroutine by speaking letters into a microphone. Now he is using different muscles and movements, but he is still doing the same behaviors farther down the list. How could he be doing the same thing by means of doing something different?

Or consider Chip driving a car along a straight road. He is consciously steering. This happens to be a gusty March day, and every five minutes the wind changes speed and direction. Chip is an experienced driver, and continues to steer the car down the road in a straight line. If we look at what his arms are doing, however, we find that they are moving the steering wheel in an apparently random pattern, now centered, now far to the right, now far to the left. Somehow he is managing to produce a constant steering-the-car behavior by means of a behavior that is widely varying. The path of the car doesn't correlate with the position of the steering wheel at all.

Scientists have always thought of behavior as the final product of activity inside the organism. The brain sends commands to the muscles, which create forces, which produce movements, which generate the stable and repeatable patterns we recognize as behavior. There is, in principle, a chain of cause and effect, with the events at the end of the chain being caused by the events at the beginning. Such scientists would say

that in the example with Chip at the computer keyboard, we were simply attending to various stages in that chain.

How does that picture fit in with Chip's driving the car in a straight line? The direction in which the car is going is affected by his movements of the steering wheel, and is farther out along the chain of causes and effects. But the wind adds its effects on the direction of the car *after* Chip's effects in the chain. Somehow he is varying his actions so that when their effects are added to the effects of the randomly varied wind, the result is something constant. If we had been thinking of driving the car in a straight line as Chip's behavior, we have to revise that idea: the direction of the car depends just as much on the wind as on Chip.

It may seem that we have simply moved our definition of behavior closer to Chip. But consider *how* he moves the steering wheel. The wheel moves when the forces reflected from the front wheels do not exactly balance the forces created by his muscles. As the car goes along, the roadbed tilts and various bumps and dips cause changes in the reflected forces. The wheel may be turned far to the right, into the crosswind, on the average, but maintaining the wheel in that position requires that his muscles be constantly changing tension, as the reflected steering wheel forces fluctuate. We have the same problem as before: Chip produces a varying output that affects the steering wheel, but the steering wheel is also being affected by forces that are independent of what Chip is doing with his muscles. Yet the *sum* of the muscle forces and those extraneous forces is zero, except when the steering wheel is changing position.

Even if we back up another step and call Chip's muscle tensions his behavior, we have trouble. Muscles are made to contract by signals from the nervous system, but muscles don't respond the same amount to a given signal every time they are used. They fatigue; other muscles interfere with them; joint angles change so that a given muscle tension can produce different amounts and directions of force. The only *behavior* that Chip produces which can be attributed entirely to Chip and not in part to his environment consists of the nerve signals that leave his nervous system and enter his muscles.

If we want to be completely accurate about Chip's behavior, we should consider the output signals from his nervous system, and leave everything else in his environment. That is what we will do, but by doing that we create the biggest problem of all.

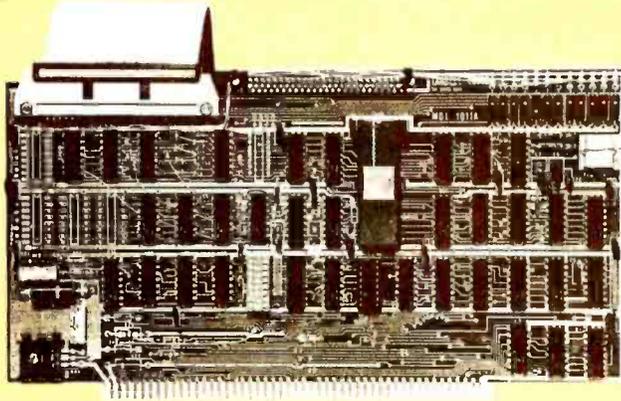
A scientist studying a behavior hopes to learn enough about its rules to predict when

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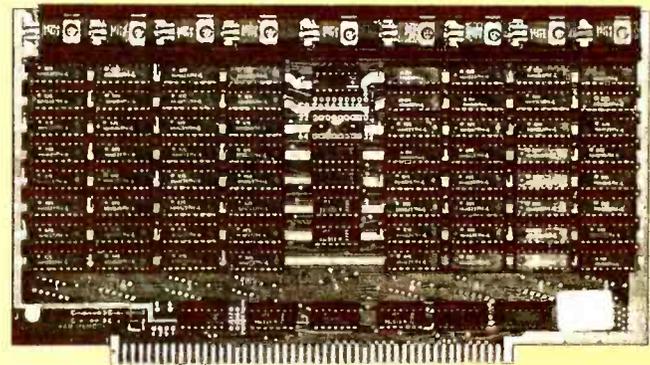
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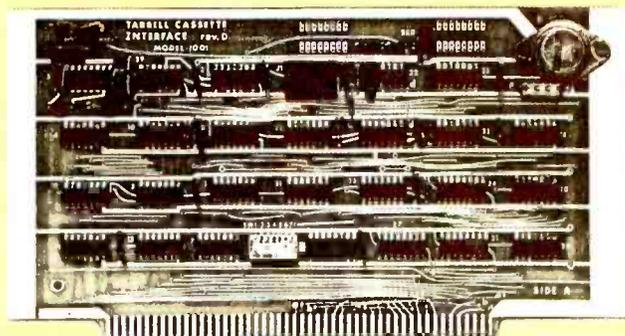
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it will occur. Under the old approach, this means varying factors in the environment and looking for behaviors that correlate with those variations. But if we try to describe behavior in terms of the output signals from the nervous system, all correlations disappear. Oh, maybe we have a knee jerk or a sneeze left over, but we have lost all the regularities that give us some reason to talk about behavior in the first place. We would never guess, from looking at Chip's neural signal outputs, that the result of them would be a straight path of a car that is being forced one way and another by a variable crosswind.

When you pause and reflect upon what has been covered so far, you will realize that we are already deep into control theory, even though we haven't discussed it by name yet. We have dealt with the subject as such because the discussion concerns a fundamental difficulty with the very concept of behavior, especially the concept that behavior is the final product of an organism's inner activities. As we see how this difficulty gets resolved, we will be forced into control theory no matter how we approach the solution. One reason biologists or psychologists have not developed control theory is that they have clung stubbornly to the idea that behavior is part of a causal chain that starts in the nervous system (or in stimuli that cause activity in the nervous system) and propagates outward from there according to physical laws of cause and effect. That is why people design robots in the same way, and why those robots have yet to behave in a way that is convincingly alive. In order to solve this

problem instead of just brushing it aside, we have to admit that the causal chain in which people have believed for so long simply does not exist, and never has existed.

Figure 1 sums up the problem we are dealing with. At every stage of events following the outputs from Chip's nervous system *disturbances* come into play, adding to the effects that can be traced to the neural signals. As we go farther to the right of the figure, we might expect that any regularities in Chip's output signals would be lost (ie: that each successive variable would show more and more random variations).

Exactly the opposite is true. The farther to the right we go in figure 1, the *less* random variation occurs. The variable farthest to the right, the relationship of the car to its lane, can remain constant within a few inches for hour after hour. We find that this is the *most* stable variable in the chain, and that as we go backward up the chain toward Chip's nervous system, the random-looking variations get larger and larger. At the beginning of the chain the variations become totally unpredictable.

Consider figure 2; we added the effects of external events on a nervous system. According to the old picture still fundamental to most life sciences, external events act on the physical structure of the nervous system (along with internal events such as changes in body chemistry), and cause outputs to occur. Those outputs have consequences which show up at the end of the chain as behavioral patterns. To study the organization of behavior, you manipulate the external events, and look for regular behaviors that result (of course, you find them).

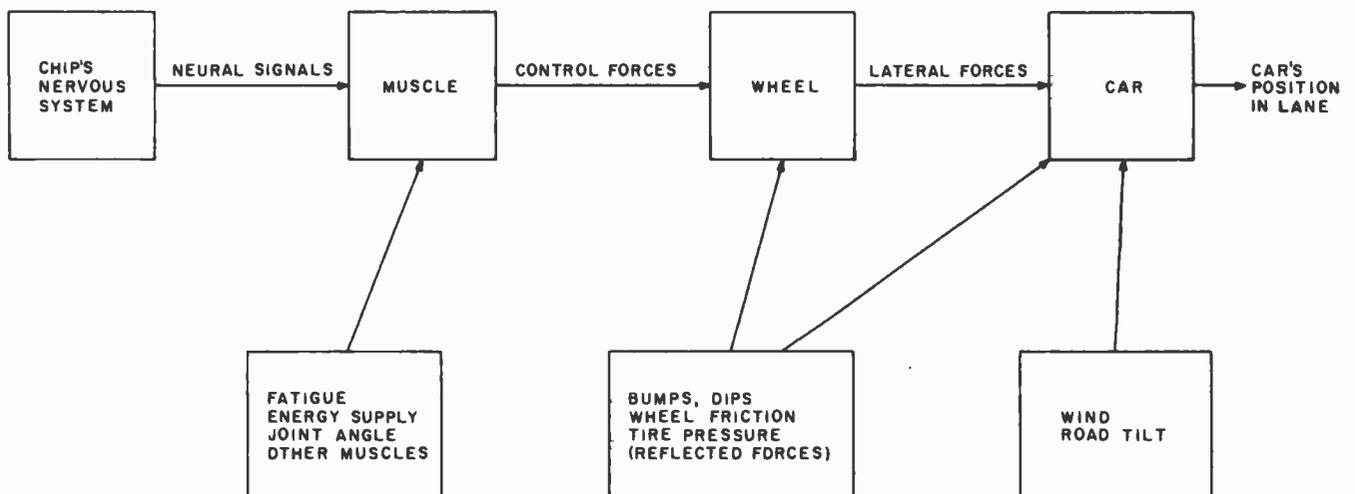


Figure 1: The cause and effect chain leading to behavior. The behavior called "driving in a straight line" is anything but simple. Some psychologists speak of behavior as simply being emitted by an organism, but this is clearly an inadequate concept. Between the nervous system and the stable pattern it appears to produce, disturbances come into play, having just as much effect on the final outcome as the nervous system has. Nevertheless, the most regularity appears at the end of this chain, and the least at the beginning.



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About the Author

William T Powers has been exploring the meaning of control theory for studies of human nature since 1953, when he was working as a health physicist at the University of Chicago. Since that time he has spent a number of years (to 1960) in medical physics, and then another 13 (to 1975) as Chief Systems Engineer for the Department of Astronomy at Northwestern University. His occupation has been designing electronic, optical, and mechanical systems for science. Powers' book, *Behavior: The Control of Perception* (Aldine, 1973) was quite well received. At the moment he consults in one-of-a-kind electronics.

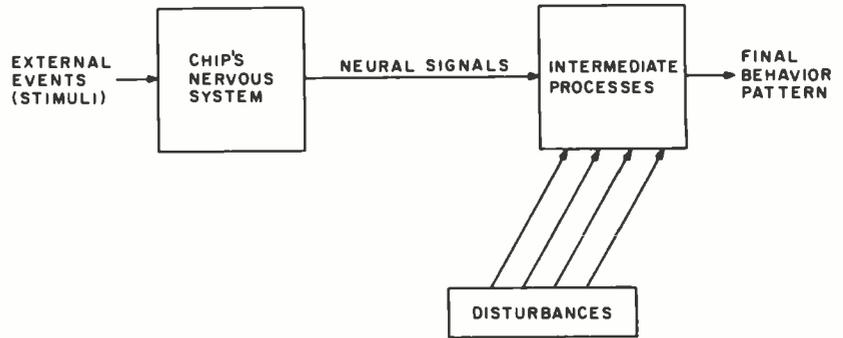


Figure 2: The old model of behavior. In this old model of behavior, environmental "forces" act on the nervous system to make it produce behavior. The logic of this straight-through, cause and effect chain is spoiled by the presence of disturbances which act after the last physical output of the nervous system (ie: neural signals that activate muscles). This cannot be the correct model for stable behavior.

But in figure 2 we also see those random disturbances. The only way to get away from them is to make sure that the environment remains absolutely stable (ie: that nothing happens which can interfere with behavior). The standard approach requires eliminating those disturbances, for the simple reason that if they are not eliminated, the experimental results disappear into the background noise. Thus by eliminating disturbances as completely as possible, under the guise of establishing standard (ie: control) experimental conditions, some scientists have swept this basic problem under the rug. They have also done away with the principal tool we have for understanding how these systems really work. If there are no disturbances, then the idea of a cause-effect chain running from external events through the organism to behavior seems to hold up, more or less. As soon as natural disturbances are allowed to occur, we find that the *overall* connection from external event to final behavior remains as clear as ever; but, the model of what happens in between falls to pieces with a loud crash.

Closing the Loop

There seems to be nothing wrong with figure 2; nothing, that is, except that it cannot account for the regularities of behavior. There is something wrong; something has been left out. Let's focus on the final variable in the chain, the position of the car relative to the lane. What variable that could affect Chip's senses, do you suppose, would have the most to do with his manipulations of the steering wheel? The position of the car relative to the lane. This variable is both the consequence

of Chip's actions, and the main source of sensory information that could cause him to act (see figure 3).

Psychologists have gone this way before. They have tried to make sense of this situation by supposing that the behavioral variable is somehow different from the stimulus variable. If the position of the car relative to its lane is the behavioral variable, then perhaps the onset of a change in the visual image of the road is the stimulus variable. That leads to the idea of a *chain* of stimuli and responses. The car drifts in its lane; that stimulates Chip's nervous system to make a response, which affects the physical position of the car in its lane, which causes a new change in the stimulus, and so on around and around.

There are several severe difficulties with this explanation. In the first place, there is no way to separate the visual image from the position of the car; these are just two ways of talking about one whole physical situation in which a certain collection of interdependent variables changes simultaneously. The alternation between stimulus and response is completely imaginary, as anyone who drives knows. If causes and effects really were sequential, and chased themselves around and around the loop, it is unlikely that Chip would keep the car on the road for more than ten seconds. In part 2 we'll do a proper simulation in BASIC, and you will see that when the system is designed to behave sequentially, the result is most likely to be violent oscillations.

There is no reason at all to make an artificial distinction between the position of the car on the road as a behavioral response and as the stimulus which causes the response. Only one physical situation

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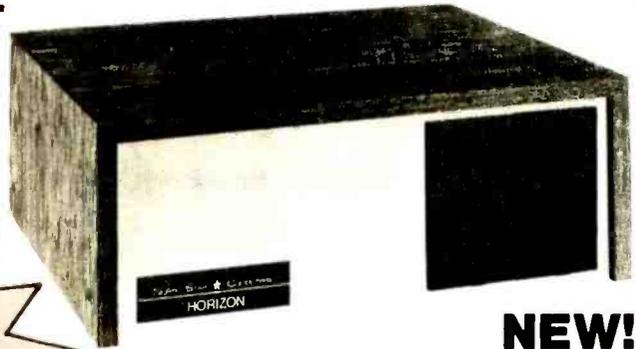
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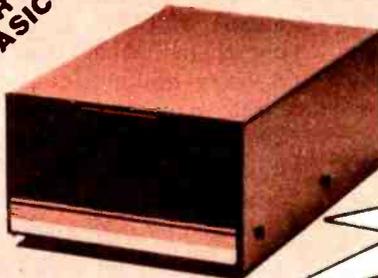
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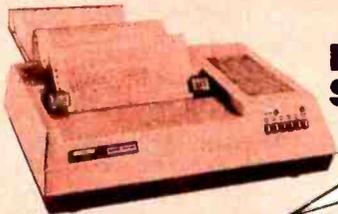
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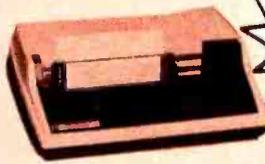
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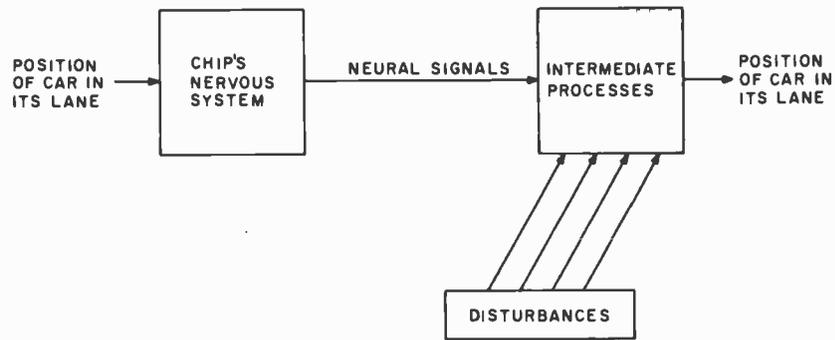


Figure 3: A slightly different view of the old model of behavior. The principle stimulus involved in driving a car in a straight line is the position of the car in its lane. This is the same variable that is the measure of behavior. The variable that is the final outcome of Chip's actions is the same variable that provides inputs to the nervous system that is acting. The variable at the causal end of the chain is the same variable found at the effective end of the chain.

exists, and there is no need to present it in two disguises. The position of the car on the road is both an effect of Chip's actions and the sensory situation which leads (with a little help from Chip) to those actions. There is a closed loop of cause and effect, and the position of the car is just one part of that loop.

Now we begin to draw a diagram of a proper control system. In figure 4, three physical quantities are shown, an *output* quantity, an *input* quantity, and a *disturbing* quantity.

The output quantity corresponds to an

output of Chip's that is entirely due to himself (ie: perhaps due to the neural signals reaching his muscles or to some variable farther down the chain of figure 2, revealed when disturbances are known or can be legitimately eliminated).

The input quantity is the variable that is stabilized by the variations in Chip's output. Thus we call the input quantity, here, the position of the car relative to its lane. Of course, by that we mean whatever it is about that position that can be a sensory input to Chip (ie: probably a visual image of the hood of the car and the road beyond, framed in the windshield).

Between the output quantity and the input quantity is placed a *feedback function*. This function expresses the physical links that exist between Chip's output quantity and the input quantity. In the case of a moving car, if the output quantity were the angle of the steering wheel, which it might be if the angle is also a controlled quantity, then the effect of the wheel angle would be a continual change of car position, and the feedback function would have to include at least one time integration. The feedback function is simply a description of the physical processes which give each magnitude and direction of the output quantity a contribution to the state of the input quantity.

In figure 4 we also include disturbances as an integral part of the diagram of the system. The disturbing quantity in this case would be wind velocity and direction, and the *disturbance function* connecting it to the input quantity would express the way in which aerodynamic laws convert wind velocity into effects on the car's position in its lane.

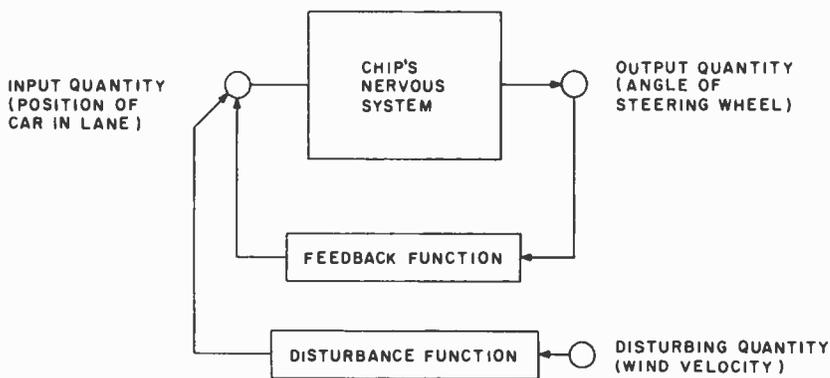


Figure 4: Closing the loop. By rearranging the relationships shown in figure 3 and eliminating the redundant appearance of the car position, we create a closed loop diagram. This is the general form of a control system diagram that will be used in this series from now on. The controlled variable is always the input quantity; the output quantity is the means of control. The single disturbance shown represents the net effective disturbance if more than one is acting at the same time. The disturbing function is chosen to provide the proper net contribution to the input quantity. The feedback function represents links external to the behaving nervous system through which outputs are transformed into contributions to the state of the input quantity.

The state of the input quantity, therefore, can be expressed in terms of all effects which contribute to it. We have shown only the output quantity and the disturbance due to wind. Many other disturbances — low tires, or tight wheel bearings, or gradation in the road — could also contribute to the state of the input quantity at the same time. All disturbances, however, can be reduced to a single one, since no matter what the cause of the disturbance, the only effect that matters is the effect on lateral position of the car.

Chip himself can be represented by a function, a function that converts the sensed position of the car into a steering wheel angle. This *system function* (system, being short for behaving system) will surely contain delays, nonlinearities, and even variations of its parameters. At first glance it may seem a terrible oversimplification to reduce a whole human being to a simple input/output box, but the situation isn't that bad. We are centering this diagram around the input quantity, not around Chip as a whole; therefore the "Chip box" does not wholly represent him, but only that part which reacts to changes in the input quantity by altering the output quantity. Furthermore, the Chip box (ie: the system function) is not quite as simple as it seems even after being simplified a great deal.

The functions connecting the variables in this closed loop can be extremely complex, and even to approach this system analytically will obviously require some approximations. This is not the place to justify every simplification; sometimes complex mathematics are required to reach a simple conclusion. I'll drop some hints along the way about how the simplified model is generated and why it works, but if you really want to get into this, study a text on servo-mechanism design.

Simulating Chip

Let us conclude by building a working simulator of Chip driving the car. This is just a hint of what this 4 part series of articles will develop. Building the simulator requires building some special numbers into the program without any explanation at present. The point is to enjoy the simulation, and get used to the idea that everything in a control loop happens at the same time.

We will assume that the steering wheel angle to left or right of center is Chip's output quantity, and that there are no disturbances that can interfere at this point. This output quantity will be called A.

Under the influence of A alone, the car

would drift sideways at a rate proportional to A, for small deviations from the center of the lane. Designating the crosswind velocity as W, if W were the only influence acting, the car would drift sideways at a rate proportional to W (in this somewhat oversimplified universe). In the BASIC program we will assume that each iteration corresponds to a fixed amount of elapsed time, so the distance D that the car will drift during any one iteration is simply the sum of the two influences acting on it (line numbers correlate with listing 1):

$$7 \quad D = K1 * W + K2 * A$$

The position, I, of the car relative to its lane will change by an amount D on each iteration:

$$8 \quad I = I + D$$

Now I must introduce a detail: if we just had Chip respond proportionally to the deviation of car position, we would have to make his muscles so flabby that hardly any response would occur, unless we wanted to demonstrate self-immolating oscillations. We have to take care of two destabilizing factors. First, the feedback function is essentially

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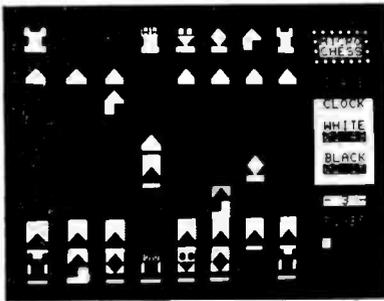
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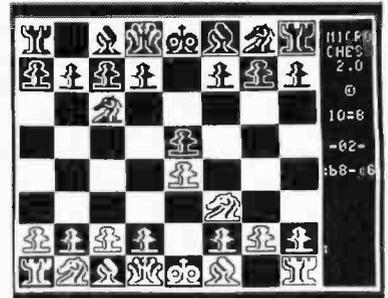
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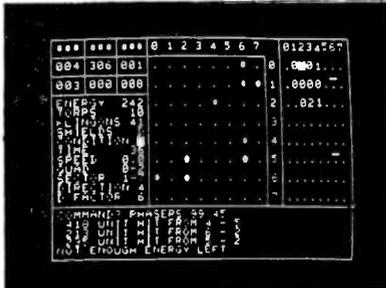


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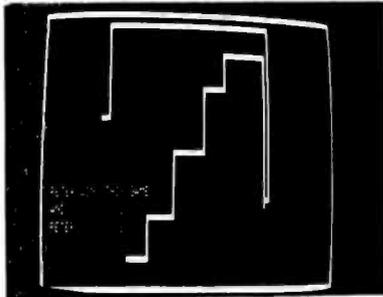


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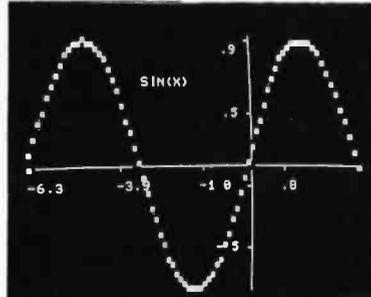


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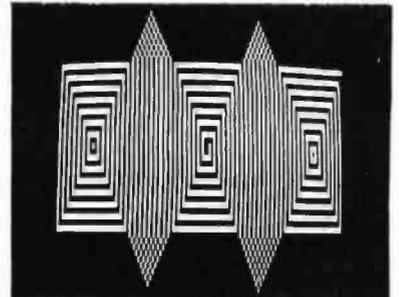
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```

1 INPUT "WIND, MPH: ",W
2 PRINT "WHEEL ANGLE, DEGREES",
3 PRINT TAB(25),"CAR DEVIATION, FEET"
4 FOR J=1 TO 10
5 PRINT %7F1," ",A*10,
6 PRINT %7F1,TAB(25),I
7 D=.05*W+A
8 I=I+D
9 A1=-2*(I+.8*D)
10 A=A+.200*(A1-A)
11 NEXT
12 GOTO 1
13 END

```

RUN

WIND, MPH: 20		CAR DEVIATION, FEET
WHEEL ANGLE, DEGREES		
	.0	.0
	-7.2	1.0
	-11.8	1.3
	-13.3	1.1
	-12.7	.8
	-11.3	.5
	-10.1	.4
	-9.5	.4
	-9.4	.4
	-9.6	.5
WIND, MPH: -30		CAR DEVIATION, FEET
WHEEL ANGLE, DEGREES		
	-9.8	.5
	8.0	-2.0
	19.3	-2.7
	23.1	-2.2
	21.6	-1.4
	18.3	-.8
	15.4	-.4
	13.8	-.4
	13.6	-.5
	14.0	-.7
WIND, MPH: 40		CAR DEVIATION, FEET
WHEEL ANGLE, DEGREES		
	14.6	-.8
	-10.1	2.7
	-26.0	3.7
	-31.2	3.1
	-29.2	2.0
	-24.6	1.0
	-20.5	.6
	-18.4	.5
	-18.0	.7
	-18.6	.9
WIND, MPH: -50		CAR DEVIATION, FEET
WHEEL ANGLE, DEGREES		
	-19.5	1.0
	12.3	-3.4
	32.6	-4.7
	39.3	-3.9
	36.8	-2.5
	30.9	-1.3
	25.7	-.7
	22.9	-.6
	22.4	-.9
	23.2	-1.1

Listing 1: A rough simulation of Chip driving the car in a straight line. Each iteration is assumed to correspond to a fixed time interval. Therefore, the distance the car drifts away from straight line travel is the sum of the wind and steering wheel angle. The simulation shows Chip trying to arrive at the wheel angle which will counteract the force of the blowing wind. If you repetitively use the same wind value, you will see that a steady wheel angle is arrived at. [I found it interesting that this simulation seems to settle down within 60 time units to a consistent value. Even changing wind values from +1000 to -1000 units was compensated for within 60 time units. ... RGAC]

an integrator, and so puts a lag into the control process. This alone would not cause a problem, but Chip also contains a *transport lag*; he cannot actually produce an output at the same instant that the input occurs, nor can our program since it is evaluating equations one at a time. The integration lag we take care of by adding to the position I (which Chip senses) the variable D, which is approximately the first derivative of the input quantity. He senses the input quantity with some emphasis on its rate of change, which is actually a realistic model of human perception. This part of the stabilizing of the control action is done in step 9:

$$9 \quad A1 = K3 * (I + 0.8 * D)$$

We have computed a variable A1, the angle which the wheel would assume if Chip reacted instantly. But to handle the transport lag, we must slow his reponse, letting only a fraction K5 (between 0 and 1) of it occur during any one iteration. That is what step 10 does:

$$10 \quad A = A + K5 * (A1 - A)$$

This slowing technique will be used in the larger simulator next time. To see how it works, set A1 to 10.00, K5 to 0.25, and A to 0, and then simply keep doing step 10 with pencil and paper. A will gradually approach the value of A1 from any starting point.

The program in listing 1 asks for a wind velocity, and then proceeds to do ten iterations of the control loop, printing wheel angle A and car position deviation I each time. A positive number means the wind is blowing, the wheel is cocked, or the car has moved to the *right*. If you want to follow the program for more than ten iterations, give it the same wind again. It always starts where it left off.

In part 2, we will begin exploring a model of the kind described in figure 4 and start the somewhat mind boggling task of retraining the intuition to think in closed loop terms instead of straight through cause and effect. There is a *big* difference. We'll see that, in general, control systems control what they sense, not what they do. We'll discover something called a *reference signal*, which functions in a control system exactly the way an inner purpose has always been supposed to function. In part 2, we'll see how perception figures into control. And we'll start working with a more extended BASIC simulator than the tiny one in listing 1. Parts of this simulator will be suitable for building into the computer part of a robot, should anyone want to carry matters that far. ■

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The 1802 Op Codes

Henry Melton
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The RCA/Hughes 1802 is an 8 bit micro-processor with a small but growing following. Its ease of interface and low CMOS power requirements make it attractive for many small applications. The accompanying chart of op codes for the 1802 illustrates all of the 255 variations. I have used the RCA mnemonics.

The 1802 is organized around sixteen 16 bit registers. These can be used as pro-

gram counters, index registers, subroutine pointers, and general data storage registers. The interrupt and direct memory access features of the 1802 also make use of specific registers for their operation. There is an 8 bit accumulator (D), and three 1 bit flags: DF for the carry flag, IE for the interrupt enable flag, and Q for the direct output flag. There are also four 4 bit registers: two to hold the current op code, one

— Branch and skip
 — Input/output operations
 — Immediate operand instructions

		Low Nybble															
		0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	A	B	C	D	E	F
High Nybble	0	IDL 1	LON 1 1	LON 2 1	LON 3 1	LON 4 1	LON 5 1	LON 6 1	LON 7 1	LON 8 1	LON 9 1	LON A 1	LON B 1	LON C 1	LON D 1	LON E 1	LON F 1
	1	INC 0 1	INC 1 1	INC 2 1	INC 3 1	INC 4 1	INC 5 1	INC 6 1	INC 7 1	INC 8 1	INC 9 1	INC A 1	INC B 1	INC C 1	INC D 1	INC E 1	INC F 1
	2	DEC 0 1	DEC 1 1	DEC 2 1	DEC 3 1	DEC 4 1	DEC 5 1	DEC 6 1	DEC 7 1	DEC 8 1	DEC 9 1	DEC A 1	DEC B 1	DEC C 1	DEC D 1	DEC E 1	DEC F 1
	3	BR 2	BQ 2	BZ 2	BDF BPF BFE 2	B1 2	B2 2	B3 2	B4 2	NBR_SKP 1	BNQ 2	BNZ 2	BNF_BM BL 2	BN1 2	BN2 2	BN3 2	BN4 2
	4	LDA 0 1	LDA 1 1	LDA 2 1	LDA 3 1	LDA 4 1	LDA 5 1	LDA 6 1	LDA 7 1	LDA 8 1	LDA 9 1	LDA A 1	LDA B 1	LDA C 1	LDA D 1	LDA E 1	LDA F 1
	5	STR 0 1	STR 1 1	STR 2 1	STR 3 1	STR 4 1	STR 5 1	STR 6 1	STR 7 1	STR 8 1	STR 9 1	STR A 1	STR B 1	STR C 1	STR D 1	STR E 1	STR F 1
	6	IRX 1	OUT 1 1	OUT 2 1	OUT 3 1	OUT 4 1	OUT 5 1	OUT 6 1	OUT 7 1		IN 1 1	IN 2 1	IN 3 1	IN 4 1	IN 5 1	IN 6 1	IN 7 1
	7	RET 1	DIS 1	LXDA 1	STXD 1	ADC 1	SDB 1	SHRC RSHC 1	SMB 1	SAV 1	MARK 1	REG 1	SEQ 1	ADCI 2	SDBI 2	SHLC RSHL 1	SMBI 2
	8	GLD 0 1	GLD 1 1	GLD 2 1	GLD 3 1	GLD 4 1	GLD 5 1	GLD 6 1	GLD 7 1	GLD 8 1	GLD 9 1	GLD A 1	GLD B 1	GLD C 1	GLD D 1	GLD E 1	GLD F 1
	9	GHI 0 1	GHI 1 1	GHI 2 1	GHI 3 1	GHI 4 1	GHI 5 1	GHI 6 1	GHI 7 1	GHI 8 1	GHI 9 1	GHI A 1	GHI B 1	GHI C 1	GHI D 1	GHI E 1	GHI F 1
	A	PLD 0 1	PLD 1 1	PLD 2 1	PLD 3 1	PLD 4 1	PLD 5 1	PLD 6 1	PLD 7 1	PLD 8 1	PLD 9 1	PLD A 1	PLD B 1	PLD C 1	PLD D 1	PLD E 1	PLD F 1
	B	PHI 0 1	PHI 1 1	PHI 2 1	PHI 3 1	PHI 4 1	PHI 5 1	PHI 6 1	PHI 7 1	PHI 8 1	PHI 9 1	PHI A 1	PHI B 1	PHI C 1	PHI D 1	PHI E 1	PHI F 1
	C	LBR 3	LBO 3	LBZ 3	LBOF 3	NDP 1	LSNG 1	LSNZ 1	LSNF 1	NLBR LSKP 1	LBNO 3	LBNZ 3	LBNF 3	LSIE 1	LSQ 1	LSZ 1	LSDF 1
	D	SEP 0 1	SEP 1 1	SEP 2 1	SEP 3 1	SEP 4 1	SEP 5 1	SEP 6 1	SEP 7 1	SEP 8 1	SEP 9 1	SEP A 1	SEP B 1	SEP C 1	SEP D 1	SEP E 1	SEP F 1
	E	SEX 0 1	SEX 1 1	SEX 2 1	SEX 3 1	SEX 4 1	SEX 5 1	SEX 6 1	SEX 7 1	SEX 8 1	SEX 9 1	SEX A 1	SEX B 1	SEX C 1	SEX D 1	SEX E 1	SEX F 1
	F	LDX 1	DR 1	AND 1	XDR 1	ADD 1	SD 1	SHR 1	SM 1	LDI 2	DRI 2	ANI 2	XRI 2	ADI 2	SDI 2	SHL 2	SMI 2

Table 1: RCA/Hughes 1802 instruction set. The op codes and the number of bytes used by each are shown.

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to designate which of the R registers is the program counter, and one to designate which of the R registers is the index pointer. Lastly, there are four EF external pins that are sensed as conditional branch flags.

11 commands make up the bulk of the 1802 op codes. Each is 1 byte in length, with the first nybble designating the operation, and the last nybble acting as a 4 bit immediate operand. They account for 175 of the op codes (LDN does not operate on register 0) and allow data transfer to and from the R indexed memory, incrementing and decrementing the R registers, and setting the P and X registers. There are four major operations (hexadecimal 80 through BF) that move bytes of data between the accumulator and the two halves of the 16 bit registers.

The arithmetic and logical operations use the accumulator with either the immediate data or the indexed memory contents as the other operand.

There are three types of branches. The short branch uses the immediately following byte as the next address in the local 256 block of memory space. This is *not* a relative jump; the immediate data just replaces the low byte of the program counter. The long branch uses the two following bytes, high byte first, to construct the branching address. The skip instructions skip over following instructions if the tested condition is true. The short skip skips only one byte, but all the others skip over two bytes of code. Notice that the short branch instructions include the external flags as possible testable conditions, allowing quick direct serial input.

There is also a set of I/O (input/output) instructions to transfer a byte to or from one of seven possible I/O ports. The external Q pin can be set or reset to give quick direct serial output.

The SAV, MARK, RET, and DIS instructions can be used to implement recoverable interrupt and nested subroutines by using a stack in memory.

The last instructions are NOP and IDL. The IDL instruction places the machine on hold until an interrupt or direct memory access request occurs.

The 1802 is a well-designed computer package, and CMOS is *the* technique in battery powered applications. ■



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The History of Computing

The IBM 7070



IBM 7070s undergoing final checkout before shipment.

An IBM 7070 operator's console.



A typical IBM 7070 configuration. The engineering console (for repair diagnostic information) is in the table in the foreground.

The second computer generation is said to have begun with the advent of the transistor. An equally important advance was the realization that most programmers would soon be programming not in symbolic machine language but in machine independent high level languages. This led hardware designers to build instructions that simplified compiling of programs, such as editing, table lookup and string scanning instructions. Some of these instructions are found in the IBM 7070, announced in 1959.

The 7070, like the 650, was built around a 10 digit signed decimal word. Signs and digits were stored in a two-out-of-five code; five bits were used to represent a digit, of which exactly two were "on". The five bits were assigned values of 0,1,2,3 and 6, so a little fudging had to be followed in order to represent 0. Since 3 can be represented two ways, 0-3 or 1-2, the former was used as the value for 3 and the latter for 0. Alphabetic characters were represented by digit pairs; hence, only five letters could be stored in a word. To distinguish between alphabetic and numeric representation, three signs were allowed: +, -, and @, represented by the codes for 9, 6, and 3, respectively.

Two memory sizes, 5,000 and 9,990 words, were available. The larger size could have been 10,000 words, but addresses 9991-9999 referred to addressable registers, including three accumulators. The small memory size was seen as a drawback, but a remarkably powerful instruction set tended to offset this problem. The 7070 might have been the start of a new decimal based family of computers if IBM had added a memory paging feature to allow for expansion.

The instruction format used the sign and first two digits as an operation code, two digits for an indexing address, two digits for field definition or instruction augmentation, and four digits for an address. Hence, 200 different instruction types and 99 index words were possible. In fact, 190 instructions were implemented, and memory locations 0001 through 0099 could be used as index "registers." Field definition allowed arithmetic to be performed on parts of words. If field definition 58 was specified in an ADD instruction, the contents of digit positions 5 thru 8 of the addressed value would be added to the specified accumulator.

I/O (input/output) units did not look much different from first generation equipment, but in fact embodied several

significant improvements. Magnetic tape units could read and write in low (200 bits per inch) or high density (556 bits per inch). Data channels allowed overlap of data transfer and processing, and a priority I/O scheme allowed for simultaneous peripheral operation on line—spooling, as it is still called. The idea behind spooling is that punched cards may be read and lines printed during times when the machine is simultaneously doing something else. The main program gets and puts records on a faster medium, such as a disk, and is therefore not forced to wait for the relatively slow card reader or printer.

File handling capability on the 7070 was very sophisticated due to a feature called *block transmission*. A record could be read into several noncontiguous blocks of memory under control of RDWs (record definition words). The programmer specified in a *tape read* instruction the unit number of the tape to be read and the address of the first of a sequence of one or more record definition words. Each definition contained the starting and ending address of a block (set of consecutive words) into which data was to be read. Each record definition word in the sequence had a positive sign except the last one, which was negative. If the physical record ended before all definitions were exhausted, the remaining were ignored. If the last record definition word was exhausted before the end of the record was reached, the remaining data were not transferred into memory. When a record was written, record definition words were similarly used to gather data from various parts of memory without actually transferring them into one contiguous memory block.

Variable length records could also be handled easily through use of a *tape read per record mark control* instruction. A record mark was a special character having the keypunch code 0-2-8, which was written as a not equal sign (\neq). When the tape was read under record mark control, the normal sequence of data transmission to storage via record definition words was followed until a record mark was read. This caused the 7070 to cease transmission of data to the block specified by the current definition and to move on to the next.

For example, suppose a tape record contained:

ABCDEFGHI \neq JKLM \neq NOPQR

and a tape read per record mark control

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instruction referred to the record definition words:

+ 0010001005	words 1000 thru 1005
+ 0014601480	words 1460 thru 1480
- 0019992999	words 1999 thru 2999,

ABCDE would be read into location 1000, FGHI into 1001, JKLM into 1460 and NOPQR into 1999.

A major problem arose because of the special nature of alphabetic data. In first generation computers, conventions had been established regarding coding of alphabetic characters on tape, and these conventions were carried on into the 7070. Some means of differentiating between alphabetic and numeric data had to be established, however, since the old-fashioned "overpunched" numeric sign used in unit-record equipment and early computers could not always be distinguished from alphabetic characters. This problem was resolved on the 7070 by assuming that a tape was alphabetic until a delta character was read, whereupon the delta was not transferred into memory, but served instead to change the mode of data transfer to numeric. The next delta flipped the mode back to alphabetic, and so on. A *delta* on the seven track BCD (binary coded decimal) tape (in which the tracks were labeled CBA8421) consisted of the CB8421 bits. Thus the three words:

+ 0123443210
- 5678998765
@ 7461796368

would be written on tape as $\Delta 01234-432105678998765\Delta$ MARCH. When re-read into a 7070, a perfect translation took place back into the three words shown above. However, when read into any other computer, the delta characters transferred into memory, giving IBM 1401 programmers considerable annoyance. Nevertheless, it is safe to say that the 7070 represented a very large step between first generation and modern computers. Most apparent among the second generation refinements was the recognition that computers did not have to be classified as commercial or scientific machines but in fact could be used to solve problems in both of the disciplines. On the one hand, the record definition word concept made sorting extremely fast, while hardware implemented floating point instructions were available for calculation. ■

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Artificial Intelligence and Entropy

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Although this article is written with a sense of science fiction creativity and speculation, the concepts involved are based on sound ideas that recently won for Ilya Prigogine the 1977 Nobel prize (see reference 1). No longer can it be said that the laws of thermodynamics prohibit the creation of artificial intelligence.

Computer intelligence has long been a hazy dream in many enthusiasts' eyes, but so often that gleam has been glazed over by a rational response from the scientific community: "You can get out of any computer only what you put in. The computer, after all, has to be told what to do. It can't think."

These valid scientific arguments are based, essentially, on the laws of thermodynamics, especially the second law, concerning entropy. The second law says in effect that for all (isolated) systems at or near equilibrium, any process will have a tendency to increase the system's entropy.

Shannon has developed the idea that entropy is related to the inverse of information (see reference 2); so as entropy goes up, information goes down. The second law of thermodynamics seems to demand that this decrease in information shall always happen for mechanical or electrical machines.

The conclusion that machines will never be capable of thinking seems irrefutable.

But man is a biological machine, and yet he thinks. How can these two seemingly contradictory ideas be reconciled with the second law? One of the greatest scientific puzzles of the last century was that the idea of a thinking biological machine *cannot* be brought into accord with the laws of *equilibrium* thermodynamics! The paradox stands.

The brilliance of I Prigogine lay in his recognition that another regime far from local thermodynamic equilibrium may exist for complex interacting systems. Exactly what this new regime is all about took many

years of study to formulate and understand, but in the last two years the verification of this new thermodynamic concept has been achieved by a small but convincing number of chemical experiments (see reference 3). Simply, the new thermodynamic regime is a regime *far* from equilibrium where semi-steady state modes of collective interactions can self-organize in complex systems. In this collective mode of self-organization, far from thermodynamic equilibrium, the entropy of the system drops dramatically; the information content rises. The increasing entropy dictum of the second law is no longer valid because the system is not in equilibrium.

The key features of systems that can support such entropy-decreasing modes are that:

1. They are not isolated systems: they draw energy and material from their surroundings: that is, they feed.
2. They are complex systems of *many* interacting parts, and the interactions must be nonlinear.

These conditions seem to be necessary but not sufficient. A complex system that has these properties need not self-organize into an entropy decreasing mode, but if these conditions are met, the low entropy modes are now scientifically recognized possibilities.

Theoretical models of complex chemical systems have indicated that the minimum number of subparts that will form a collective mode far from equilibrium is measured in the thousands. This result is striking; it could have been that it would take statistically large mole numbers (10^{23}) of parts to form self-organized systems, but no, it appears that thousands, or a few tens of thousands, of subsystems interacting nonlinearly can, for certain ranges of parameters, flip into self-organized modes of decreasing entropy.

For the first time, thermodynamics (albeit of the nonequilibrium variety) can be used to substantiate entropy decreasing modes, biological systems, and thinking machines! Using these ideas as a basis, it is conceivable that a collection of subsystem computers linked together nonlinearly could, for certain ranges of coupling parameters, self-organize into a collective mode of operation in which the entropy of the complex system decreases.

The gleam in the young experimenter's eye need not be glazed over and extinguished by a thermodynamic "it's impossible" argument. The loophole in the law has been discovered.

A few years ago such a project would have been economically impossible, but now with the advent of cheap small volume microprocessors it is conceivable that, say, ten thousand computer subsystems could be assembled and linked together in one complex. Moreover, following the theoretical advances pioneered by I Prigogine, such a complex might be arranged to operate in a collective mode far from equilibrium in which the entropy content drops dramatically, the information content skyrockets, and the idea of artificial intelligence need no longer be squashed by thermodynamic dictum. It indeed may be possible to create a thinking machine.

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Appendix: Collective Mode Systems of Low Entropy

After I submitted the above article to BYTE, editor Carl Helmers asked if I could provide a tutorial example explaining the ideas of a collective mode system with low entropy. Perhaps the most striking example of such a system is given by the laser (see reference 4).

The typical laser consists of an optical cavity, a set of atoms – such as He-Ne—connected to the outside world by means of a power supply. Energy flows continually into (and out of) the system so it cannot be considered to be isolated. If the system gain parameter is below a critical value, the gas atoms may be excited by the energy source and subsequently release their excess excitation energy through the emission of photons. The photons all have random phase, ie: the emission of photons by the various atoms in the gas is random, and not coherent. The system has a high entropy content associated with the disorder and the random emission of photons. The system does reach a steady state, *not* a collective mode state, and *not* a state of equilibrium, because it continually receives energy across its boundary.

If the gain parameter of the system is slowly increased to above the critical value, a dramatic transition takes place – far from equilibrium. The system lases, ie: the gas atoms no longer emit the photons in a random manner, but instead they de-excite in a coherent collective mode. The emission of one photon from one atom stimulates the emission of another photon from another atom, and so on. The photons are emitted with the same phase; disorder has been removed, and the system entropy drops dramatically.

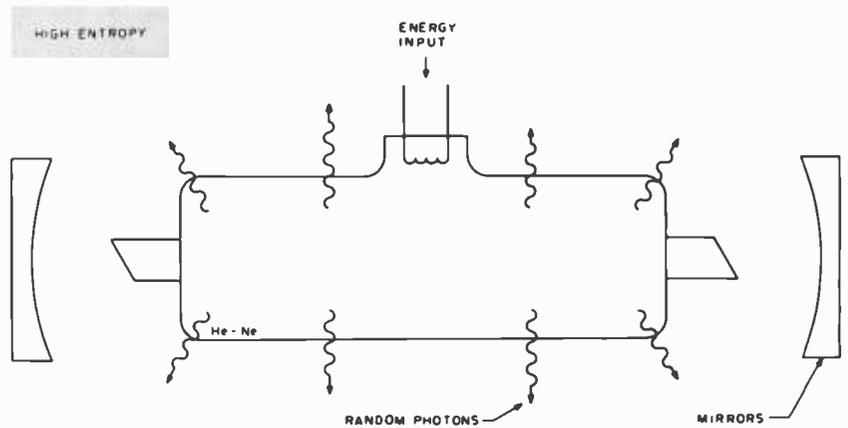


Figure 1: The He-Ne discharge glows in a disordered random fashion. The emission of photons is random, disordered and associated with the notion of high entropy.

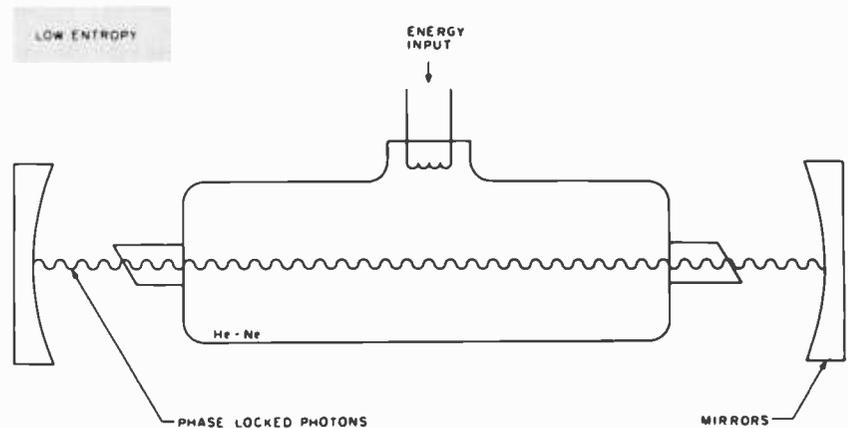
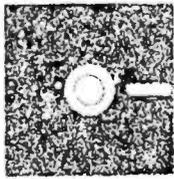


Figure 2: For the system "gain" above the critical value lasing action takes place in the He-Ne gas. The radiation is phase locked into a collective mode associated with low entropy.



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The notions of disorder and randomness are concepts associated with the notion of entropy. The decrease of the laser's entropy is due to lack of disorder in the lasing state.

These ideas are described in figures 1 and 2. Figure 1 represents a laser being supplied with energy from the power source, but with the gain of the cavity below the critical value. The photon emission is random and the system has high entropy.

On the other hand in figure 2 the gain factor of the system is above the critical value and the system has flipped into a low entropy collective mode emitting highly ordered radiation. The atoms radiate collectively.

The almost incredible feature of many complex systems interacting nonlinearly is that they may *self-organize* into these low entropy modes. In particular, biological systems appear to be of this type. Numerous examples of collective mode systems appear in the physical world, but most of them occur at low temperature; super conductors and super fluids are examples. The self-organization into collective modes far from equilibrium at modest to high temperatures is yet another idea. ■

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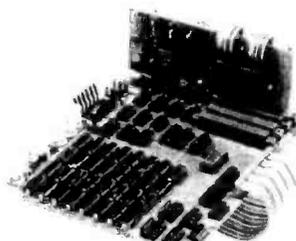
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Like many an individual who uses computers at work and for personal purposes, I have a tendency to write. At work, this tendency is expressed in the usual ways as memos, project oriented documentation and more general papers. In personal life, this tendency is expressed by the existence of this article and several others which preceded it.

After some considerable chicken scratching it became apparent that my method for collecting ideas and creating a final manuscript was not optimum. The problem became clearly defined when one day I looked up from my note pad only to see my IMSAI arrogantly sleeping while I worked.

The literary approach I had been using was reasonably conventional. First in the procedure was the generation of an outline which contained ideas organized by section. Then a handwritten rough draft was composed in which these thoughts were structured within each section and expanded upon. The draft was then reviewed and changes made until legibility was threatened. If the writing had been for "work" the next step would have been to have the draft retyped. However, as writing for microcomputer journals is a private pursuit, a paid typist is used sparingly.

The next step was therefore to go back through the draft and reedit, being very careful with *es* and *is*, and then to give it to the typist for final preparation. The typist's job was to take the grubby and somewhat illegible pile of paper and transform it into a nicely typed manuscript suitable for submission. However, the last step was invariably one of carefully applying correction fluid, scissors and tape in the proper proportions to assemble a truly final version. Usually the alterations were due to my own errors, though my excellent typist often adds a few variations as part of her own editing contribution. As a result, I have never sent an original to an editor, always a copy which hid the horrors of the manuscript's creation. After all, what editor wants flakes of dried correction fluid sprinkled on his or her clothes and desk?

A few further considerations convinced me that it was time to make a change. First,

I cannot stand reading my own handwriting. Second, I can type much faster than I can write. Third, it was a convenient time to design an editing system. The reason for the latter was that I had a video display, IMSAI and North Star disk combination at home and a very nice Diablo printer, Altair 8800B and North Star disk setup available at work. Thus there was basic compatibility between the two systems via the floppy diskette. I had taken care to assure that the two systems were software compatible, particularly with respect to IO.

The general idea was to use my personal system to compose and edit versions of a manuscript and then to bring the finished form, on diskette, to work to be printed out on the Diablo. In practice it turned out to be more convenient to have listings of the various versions to work from. This made the iterations much easier. There is no replacement for hard copy when writing either a program or an article.

One of the goals established for the eventual editor software was that it should not be unique to my particular hardware configuration. Rather it was to be translatable to other systems with a minimum of change. For this reason BASIC was chosen as the implementation language, though machine language would have led to a much better utilization of memory as well as higher speed. The particular BASIC used was North Star, Version 6, Release 3. This interpreter has string manipulation functions which are very convenient for developing editing routines. These functions can also be translated into counterparts a la Microsoft BASIC. This will be discussed more later.

Text editors naturally require significant computer storage capabilities. The one shown in listing 1 is no exception. For those who have disk based systems other than North Star, the conversion of this program for use with another system would be through changes in the disk access subroutines which are clearly defined on the listing. For those who do not have disk hardware, but rather cassette IO, storage and retrieval can also be accomplished through the disk access subroutines after the appropriate modifications are made.

The program also has the ability to automatically save and retrieve the text from active memory. This is presently not in effect in the version shown in listing 1, but can be brought to life by removing statements 2000 and 2100. This feature is useful if the computer is a little unstable and has a tendency to crash; at least the latest text version might be saved in a protected memory region if the program did not get as far as saving the text on diskette or tape. The

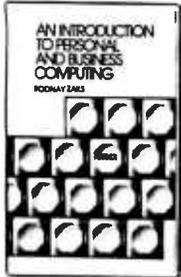


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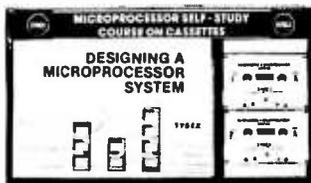
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Listing 1: This BASIC program is the complete listing of the text editor.

```

10 REM EDITOR, VERSION 6, AS OF 1600 HOURS, 1/31/78
20 REM WRITTEN BY F.R. RUCKDESCHEL
30 REM 773 JOHN GLENN BLVD.
40 REM WEBSTER, NEW YORK 14580
50 REM NEW PARAGRAPH CHARACTER= &
60 PRINT "ENTER MAXIMUM LINE LENGTH",
70 INPUT M1
80 PRINT "ENTER LETTER LENGTH",
90 INPUT M2
100 DIM A$(M2),G$(M1),B$(2000),E(300)
110 PRINT "INPUT BEGINNING STORAGE LOCATION (DECIMAL): ",
120 INPUT Y9
130 REM TEST TO CHECK IF LETTER IS NEW
140 PRINT "NEW LETTER (N) OR RESTART (R): ",
150 INPUT G1$
160 IF G1$(1,1)="N" THEN GOTO 190
170 GOSUB 2010
180 GOTO 380
190 A$=""
200 G$=""
210 L=0
220 B$=""
230 PRINT "GET LETTER FROM FILE? (Y/N): ",
240 INPUT H$
250 IF H$(1,1)<>"Y" THEN GOTO 300
260 PRINT "INPUT NAME OF LETTER: ",
270 INPUT Z$
280 GOSUB 1530
290 GOTO 630
300 REM START OF NEW LETTER
310 L=L+1
320 PRINT %4I,L,
330 INPUT G$
340 IF G$="]" THEN GOTO 630
350 A$=A$+G$
360 GOTO 310
370 REM *****
380 REM ENTER EDIT MODE
390 PRINT "EDIT SUBROUTINE"
400 PRINT "ENTER LINE NUMBER TO BE EDITTED",
410 INPUT L
420 REM L=0 IS ESCAPE EDIT
430 IF L=0 THEN GOTO 630
440 REM ADDITION AT FRONT OF LETTER?
450 IF L<2 THEN GOTO 1680
460 REM ADDITION TO END OF LETTER?
470 IF L>N-2 THEN GOTO 1790
480 Z=2*INT(L/2)
490 REM INSERTION? F CHANGE IS DEFAULT
500 IF L<>Z THEN GOTO 1900
510 PRINT %4I,L,A$(E(L-2)+1,E(L))
520 PRINT %3I,L,
530 G$=""
540 B$=""
550 INPUT G$
560 E(0)=1
570 IF G$(1,1)<>"]" THEN B$=B$+G$
580 IF G$(1,1)<>"[" THEN GOTO 550
590 IF E(L)+1>LEN(A$) THEN A$=A$+" "
600 A$=A$(1,E(L-2))+B$+A$(E(L)+1,LEN(A$))
610 GOTO 630
620 REM *****
630 REM JUSTIFICATION ROUTINE
640 PRINT "COLUMN WIDTH",
650 INPUT W
660 PRINT "ENTER PAGE LENGTH: ",
670 INPUT P
680 C=0
690 S=1\N=2\H=0
700 PRINT "WANT LINES NUMBERED? (Y/N): ",
710 INPUT H1$
720 IF H1$(1,1)="N" THEN H=1
730 IF H=1 THEN J9=1
740 IF H<>1 THEN GOTO 780
750 FOR K=1 TO 7
760 PRINT
770 NEXT K\GOTO 870
780 PRINT "LINE NUMBER RANGE: (LOW, HIGH)",
790 INPUT N8,N9
800 J9=0
810 PRINT "WANT JUSTIFIED TEXT? (Y/N): ",
820 INPUT J9$
830 IF J9$="Y" THEN J9=1
840 FOR K=1 TO 5
850 PRINT
860 NEXT K
870 T=S
880 IF T>LEN(A$) THEN GOTO 1220
890 S=S+W
900 REM NEW PARAGRAPH FLAG
910 F=0
920 IF S>LEN(A$) THEN S=LEN(A$)
930 IF J9=0 THEN GOTO 1030
940 REM TEST FOR PARAGRAPH CHARACTER

```

key disadvantages to using this feature are that more memory is required and considerable time is consumed performing the extra storage function, which is relatively slow.

In the following sections the fundamental features of the editor program will be discussed in some detail. It will become apparent that the program does not have many frills, but still has considerable utility when one becomes practiced in its operation. A sufficient number of examples are given such that the user should not have to experiment much to determine how the program responds when kicked in a particular way. Following this are comments on software items which should aid in modifying the present program for use on other machines. The program as presented here suits my needs, but is probably deficient with respect to specific uses. However, the structure is sufficiently modular and sprinkled with comment statements such that the addition of new capabilities should be possible without a total revamping.

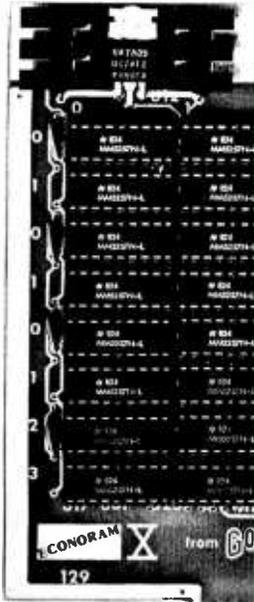
Editor Features

The object of the editor program is to generate a text oriented file which can be corrected and expanded with a reasonable level of ease. As mentioned earlier, the file may be stored on diskette, tape, or in active memory. The file can be recalled and printed out in two general formats, justified and unjustified. In the justification mode, by definition, lines are ended between words. The chosen line length may be any size as long as it is longer than the longest word in the text and shorter than the maximum line length allowed by the software. In the unjustified format, printing fills the entire line, regardless of whether or not a word is broken.

In either justification format the program will list selected line number groups using only even numbers. This allows the user to insert lines, when in the edit mode, by giving them odd numbers. Inserted lines can be any number of characters long within the constraints of memory or dimension. The program rennumbers and reformats after each editing exercise.

Upon listing, it is the choice of the user to have the lines numbered or not. If the decision is not to number, the entire text will be printed. Otherwise a line number range can be chosen. In either case, the program goes through the entire text, reformats and assigns line numbers. In the justification mode defined above this may consume a significant length of time as tests for the gaps between words and new paragraph identifiers must be made. In the un-

for memory, the word is "CHOICE"



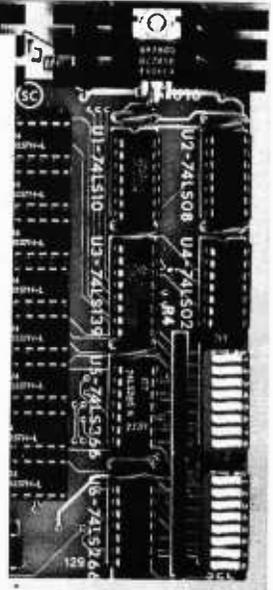
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Econoram IX	32K X 8	Dig Grp	static	4 MHz	2-4K, 1-8K, 1-16K	\$649	N/A	N/A
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In addition, changing the first character in the text is a little cumbersome; it is suggested that the very first character be a blank to mitigate this problem.

When any of the above failures occur there is a good chance that recently edited work may be lost. For example, when a program fails, most BASICs enter the direct command mode. If the program is rerun, most likely the string variables will be cleared. The temporary save and retrieval subroutines were included to reduce the impact of such errors. If the error occurs during the edit mode, the last form of the text (before the edit mode was entered) may be retrieved by rerunning and answering the initialization appropriately (restart: R). If the failure occurs during a disk or a tape load, unless a large crash occurs, the most recent text version may be recovered upon restart.

Additional Notes

There are several statements employed in North Star BASIC which must be modified if the editor program is to be used with another interpreter. The following is a list of the types of changes required if this program is to be translated into a BASIC similar to that written by Microsoft and distributed by MITS:

FILL<>,<> same as POKE<>,<>
EXAM<> same as PEEK<>

% Denotes a printing format (for example, nFm which is similar to the FORTRAN real format nFm). This can be simulated using the INT function along with some multiplication and division. In the more advanced versions of BASIC there is usually an equivalent format statement.

, Denotes a continued print statement without a carriage return and line feed. In MITS BASIC one would use a semicolon.

A\$(M,N) With respect to the editing functions as implemented by the program, this is the most important difference between the North Star and Microsoft interpreters. For the task at hand the North Star form is preferred because of ease of use. In North Star BASIC A\$(M,N) represents a substring of A\$ which runs from character position M to character position N, thus having length N-M+1. To accomplish this in Microsoft BASIC one would use MID\$(A\$,M,N-M+1). Although a little more cumbersome, the Microsoft string function would suffice if it were not for the important variance that North Star BASIC allows arbitrarily long string lengths whereas Microsoft limits the

string length to 255 characters. However, this limitation may be overcome by string subscripts. Note that string dimensions and subscripts are permitted in Microsoft BASIC, but not in North Star. Having to resort to subscripts is certainly an inconvenience and is a small pain to program. North Star BASIC certainly has an advantage in that respect.

The most difficult editing function to perform is the alteration of a text segment as the set of characters to be changed may extend over more than one text line. Generally it is best to attack the last line of the modification first. The corrections should then proceed toward the lower line number. The reason for doing this is that the text is reassembled upon each editing pass. If a change is made in a given line, all the lines above that point are altered, whereas all the lines below that point maintain their structure if the same line width format is chosen.

Inserting text is usually easy. As a redundant word of caution, remember to place a blank in the last character position in the file. Also, as there is some awkwardness in changing the very first character in the file, having a blank there is also helpful.

Conclusion

The limited capability editor program presented in the previous sections has the advantages of being easy to use as well as being somewhat portable. It was really meant to operate with the North Star Disk System, but can be translated for use on other BASIC oriented machines. Its utility is exemplified by the present article which served as a test case. In this application the article was broken up into files of 12 blocks (12 by 256 characters) or less to ease the strain on active memory. Thus, in effect, there is no limit to the document length which can be handled. Incidentally, 12 blocks corresponds to approximately half a typeset magazine page.

The true power of this program is apparent when large portions of the text creation and editing are done on a video display system (it is easy to get into the swing of rapidly typing additions and changes). However, occasional hard copy listings are invaluable for leisurely reviewing. A near ideal combination would seem to be a video display for editing and a fast hard copy terminal for printing. The denser and faster the video display the better. ■

Copies of the software shown on listing 1 are available from the author on diskettes in North Star format for \$9.95 each (New York State residents add sales tax).

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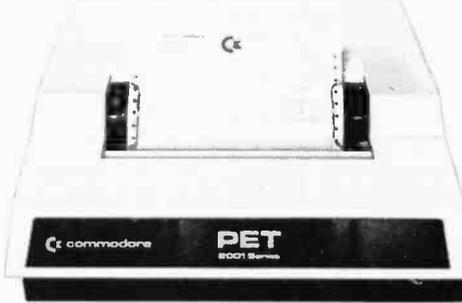
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Bubble Memories

A Short Tutorial

A I Halsema
32014 Grenville Ct
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In the first quarter of 1977 Texas Instruments announced the availability of a 92,000 bit magnetic bubble memory, making bubble memories a commercial reality ten years after the effect was discovered at Bell Laboratories. The bubble memory provides nonvolatile, medium speed data storage at a price close to that of the floppy disk, but without either moving parts or the problems of reliability that moving parts entail. Future memories will provide storage densities of up to one million bits per chip and faster data rates, as the technology matures.

Bubble memories are shift registers that move magnetic domains representing binary data using rotating magnetic fields. The bubble memory integrated circuit is made of a magnetically reactive material such as garnet and has implanted in it a bubble generator for writing data, bubble detectors for reading data, bubble annihilators for erasing data and replicators to provide nondestructive readout. Bubbles move in loops made of small bars of permalloy. As the magnetic field driving circuit rotates, the permalloy bars change their magnetic bias, attract-

ing or repelling the bubbles, as shown in figure 1. This creates a shift register. The Texas Instruments TBM 0101 memory contains 157 minor loops of 641 bubble positions for data storage, and a major loop of 640 bubble positions for reading and writing data. This configuration is shown in figure 2.

In operation, data is written into the major loop at the bubble generator. The bits so written are shifted along the major loop until they are adjacent to the minor loops where they are to be stored. The bubble transfer line is then activated and the bubbles are shunted onto the minor loops. Of the 157 minor loops on the device, 144 are guaranteed to be good, so the user must avoid writing into any of the 13 minor loops declared bad at the factory. Each memory device will be shipped with a map of the bad loops written into the device at the factory. This map should be written into programmable read only memory to control access of the minor loops. The controller integrated circuit offered by Texas Instruments will have an input to cause it to ignore bubbles and may be driven by the read only memory. To read data, the minor loops are rotated until the desired 144 bubbles are adjacent to the major loop. The transfer line is activated and the bubbles are shunted out of the minor loops and onto the major loop. The bubbles are then shifted along the major loop until they reach the combination replicator and annihilator.

If a replicate pulse is applied to the circuit, the bubble is duplicated. While one copy goes on to the detectors and eventual

Update on Bubble Memories

In the third quarter of 1978, after this article was written, Texas Instruments announced a new magnetic bubble memory which is capable of storing 250,000 bits of information. The new circuit has 252 minor loops consisting of 1137 bubble positions of which 224 are guaranteed. The memory has an access time of 7.3 ms for the first bit of the 224 bit page.

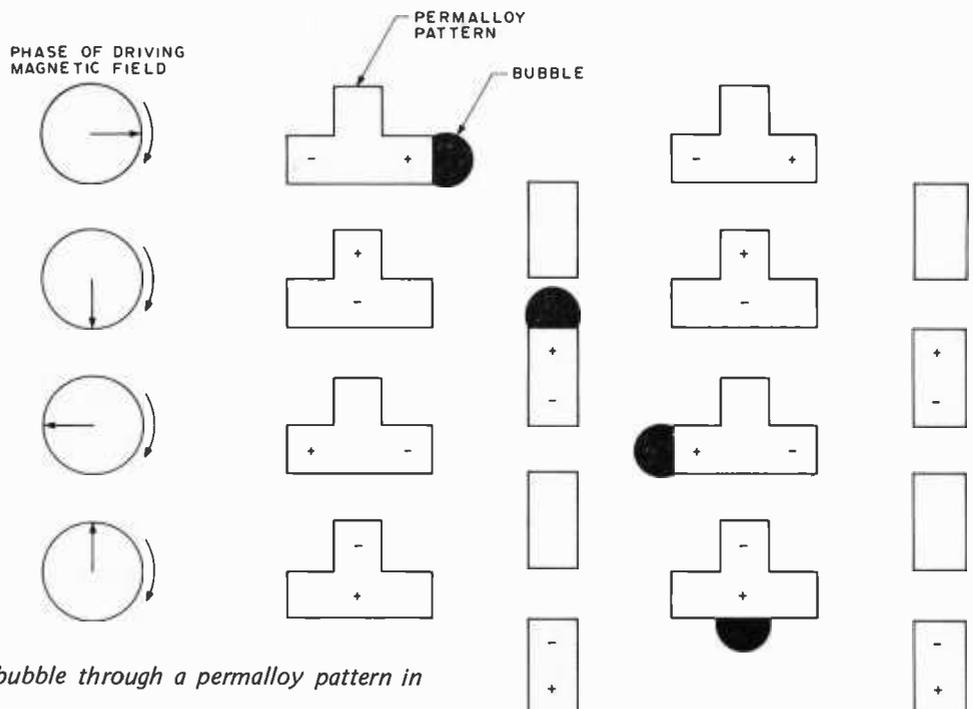


Figure 1: Movement of a magnetic bubble through a permalloy pattern in response to a rotating magnetic field.

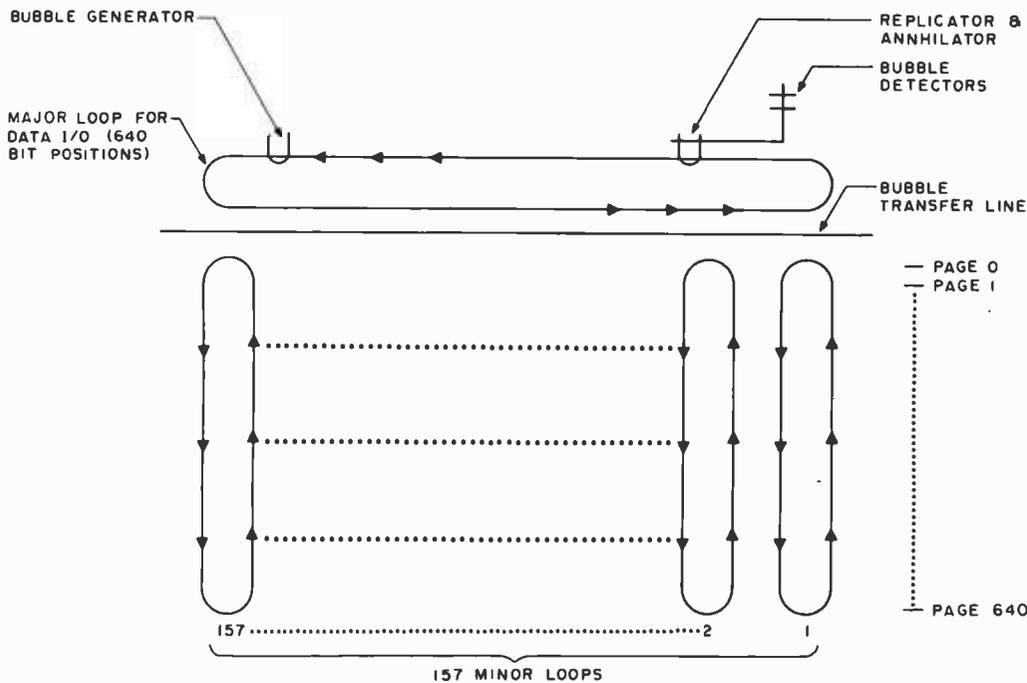


Figure 2: Logical layout of the Texas Instruments TBM 0101 bubble memory. The 157 minor loops are used for data storage. Each loop contains 641 bit positions.

destruction, the other bubble continues around the major loop until it is shunted back onto its minor loop, thus providing nondestructive readout. The bubble that is passed on to the detectors activates dual Hall effect devices that vary their electrical resistance with varying magnetic fields. Two of these detectors are supplied in order to cancel noise through the use of a detector bridge connected to a differential amplifier. The detectors have a nominal resistance of 1100 ohms and are matched to within ± 10 ohms. A single bubble passing under the two detectors produces a 7 mV signal with two positive and two negative peaks. Care must be taken when laying out circuit boards to avoid long detector signal lines and cross-coupling of control signal noise.

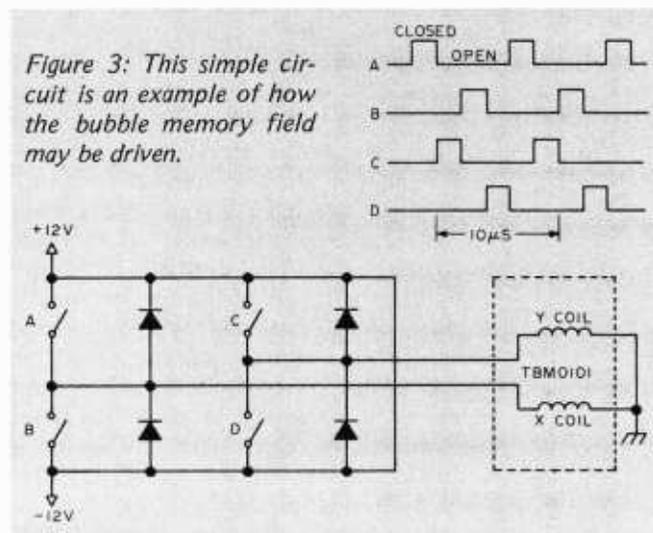
The rotating magnetic field for shifting the bubbles is produced by driving the coils built into the circuit with signals that are 90° out of phase at a maximum frequency of 100 kHz. This technique is shown in figure 3. For standby low power operation, the coil drive may be turned off with no loss of data.

Data in the memory is organized in the form of 18 byte pages and 641 pages per integrated circuit for a total of 11,538 bytes. Using the TMS 9916 controller, any byte within a page may be randomly accessed, although the pages are serially accessed. Each minor loop contributes a bit to the formation of a page, so that the 144 bits of a page are distributed over 144 minor loops.

Prior to removing power from the memory system, the user must be sure that page zero is rotated back into the page zero position. If this is not done, the next time power

is applied it may not be possible to locate page zero for proper addressing. This is because there are no physical indices to mark the beginning of the medium. If the TMS 9916 controller is used, power failure detection circuitry will initiate data positioning automatically. This process requires 12.8 ms, so the system's power supplies should remain in regulation for at least this long.

Considering the high price of the magnetic bubble medium, it is unlikely that it will be used in a removable form as is the case with the floppy disk. Instead, they will probably be built into a cabinet (or even a mainframe) and used as a drum would be. An 11 K byte drum may seem small, but remember that single circuits with 3 to 10 times the capacity of the TBM 0101 are on their way. ■



Stacks in Microprocessors

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Introduction

The stack or the "last in first out" (LIFO) data structure has become an essential tool in computer systems. There are two major operations associated with this data structure:

PUSH: places a new data item on top of the existing ones in the stack.

POP: removes the topmost element of the stack for succeeding operations.

A spring loaded plate holder in a cafeteria is a good example of a "stack," since addition and removal of items occur at the same end in a last in first out sequence (see figure 1).

When the capacity of a stack is "n" items, then n+1 consecutive PUSH operations will cause the stack to overflow. Similarly, popping an empty stack creates an underflow. Even though stack underflow may not occur intentionally, programmers should account for this condition. Stack overflow is more probable when the stack capacity is not large enough to accommodate all the occurring conditions simultaneously.

Stack size is one of the major design parameters in processor architecture. For instance, the earlier Intel 8008 processor had a built-in 7 level subroutine control stack which was later increased to a more general stack pointer which could range throughout memory in the 8080.

In the software realization of stacks, a programmable memory location is used along with an address pointer, called the "stack pointer" or SP. The stack pointer points to the memory location that holds the top element of the stack; the pointer is updated (incremented or decremented) after every push or pop operation (see figure 2). In this case the programmer must set aside

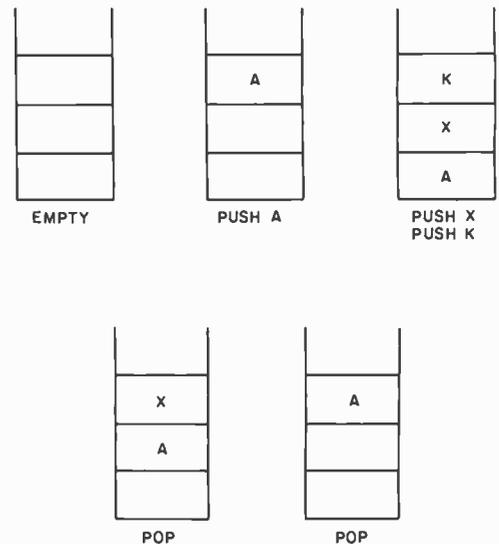


Figure 1: A sample 3 word stack. A PUSH command causes one piece of data to be "PUSHed" onto the stack; the resident data is pushed downward to make room. Similarly, a POP command removes the topmost piece of data and shifts the rest of the stack upward.

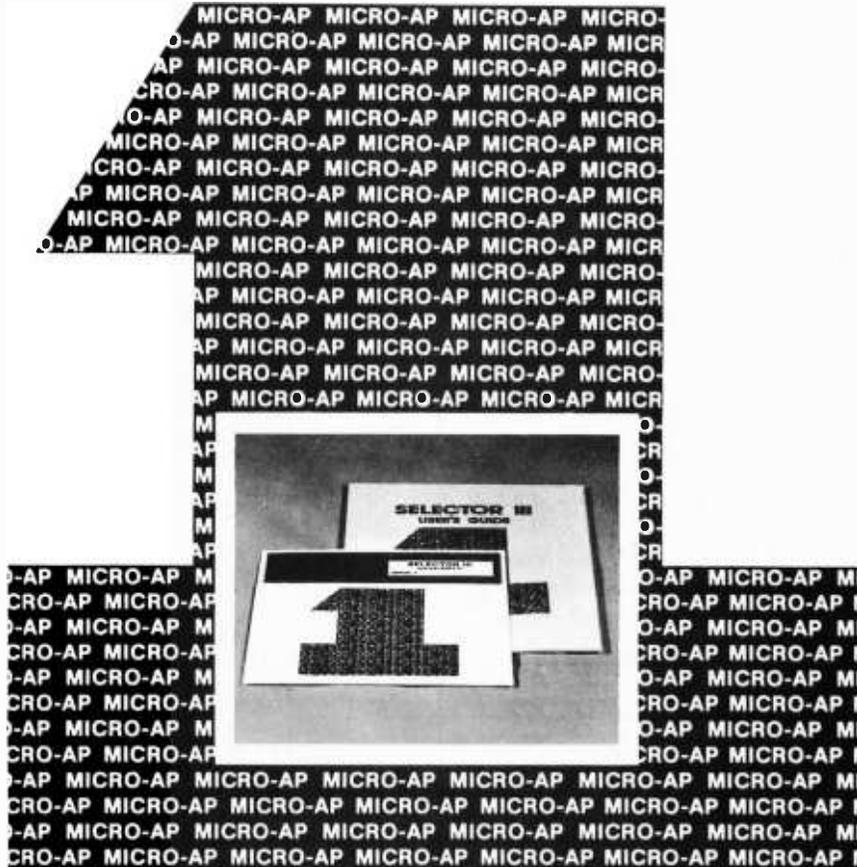
a portion of the main memory to accommodate the stack. Consequently, the stack capacity is determined by the free space in the main memory and is more flexible. In figure 2 the occupied portion of the stack grows from low to high memory addresses. Hence, the PUSH operation increments the stack pointer and the POP operation decrements it. It is not difficult to introduce the stack overflow and underflow conditions in the above simulation.

In another realization of stacks, a set of n registers constitutes a stack. Every POP operation takes the data item from the topmost register; the data in each stack location is then shifted upward. The PUSH operation shifts the stack contents down one place

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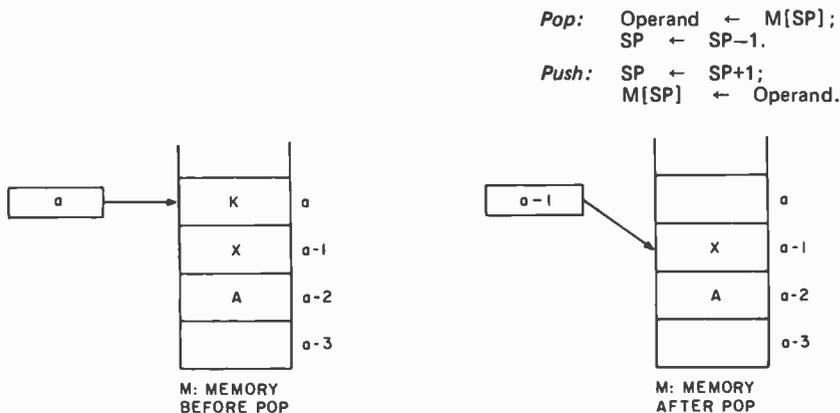


Figure 2: A software simulation of the pushdown stack. Operation of the stack is identical to the hardware stack (see figure 1), except that there is no dedicated hardware involved. Instead, a program creates a stack pointer in memory which points to the current location of the top of the stack.

Processor	Hardware Stack or Stack Pointer	Stack Oriented Instructions	Remarks
1. 8080	16 bit stack pointer	a) Push register pair into stack b) Pop register pair from stack c) Push/Pop processor status word d) Exchange stack top with register pair (H,L) e) Load SP from register pair (H,L)	
2. Z-80	16 bit stack pointer	a) All the instructions of Intel 8080 b) Push/Pop the (two) index registers	
3. M6800	16 bit stack pointer	a) Push/Pop the (A or B) accumulator b) Load SP from memory c) Store SP into memory d) Transfer index register contents to SP e) Transfer SP into index register f) Increment/Decrement SP	
4. RCA 1802	16 bit stack pointer	a) Increment/Decrement the selected register (SP) b) Push/Pop the working (D) register c) Load the D register into left or right half of SP	Any of the 16 registers can be used as a SP
5. PACE	Hardware stack 8 16 bit words	a) Push/Pop program counter b) Push/Pop the specified register c) Exchange the contents of the register with SP d) Push/Pop the flag register	Stack overflow Underflow Interrupts are provided
6. IMP-8C	Hardware stack 16 8 bit words	a) Push/Pop the selected accumulator into stack b) Exchange the stack top with the selected accumulator c) Push/Pop the status flags into the stack	No overflow Underflow Interrupts

Table 1: Stack features of some common microprocessors. The stack is a storage place in a computer designed to hold pieces of data in serial order. "PUSHing" an element onto the stack causes the existing elements in the stack to be moved downward, in much the same manner as a spring loaded plate holder found in restaurants. "POPing" an element from the stack removes the most recent addition to the stack for use. Because of these two features, the stack operation is often referred to as "last in first out," or "LIFO."

and adds the new data item. In this approach, reading from and writing to the data structure occur only with the topmost register. Inter-register transfers can be achieved in parallel during the same clock period. The stack facility available with IMP-8C microprocessor, an example of this type, has a capacity of 16 words. This method of realization is known as the *fixed top* (figure 1) in contrast to the *moving top* approach explained earlier (figure 2). The flexibility associated with the latter can be combined with the speed advantage of the former as is done with PACE microprocessors (see table 1).

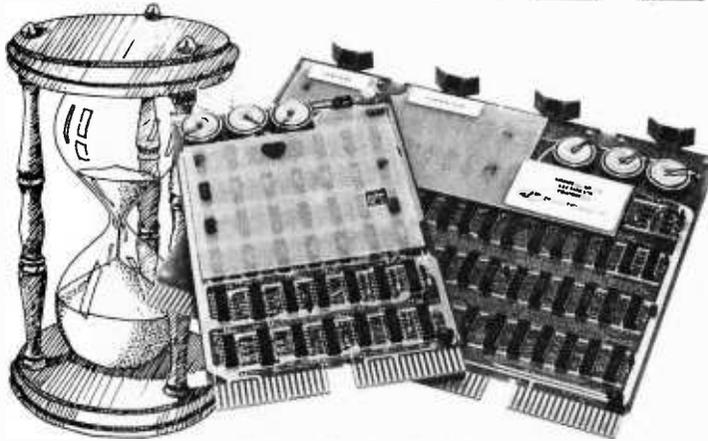
Most modern processors provide one or more registers to hold stack pointers. For example, there is one stack pointer register in the Intel 8080 and there can be as many as 16 stack pointers in the RCA 1802 processor (see table 1). The pop and push instructions update the SP registers automatically. The architecture and the stack oriented instructions differ widely among the various processors, and table 1 gives details of some of the common ones.

Typical Applications of Stacks

Suppose a routine A calls another routine B at some point a in A. Similarly, let B call C at point b. The addresses a+1 and b+1 are the return addresses where execution control will return from the called routine. It is evident from figure 3 that the return addresses are used in the reverse order of their sequence of occurrence. The labels c1, c2, c3 in figure 3 stand for the first, second and third calling of routines, and r1, r2, r3 stand for the first, second and third returns from the called routines. This last in first out (LIFO) nature of the use of return addresses in multilevel calling is commonly implemented with stacks. Simple extensions have been devised to pass the parameters along with these return addresses using the stack structure (see reference 1).

The calls shown in figure 3 could also be considered as calls to service routines due to asynchronous interrupt signals. In the latter case, the return addresses are not predetermined address points, but are instead the contents of the program counter. However, the last in first out nature of the return addresses remains valid. The call due to an interrupt creates a new process, and hence the status of the current process (process status word, flags, etc) has to be additionally

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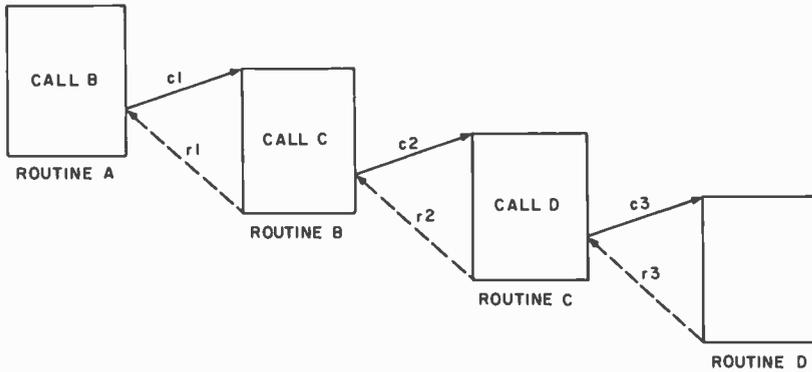


Figure 3: Diagrammatic representation of multilevel, or "nested," subroutines. The return address of each subroutine call must be remembered so that the program can return to the right place after the subroutine is completed. The "last in first out" nature of nested subroutines is such that the stack is a logical way to keep track of the return addresses.

saved. Some processors, like the IMP-8C, have instructions to push and pop status flags onto stacks. In other processors, this is done automatically when an interrupt occurs. Stacks in microprocessors, starting from the early Intel designs, have traditionally been used primarily for subroutine control and interrupt handling.

Another use of stacks, though one not much used in the hardware of processors, is in the compiling arithmetic expressions. Consider the following arithmetic expression:

$$A+BXC-D/E$$

In this form, the "operator" is between the two operands. This is known as *infix* notation. The form in which the operator follows the operands is called *postfix* or *reverse Polish* after the Polish logician J Lukasiewicz, who investigated the properties of this notation. The postfix equivalent of the above expression, which does not require any parentheses, is as follows:

$$AB+CXDE/-$$

Algorithms exist which use the stacks to convert arithmetic expressions from infix to postfix notation (see reference 2). Figure 4 shows a sample code for the above postfix expression; it is meant for a computer with stacks, and is used to evaluate arithmetic expressions. Operations such as ADD and SUB take the top two elements of the stack, perform the operation, and then push the result back onto the stack. Such a system is called a *stack computer*. Using this postfix notation, it is not hard to generate code for machines with single accumulators or for machines with multiple registers.

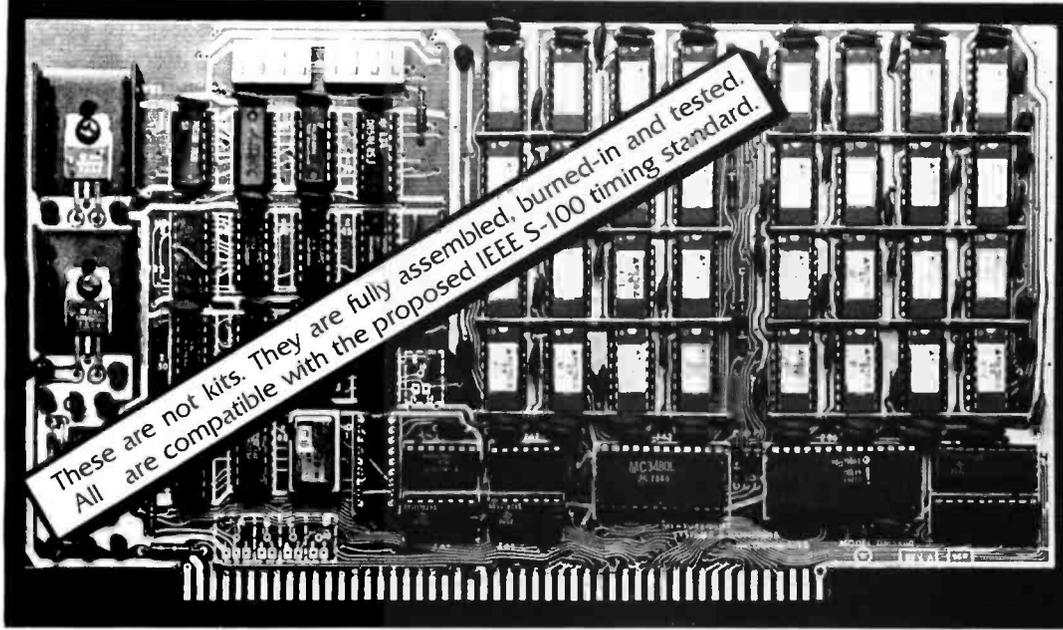
Stack Machines

Among the architectures with two stacks, two broad categories are evident. The first kind of machine provides stack features along with conventional architecture. This stack feature might be implemented through a hardware realized stack, a stack pointer register with a set of associated hardware instructions, or a complete software simulation using a memory location as the stack and its pointer. Some combinations of these three approaches are also present in some recent processor architectures. Most processors have some sort of stack facility and instructions to manipulate data with stacks or stack pointers.

The second kind of machine with stack facility can be called a *stack machine*. Its architecture is completely centered on stacks. The Burroughs B5500 and B6700, HP3000 and ICL2900 are examples of this category. In these machines, the three basic functions of process management, memory management, and data management of jobs are all stack oriented. Most of these archi-

Op Code	Contents of Stack (read left to right)
PUSH A	A
PUSH B	B,A
ADD	(A+B)
PUSH C	C,(A+B)
MPY	(A+B)*C
PUSH D	D,(A+B)*C
PUSH E	E,D,(A+B)*C
DIV	(D/E),(A+B)*C
SUB	(A+B)*C-(D/E)

Figure 4: Op code designed for use with Polish postfix notation on stack oriented computers. Polish notation is a method for rewriting expressions unambiguously by systematically segregating operators and operands. For instance, the expression used in this example appears as (A+B)XC-D/E in normal, or "infix" notation; the Polish postfix equivalent is AB+CXDE/. The latter can be directly used by a stack oriented computer, which automatically performs stack operations. (For example, a stack ADD instruction takes the top two elements of the stack, adds them together, and pushes them back onto the stack. The MULT, DIV and SUB operators work in the same manner.) The algorithm for evaluating the expression then reduces to examining each element in the Polish notation string from left to right, pushing it onto the stack if it is an operand and performing the operation if it is an operator.



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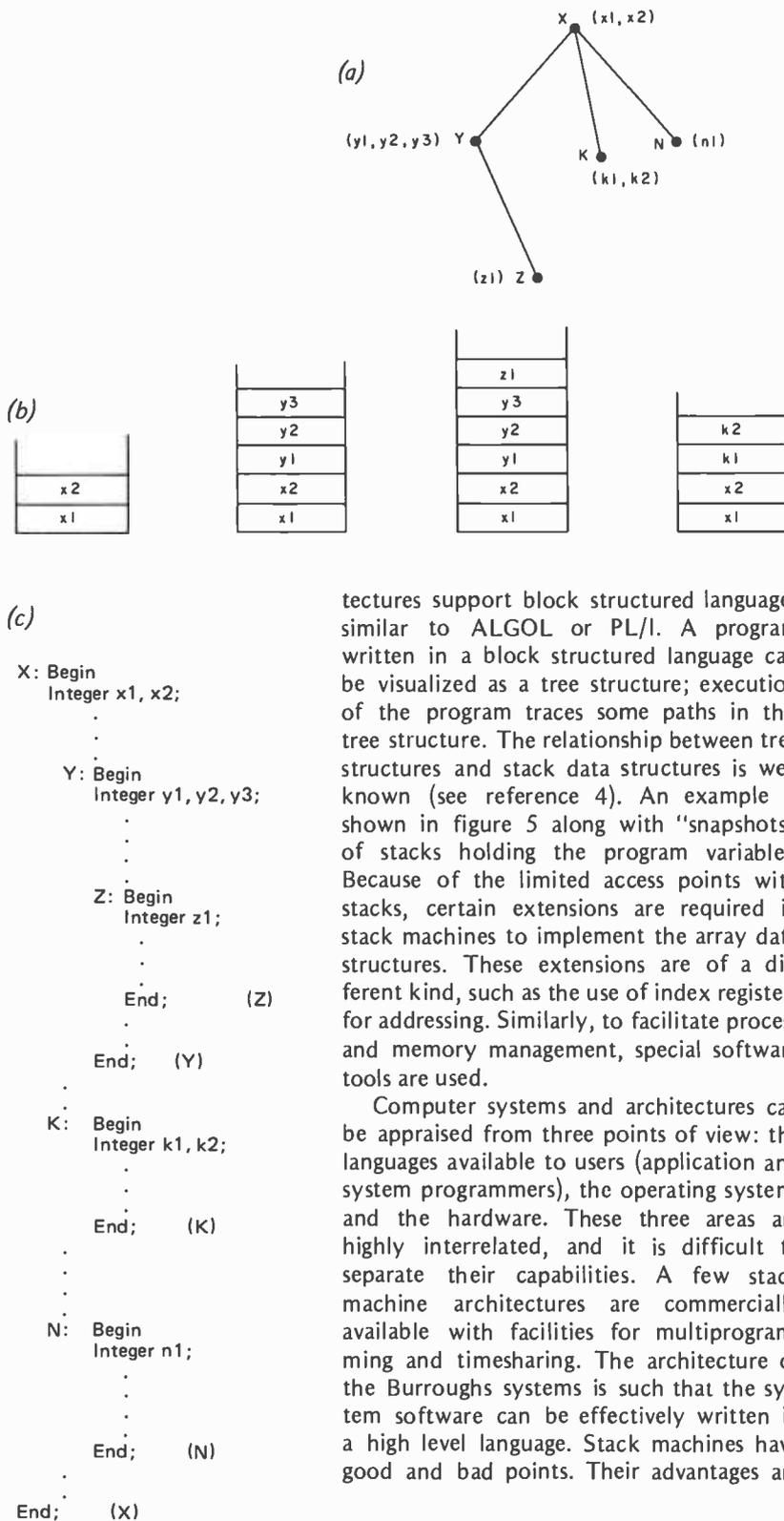
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tectures support block structured languages similar to ALGOL or PL/I. A program written in a block structured language can be visualized as a tree structure; execution of the program traces some paths in this tree structure. The relationship between tree structures and stack data structures is well known (see reference 4). An example is shown in figure 5 along with "snapshots" of stacks holding the program variables. Because of the limited access points with stacks, certain extensions are required in stack machines to implement the array data structures. These extensions are of a different kind, such as the use of index registers for addressing. Similarly, to facilitate process and memory management, special software tools are used.

Computer systems and architectures can be appraised from three points of view: the languages available to users (application and system programmers), the operating system, and the hardware. These three areas are highly interrelated, and it is difficult to separate their capabilities. A few stack machine architectures are commercially available with facilities for multiprogramming and timesharing. The architecture of the Burroughs systems is such that the system software can be effectively written in a high level language. Stack machines have good and bad points. Their advantages are

noticeable in block structured programming, which is becoming popular. As Doran points out (see reference 1), stack machines have proven to be successful. The increasing cost of software and the flexibility available through microprogramming indicates a trend towards stack machines or, at least, toward a greater use of stack features in computer architectures.

Conclusions

Developments in software and programming techniques during the past decade have proven the advantages of stack data structures. Microprocessors of recent origin provide adequate facilities to support this data structure. The provision of stack pointers is a compromise between the expensive and inflexible hardware stacks at one end and the inexpensive and flexible software simulation at the other end. Most microprocessors have stack pointers and a set of associated machine instructions.

Stack machines have certain advantages in higher level block structured programming and the implementation of operating systems. At present, programming with microprocessors is done mostly in machine or assembly language level. Large in-house software systems for microprocessors are not yet a reality. As a result, stack machine architectures are still in the realm of large machines. ■

Acknowledgement

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Designing a Command Language

G A Van den Bout
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Nearly every system, whether it is composed of ten lines of code or ten thousand lines of code, will perform three distinct functions. It will receive input from the user, it will process this input and it will output the results. Of these three functions, the one which undoubtedly receives the least attention from the system designer is the communication from the user of the system to the system itself.

Hours and hours may be spent perfecting a processing algorithm and computing field lengths so that the resulting output can be instantly understood, yet due to the lack of consideration put into the input stage of the system, the user may be forced to plow through a series of questions and answers directed to him by the system. This is a situation which would try the patience of even the most tolerant person. Sometimes a situation even worse than this series of questions may be caused by the designer who is very familiar with the system. In an effort to save time and memory space, the designer may decide to reduce or even entirely omit any prompting by the program. This leaves the decision of what information must be entered to the intuition of the user, or to a system manual which will probably not be around when it is needed.

A good solution to the problem would be a well designed command language which would allow the user to supply all of the information which is needed by the program at one time, in a single command. Then, if any of the required data has not been entered, the computer can prompt the user for the remaining items. This method

allows for both the experienced user who knows exactly what data the program needs at every instant and for the first time user who requires some help from the system now and then, but who will soon become familiar with the system and probably prefer to avoid the repetitious prompting.

Consider the following example which, although hypothetical and not necessarily typical of chess playing programs in general, illustrates problems which do exist in many systems. A superb chess playing program has been designed after months of hard work. Along with this program, a graphics output system has been devised to display the present formation of the board after each move is made. When the user sits down to test his skill against that of the machine, he becomes a partner to the following dialogue:

```
(C: COMPUTER; P: PLAYER)
C: DO YOU WISH TO MOVE(1), CAPTURE(2),
  OR CASTLE(3)? ENTER 1, 2, OR 3.
P: 1
C: ENTER NUMBER (1-8) OF ROW THAT
  PIECE IS ON.
P: 2
C: ENTER LETTER (A-Z) OF COLUMN THAT
  PIECE IS ON.
P: D
C: ENTER NUMBER (1-8) OF ROW TO WHICH
  YOU ARE MOVING.
P: ...
```

No matter how well the machine plays chess, it is doubtful whether it will be used by any particular person for more than a few games. Despite the thought that went into the rest of the program, no creative thought was put into the command language for the system.

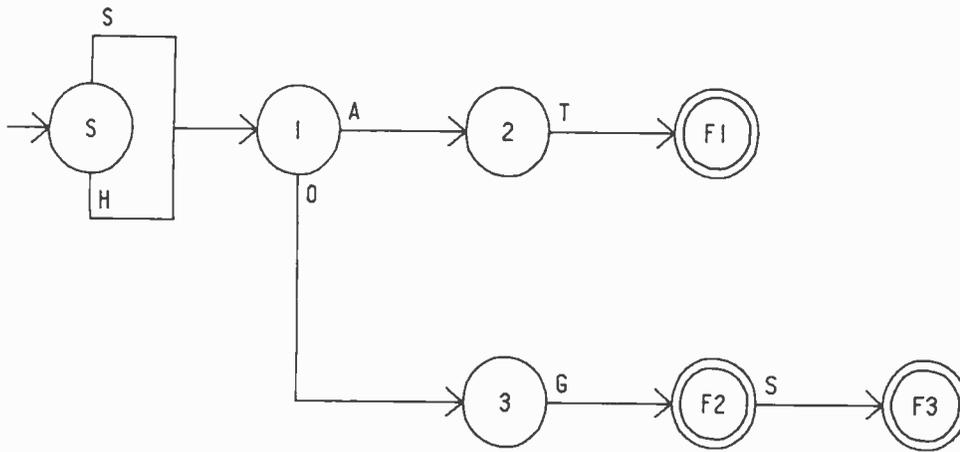


Figure 1: A finite state machine with one initial state and three final states that is capable of recognizing the words: sat, sog, sogs, hat, hog and hogs.

Now, consider the following conversation between the computer and the player.

C: ENTER YOUR FIRST MOVE.
P: MOVE FROM D2 TO D4
C: I MOVE FROM H5 TO E2. CHECK.
P: CAPTURE E2
C: FROM WHERE?
P: H2
C: ...

This method not only cuts down on the unnecessary chatter which was encountered in the first case, but gives the player credit for possessing some knowledge of what is happening in the game. By taking time to design an easy to use command language, the designer can produce a game which will not only play well but which will also be enjoyable to use.

The problem encountered when designing a program which handles a set of commands such as these is that often no organized approach is taken to assure that the allowable commands are processed correctly. Each input string may be scanned and re-scanned for the information which is needed by the program. This type of haphazard approach will very likely produce unreadable code which is hard to debug and which may contain hidden errors and ambiguities. To avoid these problems, the theory of finite state machines (FSMs) may be used to produce a recognizer program which can parse the input commands and produce a structured command which can be interpreted by the system.

Finite State Machines

Since the aim of this article is to show how to use finite state machines to aid in programming a command language, not to thoroughly cover finite state machine theory, I will give a rather informal description of the machines. The representation used here has appeared in various places, and was chosen mainly because of its simplicity for this application.

Consider the finite state machine shown in figure 1. Each circle represents a state of the finite state machine. In this example there are seven states: S, 1, 2, 3, F1, F2 and F3. The names chosen for the states are arbitrary. The directed lines between the states are called state transition paths. The state transition path, labeled with an H, located between state S and state 1, is named S-1(H). The parenthetical symbol will be omitted when there is no ambiguity, such as the path 1-3. The states which are circled twice are final states. The final states in figure 1 are F1, F2 and F3. The states which are pointed to by arrows which lead from no other state are called initial states. The only initial state in figure 1 is S.

This finite state machine can be used to recognize several different strings, a string in this case being merely a sequence of letters. For a particular string to be recognized, an ordered path must exist between an initial state and a final state such that every symbol in the string being recognized exists (in its original order) along the path starting at the initial state. Using this finite state machine the string HOG is recognized in the following manner. Starting at initial state S, the first symbol in the string, H, leads to state 1 along path S-1(H). The second symbol, the letter O, selects path 1-3 leading to state 3. Finally, the symbol G leads to the final state F2 via the path 3-F2. Since this path exists from the initial state S to the final state F2, the string has

Figure 2: Finite state machine that has a state transition path loop.

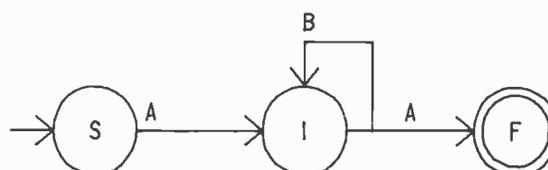


Figure 3: A lexical finite state machine for recognizing the entities that will be accepted by the game: <TO>, <TAKE>, <MOVE>, <CAP>, <FROM>, <END>, <POS>.

been recognized. The other strings which can be recognized by this FSM are SAT, HAT, SOG, SOGS and HOGS.

State transition paths need not proceed to a new state. A state transition path may return to a previous state or may even return to the state from which it started. Figure 2 is an example of a finite state machine which will recognize any string which begins and ends with an A and which has zero or more Bs between the two As, such as the strings: AA, ABA, ABBA, etc.

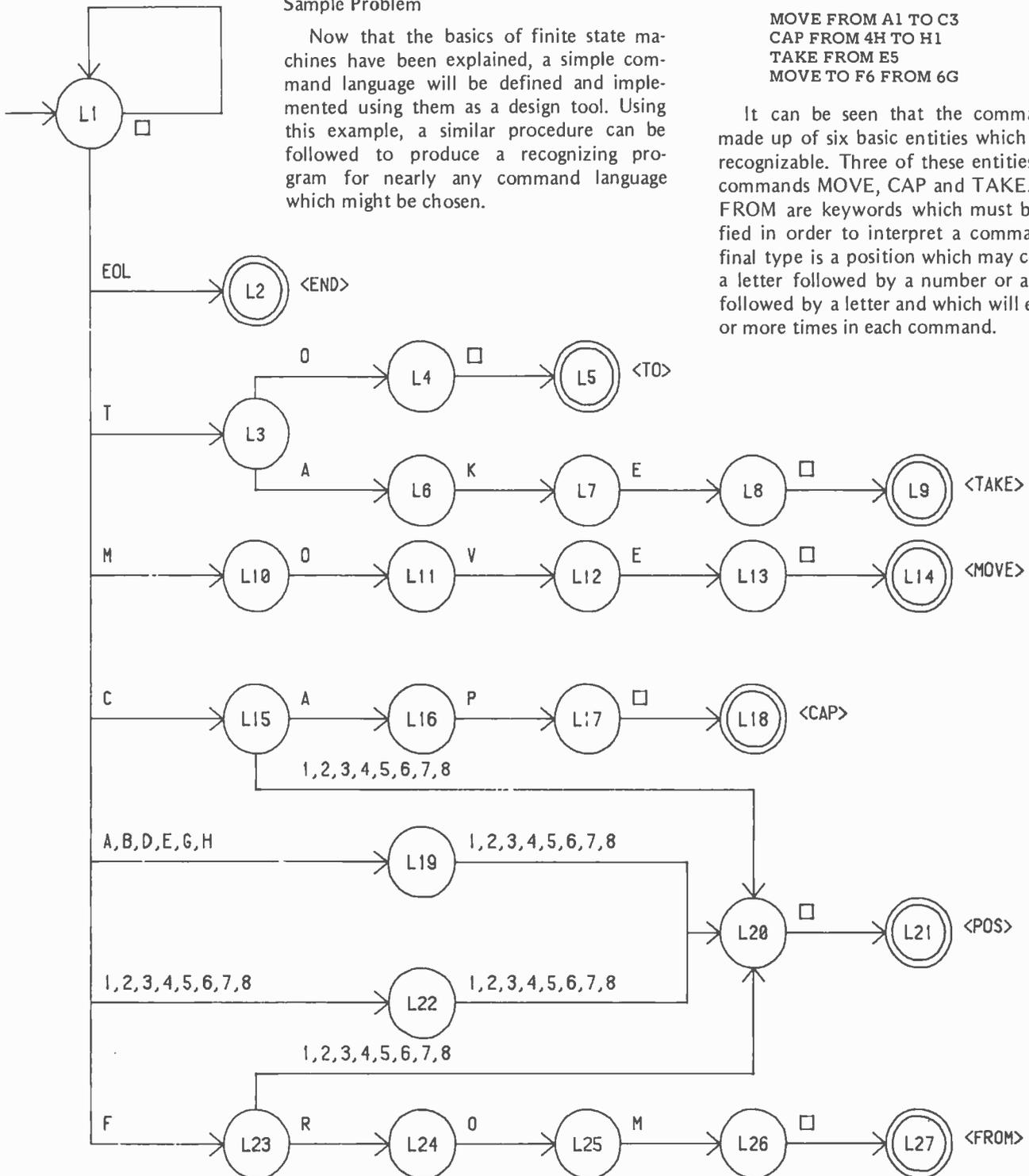
Sample Problem

Now that the basics of finite state machines have been explained, a simple command language will be defined and implemented using them as a design tool. Using this example, a similar procedure can be followed to produce a recognizing program for nearly any command language which might be chosen.

Assume that there is a game which is played on a chess board. The columns of the board are labeled with the letters A thru H and the rows of the board are labeled with the numbers 1 thru 8. The three possible moves which may be made by any player consist of moving a piece from one square to another, MOVE, moving a piece to another square and capturing the piece on that square, CAP, or removing one of his own pieces from the board, TAKE. Some examples of commands which are to be accepted by the program are:

```
MOVE FROM A1 TO C3
CAP FROM 4H TO H1
TAKE FROM E5
MOVE TO F6 FROM 6G
```

It can be seen that the commands are made up of six basic entities which must be recognizable. Three of these entities are the commands MOVE, CAP and TAKE. TO and FROM are keywords which must be identified in order to interpret a command. The final type is a position which may consist of a letter followed by a number or a number followed by a letter and which will exist one or more times in each command.



Command Recognizers

When a command is entered to be interpreted by the computer, it consists merely of a sequence of symbols (letters, numbers and spaces) which have no syntactic meaning of their own. The meaning only starts to be-

come clear when the symbols are grouped together to form tokens. The tokens which exist in this game are the six entities described above. These tokens will be referred to as <MOVE>, <CAP>, <TAKE>, <TO>, <FROM>, <POS>. A finite state machine which will recognize each of these tokens is shown in figure 3. Blanks are shown on this diagram and in the following diagrams as small squares. Note that one new token has been added to the six types listed above. This new token is <END> which is recog-

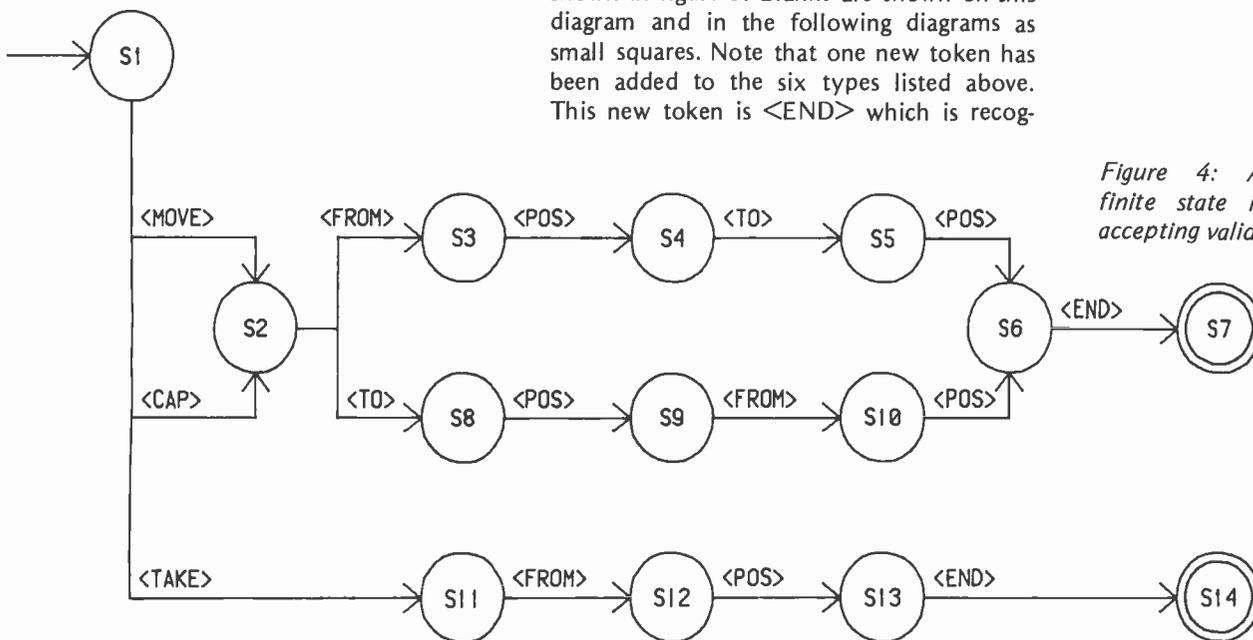


Figure 4: A syntactic finite state machine for accepting valid commands.

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Figure 5: Two example COMMAND arrays. COMMAND array A results after processing the command MOVE TO C1 FROM H6. COMMAND array B is the result of processing TAKE FROM A7.

(a)	1	(b)	3
	H		A
	6		7
	C		---
	1		---

nized when an end of line (eol) delimiter is found.

Most of this finite state machine is self-explanatory. Note, however, the two states L15 and L23 which are entered after matching an initial C or F, respectively. These states represent a point in the matching process where the token being recognized may be either a command (<CAP> or <FROM>) or a position (<POS>). When the next symbol in the input stream is examined, the recognition of the token as a position (paths L15-L20 and L23-L20) or as a command (paths L15-L16 and L23-L24) can be made.

The finite state machine which has just been described performs the process known as lexical analysis, the process of grouping

together input symbols to determine the tokens which have been input. The next process which must be performed is the process of syntactic analysis, checking the order of the tokens which have been formed to see whether they form a valid command. For example, the two "commands":

MOVE FROM A1 TO C3
A1 C3 FROM TO MOVE

are both composed of valid tokens for the example language but only the first command is syntactically correct. To determine the syntactic correctness of a command another finite state machine must be designed. This machine, rather than having paths labeled with symbols from a character set, will have labels which are valid tokens of the language being processed. Figure 4 shows a finite state machine which will accept the valid commands of the language.

Semantic Routines

At this point two finite state machines have been produced which can be used to recognize valid commands for the game. Before these machines are used to help produce code to process actual commands, the results of processing each command must be defined. After a decision has been made regarding these results, semantic routines, routines to carry out the processing of the various commands, should be associated with each state transition path of the finite state machines. In our system, each command will be converted to a set of codes and placed in an array called COMMAND which will have five elements. COMMAND(1) will be set to a code describing the command operation (1=MOVE, 2=CAP, 3=TAKE), COMMAND(2) and COMMAND(3) will hold, respectively, the column and the row position associated with the FROM keyword. COMMAND(4) and COMMAND(5) will hold the column and row position associated with the TO keyword. Figure 5 shows the expected results of processing following two commands:

MOVE TO C1 FROM H6
TAKE FROM A7

For the finite state machine that is shown in figure 4, table 1 shows the semantics which will produce the desired results. Routines for paths such as S1-S2(<MOVE>) set the first element of the COMMAND array to indicate which command was recognized. Path S2-S3 is an implicit recognition of the word FROM and has no semantics associated with it since nothing must be done until the path S3-S4 is traversed. When this action occurs, the row and

Table 1: Semantics for the syntactic finite state machine.

S1-S2(<MOVE>)	:	SET COMMAND(1)	TO 1
S1-S2(<CAP>)	:	SET COMMAND(1)	TO 2
S1-S3	:	SET COMMAND(1)	TO 3
S4-S7	:	SET COMMAND(2)	TO COLUMN (A-H)
		SET COMMAND(3)	TO ROW (1-8)
S10-S13	:	SET COMMAND(4)	TO COLUMN (A-H)
		SET COMMAND(5)	TO ROW (1-8)
S8-S9	:	SET COMMAND(4)	TO COLUMN (A-H)
		SET COMMAND(5)	TO ROW (1-8)
S10-S6	:	SET COMMAND(2)	TO COLUMN (A-H)
		SET COMMAND(3)	TO ROW (1-8)
S12-S13	:	SET COMMAND(2)	TO COLUMN (A-H)
		SET COMMAND(3)	TO ROW (1-8)
OTHERS	:	(NO SEMANTICS)	

Table 2: Semantics for the lexical finite state machine. These routines are used to set up the array TOKEN.

L1-L2	:	SET TOKEN(1)	TO 0
		SET TOKEN(2)	TO 6
L4-L5	:	SET TOKEN(1)	TO 0
		SET TOKEN(2)	TO 4
L8-L9	:	SET TOKEN(1)	TO 0
		SET TOKEN(2)	TO 3
L13-L14	:	SET TOKEN(1)	TO 0
		SET TOKEN(2)	TO 1
L17-L18	:	SET TOKEN(1)	TO 0
		SET TOKEN(2)	TO 2
L26-L27	:	SET TOKEN(1)	TO 0
		SET TOKEN(2)	TO 5
L1-L19	:	SET TOKEN(2)	TO INPUT CHARACTER
L1-L22	:	SET TOKEN(1)	TO INPUT CHARACTER
L19-L20	:	SET TOKEN(1)	TO INPUT CHARACTER
L22-L20	:	SET TOKEN(2)	TO INPUT CHARACTER
L15-L20	:	SET TOKEN(1)	TO INPUT CHARACTER
		SET TOKEN(2)	TO "C"
L23-L20	:	SET TOKEN(1)	TO INPUT CHARACTER
		SET TOKEN(2)	TO "F"
OTHERS	:	(NO SEMANTICS)	

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column are stored in the COMMAND array to indicate the FROM position. When a final state is reached, an entire command has been parsed and the COMMAND array contains all of the necessary information to fully describe the command.

The lexical finite state machine shown in figure 3 will be used by the syntactic finite

state machine just described to obtain tokens from the input stream when they are needed. The output from the lexical finite state machine will be a 2 element array named TOKEN which will contain the following codes. If the token is <POS>, then the first element of TOKEN will be the row number and the second element

Listing 1: Routine constructed for the lexical finite state machine.

```

*
* LEX IS A SUBROUTINE WHICH EXAMINES INPUT
* CHARACTERS UNTIL IT FINDS A VALID TOKEN OR
* AN INPUT ERROR. SUBROUTINE RCHAR READS THE
* NEXT CHARACTER FROM THE INPUT BUFFER INTO
* CHAR. '#' IS THE END-OF-BUFFER CHARACTER.
* LEX SETS TOKEN (THE TWO ELEMENT ARRAY) TO
* THE FOLLOWING CODES:
*
*          TOKEN(1)          TOKEN(2)
*
* <MOVE>  -          0          1
* <CAP>   -          0          2
* <TAKE>  -          0          3
* <TO>    -          0          4
* <FROM>  -          0          5
* <END>   -          0          6
* ERROR   -          0          7
* <POS>   -          0          7
*          ROW: 1-8          COL: A-Z
*
LEX:  SUBROUTINE;
      TOKEN(1) = 0
*
* STATE 1 - BEGINNING STATE
L1:  CALL RCHAR();
      IF CHAR = ' ' THEN GO TO L1;
      IF CHAR = 'T' THEN GO TO L3;
      IF CHAR = 'M' THEN GO TO L10;
      IF CHAR = 'C' THEN GO TO L15;
      IF CHAR = 'F' THEN GO TO L23;
      IF CHAR = '#' THEN DO;
          TOKEN(2) = 6;
          RETURN;
      END;
      IF CHAR = 'A' | 'B' | 'D' | 'E' | 'G' |
          'H' THEN DO;
          TOKEN(2) = CHAR;
          GO TO L19;
      END;
      IF CHAR = '1' | '2' | '3' | '4' | '5' |
          '6' | '7' | '8' THEN DO;
          TOKEN(1) = CHAR;
          GO TO L22;
      END;
      GO TO LEXERR;
*
* STATE 3 - HAVE FOUND 'T'
L3:  CALL RCHAR();
      IF CHAR = 'O' THEN GO TO L4;
      IF CHAR = 'A' THEN GO TO L6;
      GO TO LEXERR;
*
* STATE 4 - HAVE FOUND <TO>
L4:  CALL RCHAR();
      IF CHAR = ' ' THEN DO;
          TOKEN(2) = 4;
          RETURN;
      END;
      GO TO LEXERR;
*
* STATE 6 - HAVE FOUND 'TA'
L6:  CALL RCHAR();
      IF CHAR = 'K' THEN GO TO L7;
      GO TO LEXERR;
*
* STATE 7 - HAVE FOUND 'TAK'
L7:  CALL RCHAR();
      IF CHAR = 'E' THEN GO TO L8;
      GO TO LEXERR;
*
* STATE 8 - HAVE FOUND <TAKE>
L8:  CALL RCHAR();
      IF CHAR = ' ' THEN DO;
          TOKEN(2) = 3;
          RETURN;
      END;
      GO TO LEXERR;
*
* STATES 10 THRU 13 ARE VERY SIMILAR
* TO STATES 3 THRU 8 ABOVE AND ARE
* NOT SHOWN.
*
* STATE 15 - HAVE FOUND 'C'
L15: CALL RCHAR();
      IF CHAR = '1' | '2' | '3' | '4' | '5' |
          '6' | '7' | '8' THEN DO;
          TOKEN(1) = CHAR;
          TOKEN(2) = 'C';
          GO TO L20;
      END;
      IF CHAR = 'A' THEN GO TO L16;
      GO TO LEXERR;
*
* STATES 16 AND 17 RECOGNIZE THE REST OF
* <CAP> AND ARE NOT SHOWN.
*
* STATE 19 - HAVE FOUND COLUMN LETTER (A-Z)
L19: IF CHAR = '1' | '2' | '3' | '4' | '5' |
          '6' | '7' | '8' THEN DO;
          TOKEN(1) = CHAR;
          GO TO L20;
      END;
      GO TO LEXERR;
*
* STATE 20 - HAVE FOUND <POS>
L20: IF CHAR = ' ' THEN RETURN;
      GO TO LEXERR;
*
* STATE 22 - HAVE FOUND ROW NUMBER (1-8)
L22: IF CHAR = 'A' | 'B' | 'C' | 'D' | 'E' |
          'F' | 'G' | 'H' THEN DO;
          TOKEN(2) = CHAR;
          GO TO L20;
      END;
      GO TO LEXERR;
*
* STATE 23 - HAVE FOUND 'F'
L23: IF CHAR = '1' | '2' | '3' | '4' | '5' |
          '6' | '7' | '8' THEN DO;
          TOKEN(1) = CHAR;
          TOKEN(2) = 'F';
          GO TO L20;
      END;
      IF CHAR = 'R' THEN GO TO L24;
      GO TO LEXERR;
*
* STATES 24 THRU 26 ARE SIMILAR TO OTHER
* STATES WHICH RECOGNIZE KEYWORDS AND ARE
* NOT SHOWN.
*
* LEXERR - AN ERROR HAS BEEN ENCOUNTERED
*          IN THE INPUT STRING.
LEXERR: TOKEN(1) = 0;
         TOKEN(2) = 7;
         RETURN;
END LEX;

```


Listing 2: Routine constructed for the syntactical finite state machine.

```

*
*      SYN IS A SUBROUTINE WHICH EXAMINES INPUT
*      TOKENS TO DETERMINE IF A COMMAND IS OR IS
*      NOT VALID. SYN USES SUBROUTINE LEX TO
*      OBTAIN THE TOKENS FROM THE INPUT STREAM.
*      A FIVE ELEMENT ARRAY NAMED COMMAND IS
*      SET USING THE FOLLOWING CODES:
*
*      COMMAND(1) : 0=ERROR, 1=MOVE, 2=CAP, 3=TAKE.
*      COMMAND(2) : COLUMN (A-H) OF "FROM".
*      COMMAND(3) : ROW (1-8) OF "FROM".
*      COMMAND(4) : COLUMN (A-H) OF "TO".
*      COMMAND(5) : ROW (1-8) OF "TO".
*
SYN:  SUBROUTINE;
*
*      STATE 1 - BEGINNING STATE
S1:   CALL LEX();
      IF TOKEN(1)=0 & TOKEN(2)=1 THEN DO;
          COMMAND(1) = 1;
          GO TO S2;
      END;
      IF TOKEN(1)=0 & TOKEN(2)=2 THEN DO;
          COMMAND(1) = 2;
          GO TO S2;
      END;
      IF TOKEN(1)=0 & TOKEN(2)=3 THEN DO;
          COMMAND(1) = 3;
          GO TO S3;
      END;
      GO TO SYNERR;
*
*      STATE 2 - <MOVE> OR <CAP> FOUND
S2:   CALL LEX();
      IF TOKEN(1)=0 & TOKEN(2)=5 THEN GO TO S3;
      IF TOKEN(1)=0 & TOKEN(2)=4 THEN GO TO S4;
      GO TO SYNERR;
*
*      STATE 3 - <MOVE><FROM> FOUND
S3:   CALL LEX();
      IF TOKEN(1)>0 THEN DO;
          COMMAND(2) = TOKEN(2);
          COMMAND(3) = TOKEN(1);
          GO TO S4;
      END;
      GO TO SYNERR;
*
*      STATE 4 - <MOVE><FROM><POS> FOUND
S4:   CALL LEX();
      IF TOKEN(1)=0 & TOKEN(2)=4 THEN GO TO S5;
      GO TO SYNERR;
*
*      STATE 5 - <MOVE><FROM><POS><TO> FOUND
S5:   CALL LEX();
      IF TOKEN(1)>0 THEN DO;
          COMMAND(4) = TOKEN(2);
          COMMAND(5) = TOKEN(1);
          GO TO S6;
      END;
      GO TO SYNERR;
*
*      STATE 6 - ENTIRE COMMAND FOUND
S6:   CALL LEX();
      IF TOKEN(1)=0 & TOKEN(2)=6 THEN RETURN;
      GO TO SYNERR;
*
*      STATES 8 THRU 13 ARE VERY SIMILAR TO STATES
*      2 THRU 6 AND ARE NOT SHOWN.
*
*      SYNERR - INVALID COMMAND SYNTAX.
SYNERR: COMMAND(1) = 0;
      RETURN;
END SYN;

```

will be the column letter. If the token is not <POS>, then the first element of TOKEN array will be set to zero and the second element will be a code indicating which type of token was recognized (1 for <MOVE>, 2 for <CAP>, 3 for <TAKE>, 4 for <TO>, 5 for <FROM>, 6 for <END>). The semantic routines associated with the lexical finite state machine to set TOKEN correctly are shown in table 2.

Implementation

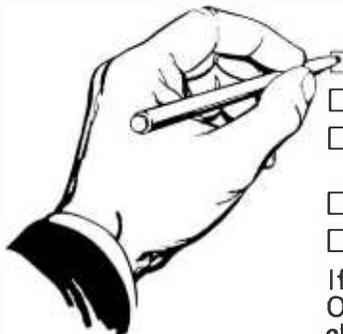
The first step in implementing the command language is the conversion of the lexical finite state machine into a subroutine which locates the next token in the input stream and places the necessary codes into TOKEN as described above. If at any time, an error is detected while attempting to recognize a new token from the input stream, then TOKEN(1) is set to zero, TOKEN(2) is set to 7 and this routine returns to its calling routine.

A program named LEX, written in a BASIC-like language, which accomplishes these results is shown in listing 1. Prior to the invocation of this routine, the input command must be obtained from the user and stored in a buffer followed by a blank and the end of line character. A routine RCHAR is assumed to exist, which reads the next character from the input buffer and places it into the variable CHAR. Because of the way that the program has been designed, the flow of the program is easy to understand and modifications are easy to make if necessary, especially if the corresponding finite state machine diagram is available. The program is divided into sections which correspond to the states in the finite state machine. Each section determines which state transition pointer should be followed from the character which is being scanned. It then performs the semantics associated with this state transition pointer and moves along the path by means of the appropriate GO-TO statement. If during the processing of any state, the input character being examined does not correspond with any valid state transition pointer, the routine sets TOKEN to the error code described above and returns to its caller.

Listing 2 shows the routine constructed from the syntactic finite state machine. The

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structure of this program is almost identical to the structure of the previous routine. This time each section of the program examines the next token which has been obtained by a call to LEX, performs the appropriate semantics for the path to be traversed, and then moves to the next defined state. Again, if either an invalid token is encountered or if the routine LEX returns an error code, this routine returns to its caller after leaving an error code of zero in COMMAND.

Due to the way these routines were constructed, a single error code is returned if any error occurs in a command. But, because the exact location in the state diagram is known whenever an error occurs, more descriptive error messages can be generated, or fix up action may be performed. If the command:

MOVE TO A8

is entered, then the syntactic routine would encounter the <END> token while processing state S8. Based on the present form of the program, the error message printed would most likely be "INVALIDCOMMAND SYNTAX - ENTER NEW COMMAND" since no attempt is made to analyze the syntax error.

However, instead of merely returning the zero error code to its caller, the syntactic routine could return a unique code to indicate that the FROM section of the command is missing. The calling routine could then prompt the user for the coordinates of the piece which is to be moved. Depending on the extent to which this error checking is

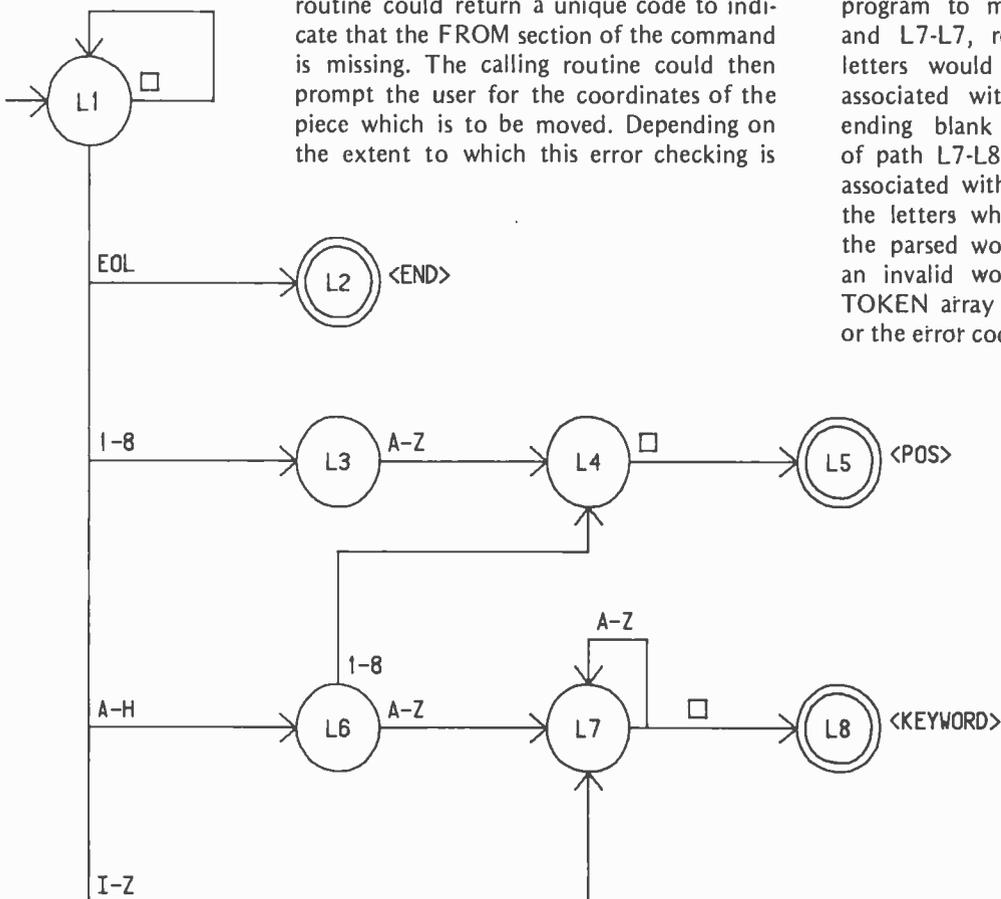
carried out, a very elaborate and easy to use command system can be created.

Other Representations

The finite state machine diagrams in figures 3 and 4 have been chosen to illustrate the techniques of using finite state machines for designing command languages and do not represent the only way to implement this sample command language. An alternate finite state machine which performs lexical analysis for the example game is shown in figure 6. In this finite state machine all of the commands and keywords (MOVE, CAP, TAKE, TO and FROM) map into the single token <KEYWORD>. Semantic routines associated with the paths L1-L6, L1-L7, L6-L7 and L7-L7 would be used to save the symbols which have already been matched. Then when path L7-L8 is traversed, the semantics associated with this path would include a table lookup routine to identify the command or keyword and correctly fill in the TOKEN array.

To illustrate this technique, observe how the finite state machine in figure 6 would recognize the capture command. Starting with state L1, the C would cause the traversal of path L1-L6 and would be saved to later help identify the token being parsed. The A and the P would similarly cause the program to move along the paths L6-L7 and L7-L7, respectively, and again these letters would be saved by the semantics associated with these paths. Finally, the ending blank would cause the traversal of path L7-L8. At this time, the semantics associated with path L7-L8 would examine the letters which had been saved, identify the parsed word as either a valid token or an invalid word, and correctly fill in the TOKEN array with the code for the token or the error code.

Figure 6: An alternate solution for the lexical analysis of the game program.



Certain advantages exist for both the method used in the finite state machine in figure 3 and for this method but as the number of keywords increases, this method becomes much more efficient in terms of memory used.

Conclusion

The purpose of this article has been to show how finite state machine theory may be applied to produce correct and well structured code for command recognizers. I have used finite state machines to produce both an information retrieval command language and a FORTRAN free format input processor of character strings and numbers; and methods similar to these shown here have significantly speeded up the implementations. The efficiency of this method will vary depending on which language is used to program the procedures and on the programming techniques used. The sample programs previously shown were designed with clarity in mind and are not the most efficient routines which could have been written. I would recommend that the lexical finite state machine be coded in assembler language if possible since many techniques exist to improve the performance of character by character

scanning and comparison. Of course, both of the routines may be written in any language desired, but because of the memory space limitations of most small computers, assembler language would probably be an asset. As memory size increases, however, the advantages of assembler tend to decrease. Whichever language is chosen, the finite state machine method of designing a command language should produce a system which runs correctly after less programming effort, which can be more readily understood and changed as necessary, and which can provide a series of error and prompting messages that help to make the system easier and more enjoyable to use. ■

REFERENCES

For examples of the use of finite state machines to identify tokens of a programming language I refer the reader to the following:

Gries, David, "The Scanner," *Compiler Construction for Digital Computers*, John Wiley and Sons, New York, 1971, pages 64 thru 71.

More information on finite state machines and their theory can be found in many other books, including:

Gill, A, *Introduction to the Theory of Finite State Machines*, McGraw-Hill, New York, 1962.

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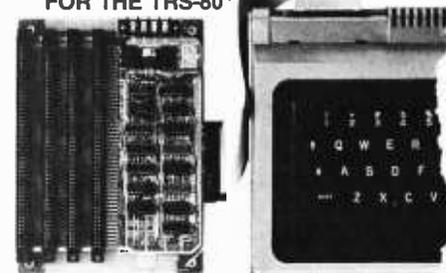
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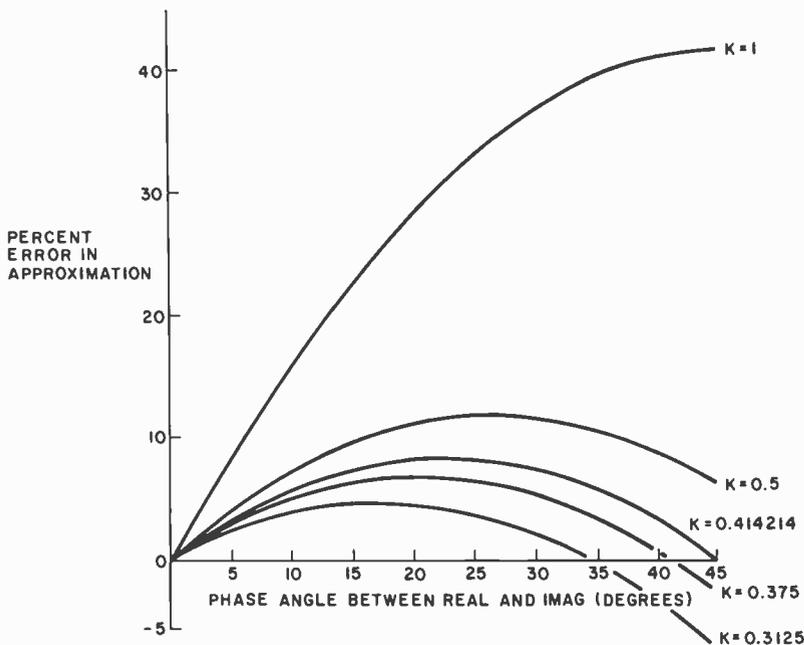


Figure 1: A plot of the percent error in the magnitude approximation for different values of K . We are approximating the square root of $REAL^2 + IMAG^2$ by the formula $L + KS$, where L is the larger and S is the smaller value of the absolute values of the real and imaginary parts of a vector.

K	PEAK ERRORS VARY FROM (%)	RMS ERROR (%)
1	0 to 41	30
.5 (1/2)	0 to 12	9.1
.414214 ($\sqrt{2} - 1$)	0 to 8.2	5.9
.375 (3/8)	-2.8 to 6.8	4.7
.3125 (5/16)	-7.2 to 4.8	3.6

Table 1: The accuracy of the approximation algorithm as a function of K .

K	IMPLEMENTATION OF $K \times ABS(\text{SMALLER})$
1	None Required. (Fastest)
.5 (1/2)	Shift right 1.
.375 (3/8)	Shift right 2, Store in TEMP, Shift right 1, Add TEMP.
.3125 (5/16)	Shift right 2, Store in TEMP, Shift right 2, Add TEMP.
.414214 ($\sqrt{2} - 1$)	Multiply. (Slowest)

Table 2: A comparison of implementation speeds for various values of K .

I enjoyed Richard Lord's article presenting an assembly language FFT (fast Fourier transform) program for the 6800 (February 1979 BYTE, page 108). Adaptation to my 6502 (KIM) system should be fairly straightforward.

However, the author notes that obtaining the magnitude of each resulting vector is almost as time-consuming as the FFT process itself, since this would involve taking the square root of the sum of the squares of each REAL/IMAG pair. Strictly speaking, he is correct, but with very little trouble a quite reasonable approximation to the correct magnitude can be found. The following algorithm is often used for this purpose in the processing of speech and radar data, and may be implemented easily in either hardware or software.

To find the magnitude of a vector, given the orthogonal components (eg: REAL and IMAG):

- take the absolute values of REAL and IMAG;
- compare the two absolute values, place the larger in L and the smaller in S — if they're equal, it doesn't matter which goes where;
- multiply S by a constant (K), add the result to L .

What is K ? That depends on how much accuracy you're willing to sacrifice for computation speed. To appreciate this, you should understand that the error in the magnitude computation will be a function of the phase angle between the two components. In his article, Mr Lord simply added L to S , thus letting $K = 1$. This approximation gives an error of from 0 to 41 percent:

$$\text{Let } \text{MAGN} = L + S.$$

Suppose a vector actually has a magnitude of 100 units. If $L = 0$ and $S = 100$, then $\text{MAGN} = 100$, or 0 percent error. But, if $L = 70.7$ and $S = 70.7$, then $\text{MAGN} = 141.4$, or 41.4 percent error.

Table 1 shows several values of K , along with the corresponding spread of the peak errors. However, just looking at the peak errors can be deceiving; what you really

want to do is minimize some measure of the average error. Since the error function "folds" at 45 degrees of phase angle between L and S, I wrote a short program to compute the error at 1 degree intervals from 0 to 45 degrees. The root mean square of these errors is given in table 1 as a sort of quality factor for a given value of K.

As you can see, the computation of the magnitude can be improved from 3 to 8 times, simply by choosing the appropriate value of K. The error reduction as a function of K is shown graphically in figure 1; this is the accuracy part of the tradeoff.

The other side of the coin is speed of implementation. Given the absolute values of REAL and IMAG, and the fact that some fraction of one will be added to the other, it takes no extra time to perform the algorithm with K=1. However, with K=.414214, you must multiply (after finding the smaller of the two absolute values). The range of in-between speeds is given in table 2.

The accuracy/speed tradeoff should be evaluated for each user's application, either by analysis or by trying possible values of K. However, if you don't have the time or energy for this, remember that an immediate reduction of the root mean square error to less than ten percent may be obtained by a compare and a shift (ie, $K = .5$). ■

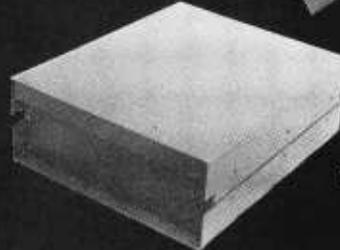
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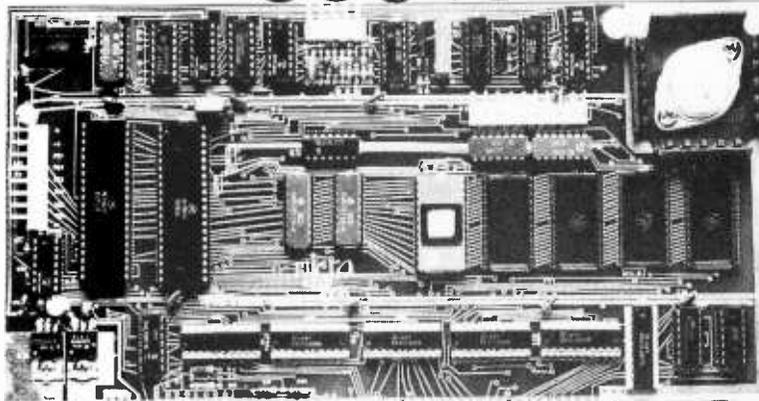
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Concerning User's Manuals

H Edgar Coburn
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3560 Albatross St
San Diego CA 92103

In my opinion, many engineers are incompetent when it comes to transmitting information to anyone not already trained in their particular specialty. (I, myself, am wondering if I'm getting *this* message across.) Engineers, who generally are not human oriented, excuse the obscurity of their communications by charging that the other person (*not* one of their compatriots, obviously) is not too bright. Unfortunately, there is just enough truth in this assumption to convince most engineers that there is no need to undertake the drudgery of learning how to be lucid — nothing is so easy as adjusting facts to fit opinions.

It is clearly apparent that if engineers are no more obscure in discourse than other people, then I don't have much of a point. So, before plunging into the real subject of this article, let's examine this question with respect to one particular feature involved in the process of transmitting information to others — namely, indices. Information that is not accessible, or that is accessible only with

excessive difficulty, is not of much practical value.

In connection with another project, I made a statistical study of the indices of the nonfiction books available in a large public library. I found that the average amount of space devoted to indexing was approximately 1.8% of the total number of pages in a book. Indices varied in size from 0 to more than 7% of the book pages. While it is evidently true that index length is no measure of index quality, it is equally apparent that a short index is limited in the amount of information that it can transmit.

Engineering books, despite the complexity of their subject matter, have less indexing (at an average of 1.3%) than nonfiction books in general. On the other hand, science books, properly reflecting the complexity of their subject matter, have more indexing (at an average of 2.4%) than nonfiction books in general.

Unfortunately, many instruction manuals for computers have been written by engineers. It may well be that the obscurity of computer manuals has a substantial effect on personal computer sales. It is even conceivable that literally thousands of intelligent, educated people, those who might benefit from the possession of a personal computer, are "turned off" when they see

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some of the instruction manuals published by computer manufacturers. If the reader is skeptical on this point, let him compare the average personal computer user's manual with a really good manual, such as the one supplied with Hewlett-Packard's HP-67 calculator.

Suppose that in a given year 10,000 people are turned away from personal computers by the paucity of lucid manuals. (I'm safe here because no one really knows how many potential buyers don't buy.) And suppose that the average user investment in personal computers is (optimistically) \$4000. This means that the personal computer industry, with at least a few manufacturers and retail sellers on the ragged edge of solvency, may be needlessly driving no less than \$40,000,000 per year into other hands.

If all computer manufacturers were to test their manuals by having several intelligent, educated people try to operate the corresponding computer with nothing but the manuals for a guide, the results might be illuminating, or even startling to the manufacturers. Then, instead of assuming that these test users are clumsy, it might be helpful to revise the manuals until they are lucid, not invincibly obscure.

I believe that the manufacturers will dis-

cover, if they actually make such a test, that the choice of a specific word is highly significant in the transmission of information. It makes a heap of difference whether one says, "Woman *and* child" or "Woman *with* child." It also makes a difference whether an engineer writes, ". . . *has* a directory entry" or ". . . *requires* a directory entry."

But most significant of all, many engineers seem to think that the reader needs little or nothing in the way of orientation. This, unfortunately, is not true. The reader of a manual needs to be led by the hand all the way — good writing typically provides such assistance. What often happens in practice is that the reader is given the brush-off, with the declaration that the manual assumes that the reader is acquainted with the subject. This is a luxury that the personal computer industry cannot afford.

Of course, it is perfectly reasonable to assume that the expectant owner of a personal computer should do a little studying of BASIC, for instance. The user definitely won't be harmed if he or she gets some idea of the general organization of a computer. But there is grave doubt that such training will aid the user noticeably in learning how, for example, to manage the disk file of some particular computer.

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Furthermore, such learning will be of no value at all in helping the hopeful beginning reader in remembering the casual comment, appearing many pages earlier, which mentions that control C is necessary whenever "2A00 hex" is transposed with M5700 in the . . . oh well, what does it matter? The point is that the novice computer owner needs guidance. Among other things, this means *examples, examples, and more examples*. Since the personal computer industry has not been overwhelmed by standardization, even the experienced computer user needs lucid, particular instructions when adapting to a new system.

One way to improve the situation is to have manuals written by those few engineers who have demonstrated a knack for putting ideas across. And since behavioral phenomena are complex, it is even better to engage the talents and specialized training of a psychologist. It is obvious to a psychologist that students need orientation and examples in order to develop skill in a reasonable time.

Unfortunately, it's one thing to observe a need and quite another to get action. I don't imagine for a moment that it is possible to get any action out of people without some kind of motivation. However, it should be noted that motivation techniques, like everything else, have changed remarkably over the years. In the 16th century, for instance, it was fairly common practice when a king was offended by some luckless peasant (or even by a nobleman) to have the offender bodily pulled apart by teams of Clydesdale horses (the kind that pull beer wagons). This sort of example was supposed to ensure a certain amount of respect for His Majesty. It was motivation that everyone could understand. Sadly, we're so civilized now that we can't use any of the old-time, sure-cure methods of motivation.

If engineers knew that the penalty for failure to be lucid was to be pulled apart by teams of draft horses, it might have a salutary effect on the writings of engineers. (If some computer engineers now think that I should be pulled apart by teams of draft horses, it clearly indicates that my writings are lucid. The readers get the message. Therefore I should *not* be pulled apart. Q.E.D.)

If a user's manual confuses intelligent people, it is not only unsatisfactory to the user, but damages the fortunes of manufacturers and retail dealers also, because poor documentation inhibits sales. Why should the manufacturers pay for full page color advertisements featuring their products, only to throw the benefits away by offering obscurely written manuals? There must be a better way. ■

Double Sided Notes

Jonathan A Titus
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David Lamkins' article about printed circuit layout techniques "Designing With Double Sided Printed Circuit Boards" (March 1979 BYTE, page 94) described some techniques that shouldn't be used in good printed circuit board designs. The main problem is the *strategy* of designing the power and ground runs as the last step. Don't do it.

The power and ground runs should be designed first in the printed circuit board layout, and not last. Here is why.

- Power runs should be as wide as possible. It is difficult to make them very wide if you have to make them fit between signal runs, pins, etc.
- It will be almost impossible to add decoupling capacitors to power runs that snake through signal runs. Remember, you will need one decoupling capacitor per 7400 series integrated circuit in a good design.

- If the power runs are left until last, poor design takes over, making the designer seek ground and power connections wherever they are available. Potential differences often occur, and the circuit doesn't function. Ground loops are also a problem unless proper layout of power runs is observed early in the design.

Although the use of one colored pencil per side of the double-sided printed circuit board is noted, designers should try to keep the runs on one side oriented in a right-left fashion and those on the other side oriented in an up-down fashion. If this course is followed, problems such as those in Lamkins' figure 4 are avoided. Use of this technique also simplifies *problems* such as those shown in Lamkins' figure 3 design.

The article also mentions the use of a *dedicated through-hole*. This is a new one to me. I always thought that the holes on a printed circuit board were dedicated to something. If they weren't *dedicated*, there wouldn't be any need for them. What is a through-hole? I thought that holes went through something. Who knows, maybe some computerist will come up with a nested-hole; a small hole inside a bigger one. Best wishes. ■

Statistical Computations Recomputed

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Saskatoon, Saskatchewan
CANADA S7J 1Z2

Alan B Forsythe, in his article "Elements of Statistical Computation," (January 1979 BYTE, page 182) states:

Several books of BASIC programs include the calculation of the standard deviation. Those I checked give the wrong answer for this set of data.

This is probably a result of the formula used in the article:

$$s = \sqrt{\frac{1}{N-1} \sum (X-\bar{X})^2}$$

The usual formula for standard deviation is:

$$\sigma = \sqrt{\frac{1}{N} \sum (X-\bar{X})^2}$$

The version given in the article is used when calculating standard deviation from a sample. (See for example *Handbook of Sampling for Accounting and Auditing*, 2nd edition, by Herbert Arkin, McGraw-Hill.) ■

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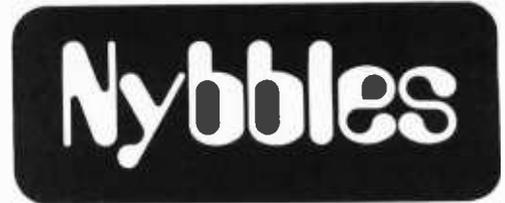
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After many trials and tribulations, we are happy to announce the winners of the *Great APL Contest* (August 1977 BYTE). The object of the contest was to create a usable APL interpreter.

The first place prize of \$1000 went to Alan Kaniss, Vincent DiChristofaro, and John Santini for their APL interpreter written in Pascal. This was the most complete interpreter we received.

The second place prize of \$500 went to two groups: the APL Committee of Texas A&M Microcomputer Club which submitted a club entry, and Stephanie Charles and Normand Berube who submitted a jointly written program. Both of these programs were for 8080 processor machines.

We thank all the people who entered the contest for the time they spent writing their interpreters, and we hope that they learned a great deal from the experience.

We used Michael Wimble's flowcharts (see "An APL Interpreter for Microcomputers," August, September, October 1977 BYTE) as generalized guidelines for our APL interpreter, rather than coding directly from them. We used most of his ideas on function implementation, table storage, input scanning, and statement parsing. There were a few minor errors in logic, but for the most part the flowcharts were clear and easy to work with. We expanded the interpreter to include functions to which Wimble made reference but did not flowchart — *inner product*, *outer product*, *catenate*, and *index-of*. We made the interpreter extremely portable by having the character set machine (as well as keyboard) independent. We accomplished this by having the program read in the installation's character set from a file at the start-up of the program.

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Tables

Rather than using Wimble's method of storing tables in arrays (variable table, value table, function table, token table), we took advantage of one of Pascal's data structures, the *linked list*. This offers two big advantages to the design of the interpreter:

- Array sizes do not have to be declared elsewhere in the program. There is no way of telling which tables will grow very large and which ones will stay small; this is dependent on the calculations being performed with the interpreter and will vary from one terminal session to another. With linked lists, storage allocation is dynamic and can be used for each table as needed (storage is taken from a common pool of storage reserved for linked lists).
- It is a simple procedure to de-allocate storage (using the standard function "dispose" in Pascal) so that it can be re-used by the program as needed. This helps to keep the size of the running program to a minimum.

Values

We store all values as real numbers. We decided to do this based on the fact that although APL's data structures are weak (eg: reals and integers can be stored in the same array), Pascal's data structures are very strongly typed. Numbers are checked to be whole numbers (nonfractional) for

certain operations such as index generation (monadic iota) and reshaping (dyadic rho). Numbers are checked to be Boolean for such operations as *logical negation* (tilde), ANDs, and ORs.

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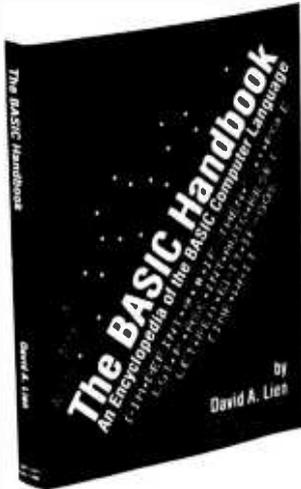
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Book Reviews



The BASIC Handbook: An Encyclopedia of the BASIC Computer Language
by David A Lien
CompuSoft Publishing, San Diego CA, 1978
360 pages, paperback
\$14.95

The title of this book really should read *A Dictionary of the BASIC Computer Language*. It is laid out in a self-indexing format as an alphabetic listing of BASIC keywords (such as PRINT, GOTO, and INT) accompanied by a detailed explanation of the effect that the keyword has when used in a program. Operator symbols are also dealt with.

The description given for each keyword includes the following: introductory and descriptive remarks, a test program with a sample run to show how the machine should respond, helpful hints, variations in usage between different brands of computers or different implementations of the BASIC language, and cross-references to related keywords. Also included is a section called "If Your Computer Doesn't Have It." This section is of great value to readers who may have BASIC interpreters that lack certain features.

In many cases this section gives a subroutine which performs a function. These subroutines are similar in design to those which are found in the Radio Shack *User's Manual for Level 1 TRS-80 Microcomputer System*. In some cases a slightly modified algorithm is used for better accuracy. These subroutines are written in a form which transports well between different systems. (The similarity to subroutines in the TRS-80 manual, and a slight emphasis on TRS-80 BASIC, is not surprising. Dr Lien is the author of the *TRS-80 Users Manual*.)

The BASIC Handbook is good within its limits. It will be a help to the beginning programmer, especially one trying to convert a BASIC program from one microcomputer system to another. When this novice programmer encounters a word with which he or she is not familiar in a program, the chances are that it is in this book, along with supplementary information.

A problem arises, however: not all features and differences between BASIC systems occur in the keywords. For example, the BASIC compiler offered by North Star Computers has several characteristics which differ from other BASIC systems. These include reversed use of commas and semicolons, and accessing of single characters from a string by subscript notation. The book could address the punctuation symbol usage, but it does not. The format does not provide a good section to discuss the subscript notation for strings or other differences of a similar nature.

The book in this edition is incomplete. Certain keywords do not appear. Notable by their absence are the string usage statements CHANGE and LINPUT; the special forms RESTORE\$ and RESTORE#; the matrix arithmetic operations (MAT C = A + B); the matrix initialization keywords (MAT C = ZER or CON or IDN); the matrix manipulation statements (MAT C = TRN(A) or INV(A), etc.); and most of the various statements for handling data files on mass storage devices.

Part of the reason for the above mentioned omissions is that most of the information presented in this book concerns microcomputer BASIC systems. In particular, the various Microsoft (MITS, Apple, Radio Shack, Commodore, Ohio Scientific) interpreters are well covered. Implementations of BASIC on minicomputers and large mainframes are somewhat neglected, however. They appear in the list on the inside back cover, but most of the more unusual features, those which are most likely to cause trouble, have not been included in this book.

The result of all this is that a person who wishes to convert a BASIC program from a large computer system to a small computer system will need to determine if the more specialized features of the "large" BASIC have been used. If they have, the programmer will need to consult the user's manual for the BASIC language as it works on the large source computer. Dr Lien recognizes this, as he states in the introduction, "*The BASIC Handbook* is not a substitute for the manufacturer's manual which accompanies each computer. It is a supplement."

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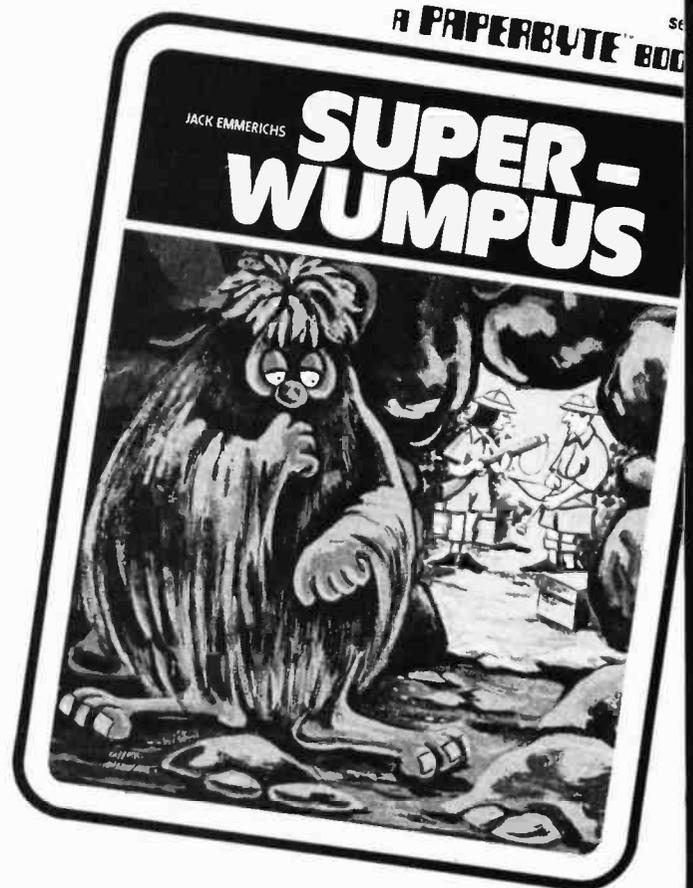
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Dr Lien treats the END statement in a way I dislike. He describes it only as a means of terminating program execution; whereas many computers use END as a means of indicating the end of the program text, and some systems use END as a marker for the physical end of file when a program is stored on a disk. Programmers treating END only as an execution terminator scatter ENDS throughout the program. If an unsuspecting user types in such a program on a system using END for end of file and saves it on a disk, he may lose the result of hours of work. I prefer the use of the STOP statement for terminating program execution other than at the end of the program.

I hope that BASIC experts will communicate with Dr Lien, to provide him with exact information concerning the more exotic features of the language. Then, perhaps, the second edition of this essentially helpful book can be more helpfully essential. All things considered, the book is a useful purchase, especially for the beginner, but I urge that it be improved. An improved version could truly require the appellation "encyclopedia."

Richard S Shuford
Editor

Structured Programming and Problem-Solving with Pascal

by Richard B Kieburtz

Prentice-Hall, Englewood Cliffs NJ 1978

365 pages paperback

\$10.95

Good habits appear to be in vogue for 1979. In programming, the good habits that we are suddenly hearing about are documentation, top-down design and bottom-up coding techniques, and the Pascal language. Richard B Kieburtz's book demonstrates the necessity of a firm grounding in the design and implementation of programs in order to cope with the complexity of today's programming problems.

The book is divided as follows: 45 percent Pascal, 45 percent structured design and programming techniques, and 10 percent theory (introductory material on computers that qualifies the book for use as a college textbook).

Pascal is largely defined and taught by the context of its use in solving problems such as determining the intersection of two line segments, writing a word processing program, and running a rabbit population simulation. Although there is an index of

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Pascal terms pointing back to the text, many of these terms are not defined in sufficient detail to help debug a Pascal program. The book is readily understandable to anyone unacquainted with the language, but it should not be used as the sole reference book on Pascal as it describes a generalized Pascal that manipulates both character and numeric variables. Specifically, it does not mention some of the more advanced UCSD (University of California at San Diego) extensions to Pascal.

The concept that is the cornerstone for both the theory and implementation of structured techniques in this book is known as "design by stepwise refinement." This automatically implies two techniques that I find best for problems of any complexity: top-down design and bottom-up coding. Top-down design (breaking a problem into manageable subproblems) produces a modular program that can be easily modified. Bottom-up coding (writing the code for every subproblem before writing the code that uses them) avoids the problem of having to rewrite the high level routines to add something that you found you needed at a later date. Kiebertz uses a relatively new flow-chart-like notation that depicts the fundamental structured programming constructs (*do-while*, *repeat-until*, *sequence*, *if-then-else*, and *case*) in a way that is both graphic and intuitively understandable. For example, the body of a *do-while* clause is a rectangle bordered on the left and top by an L-shaped piece that describes the *while* condition for repeating the block.

The book also introduces several of the better known algorithms and ideas in computer science: the linear interpolation and binary search methods of extracting roots, Gaussian elimination to solve simultaneous equations, backtracking trial and error methods (to solve the eight queens problem), and several simulation examples. The final chapter, "How Does the Computer Work?," deals with binary numbers, machine language, and computer architecture. It is obviously there to catch a larger slice of the textbook market.

All in all, this book is reasonably priced and well worth the money. It is a good introduction to Pascal (but only that), and it exposes the reader to good programming habits on all levels. I wish that I had been exposed to this kind of book when I was learning to program.

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Revolution in Miniature

by Ernest Braun and Stuart MacDonald
Cambridge University Press, 1978
231 pages hardcover
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The invention of the transistor was not a fortuitous accident of pure research. It had been sought for years before its actual invention. A working (though impractical) solid state amplifier had been demonstrated as early as 1933, and in 1939 Dr William Shockley tried to put a "grid" in a copper oxide rectifier. It didn't work. When developments in physics finally permitted its invention, the transistor principle was identified within weeks by Bell Laboratories, Purdue University, and a French team, all working independently.

These are some of the fascinating, amusing, and always factual incidents related in *Revolution in Miniature*. The book traces the history of solid-state electronics from the coherer (the first solid-state electronic device) to large scale integration. One of the authors is a historian, the other is a physicist, and I can't think of a better combination for this endeavor. The flair that these two British authors exhibit with their command of the English language provides a force of expression seldom seen in a technical book.

As the publisher states, "Semiconductor electronics' . . . effect on life in the second half of the twentieth century can hardly be overestimated." Solid-state technology has made possible things that were never before envisioned, yet in the beginning the transistor was seen, even by its developers, as a mere substitute for the triode tube (or "valve," as described herein). The later, more successful transistor types were often electrically inferior to the fragile, lab assembled models and were adopted only in the interests of cheap, uniform mass-production. Early integrated circuits contained a lot of hand labor, and digital electronics as we know it today resulted from attempts to minimize the passive components needed in earlier analog circuitry.

The book is heavily footnoted and the bibliography is impressive. Aside from entertainment value, the historical data is well-worth having for reference. You will find answers to such questions as: who developed which manufacturing techniques; which key people spun a new company off from an established one; why Silicon Valley is what it is; and which bar is the scene of employee and information swapping. It's a lot like reading someone's diary.

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Revolution in Miniature is a must as a historical reference, and great reading for both electronics types and those who don't care about how things work. It provides first class nostalgia for the old-timers who actually remember using crystal sets, who remember when tubes "went miniature," and who have tried to make equipment smaller by simply cramming conventional parts closer together. As the authors state, at one time it was theoretically possible to achieve a parts density of 1000 per cubic foot, but in practice the heat wouldn't permit it. Our thanks are due to all of those pioneers who made this remarkable revolution possible.

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How to Program Microcomputers is an introduction to machine language programming for the 8080, the 6800, and the 6502 microprocessors. The only other book I have seen that attempted to teach programming for a group of microcomputers did so by presenting all problems in a superset of the PL/M language. This book takes a different approach, and uses the assembler mnemonics for each of the processors discussed.

The book begins with an introduction to microcomputers: what they are, how they operate; and an introduction to alternative processor architectures. The structures of the 8080, the 6800, and the 6502 are described, then alternatives for addressing, memory access, stack manipulation, I/O (input/output) operation and interrupt processing are introduced. Each topic is illustrated with features from the applicable microprocessor.

The next part of the book deals with programming techniques. Data movement, arithmetic operations, multiple precision arithmetic, branching, indexing, subroutines, stack operations, table operations, list processing, bit manipulation, decimal and floating point arithmetic, and I/O are discussed, as well as how to put all of these elements together. As before, examples are given for each processor.

The last part of the book provides standard algorithms for each machine. Twenty different building blocks (most of which belong in any good monitor) are given for each processor. Appendices summarize the instruction sets.

There are three groups of people who might be interested in this book. The first group is composed of anyone becoming acquainted with microcomputer technology who wants an overview of the main processors in present hobbyist use. The second group is composed of people who already have a machine and who want good standard routines. The third group (in which I am included) consists of those hobbyists who have a machine and who would like to see how other processors operate. While I would certainly never trade my Z-80 for any of the processors illustrated in the book, it is good to know how the rest of the world operates.

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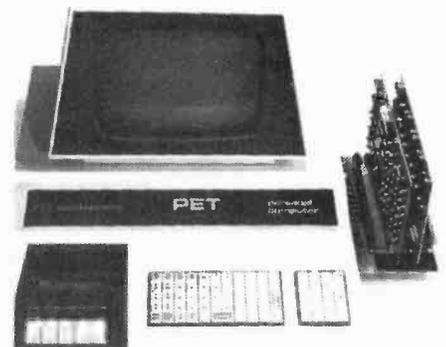
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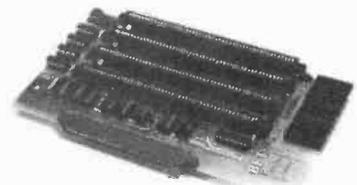
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Programming Quickies

Alan R Miller
New Mexico Tech
Socorro NM 87801

```
10 REM TEST FACTORIAL SUBROUTINE
20 INPUT "FACTORIAL OF ";X:GOSUB 5000
30 PRINT "THE FACTORIAL OF ";X;" IS ";G
40 GOTO 20
5000 REM GAMMA FUNCTION G(X)
5010 Y0=X+1:Y= Y0+5: Y2= Y*Y*30: Y1=SQR(2*3.14159/Y*Y↑4)
5020 G= Y1*EXP((1-1/(30*Y2))/(12*Y)-Y)/Y0
5030 FOR I=1 TO 4: G= G/ (Y0+I): NEXT: RETURN
OK
```

Listing 1: BASIC program for determining factorials using the gamma function.

```
RUN
FACTORIAL OF ? 2
THE FACTORIAL OF 2 IS 2.00001
FACTORIAL OF ? 3
THE FACTORIAL OF 3 IS 6.00003
FACTORIAL OF ? 4
THE FACTORIAL OF 4 IS 24.0001
FACTORIAL OF ? 5
THE FACTORIAL OF 5 IS 120.001
FACTORIAL OF ? 8
THE FACTORIAL OF 8 IS 40320.1
FACTORIAL OF ? 12
THE FACTORIAL OF 12 IS 4.79001E+08
FACTORIAL OF ? 16
THE FACTORIAL OF 16 IS 2.09228E+13
FACTORIAL OF ? 20
THE FACTORIAL OF 20 IS 2.43292E+18
```

Listing 2: Sample run of the factorial program. Notice that the answers are not exact. The truncated integer portions of the smaller results are exact factorials; as the factorials grow in size, the result quickly exceeds the precision of the floating point representation of the numbers.

BASIC Factorials

Here's another function to add to your BASIC, a factorial calculator. The factorial of a number X is equal to X times X-1 times X-2 etc down to one and is represented by X!. Thus 4! is 24. For large values of X, Stirling's approximation can be used to find the gamma function which is readily converted to the factorial by the relation:

$$X! = \Gamma(X + 1)$$

To find the factorial of X with the BASIC program shown in listing 1, execute a jump to subroutine at line 5000. On return, the factorial of X will be in G. If for some reason the gamma function itself is wanted, remove the first statement from line 5010 and GOSUB 5000 with the argument in Y0.

The subroutine works by finding the gamma function of a number six values larger than the argument:

$$\begin{aligned} X! &= \Gamma(X + 1) \\ (X + 5) &= \Gamma(N) \\ &= \sqrt{2\pi/N} N^N \\ &\exp\left(\frac{1}{12X} \left(1 - \frac{1}{30X^2}\right) - X\right) \\ \Gamma(X) &= \Gamma(N)/(X(X + 1)(X + 2) \\ &\quad (X + 3)(X + 4)) \end{aligned}$$

This function is only approximate, as can be seen in the sample run of listing 2. The returned value should be rounded to the nearest integer. ■

THE MICRO WORKS

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*See Byte, Jan., Feb., Mar., 79

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An 8080

Free Memory Search

William M Hand
18660 Arden Av
Brookfield WI 53005

Since my computer system is continually in a state of flux, I sometimes lose track of the addressing for the various memory boards. To eliminate the hunt-and-see method of locating unprotected memory blocks, I put together the routine in listing 1 (see page 208) to examine all memory space from hexadecimal 0000 to FFFF and report the start and end addresses of all available spaces.

A memory location exists and is not protected if the processor can write a word to memory and read back the same word. However, since any given memory location may have a value from 0 to FF (the range of the 8080 processor), some care must be exercised in declaring a location as existing and available.

To address this problem, I use a double store routine in which the processor first stores one arbitrary number and then another different number. If the processor reads back the correct number for both stores, that location is a valid unprotected memory cell. [This could also be used as a memory failure check if the two values used were hexadecimal 0000 and FFFF RGAC]

Two notes are needed relative to listing 1. First, the line with the pound sign (#) is the link back to the calling routine. If the FMAR routine is called as a subroutine, this line should be replaced with a return instruction. Second, note that upon exiting, the DE register pair points to the next address past the last address pair from the routine. The pointers for start and end of free memory blocks may be pulled out with LHLD or POP instructions.

Also, the routine itself should be located in protected memory (along with the operating system, for instance) since the routine will self-destruct if located in unprotected memory. Be sure to provide sufficient room for the DE register pair to expand.

Total memory requirements for this routine are 66 bytes plus the stack area for the DE register pair storage of free memory boundaries.

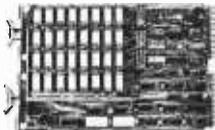
If desired, the FMAR routine may be used to simply output the addresses to a Teletype or terminal. ■

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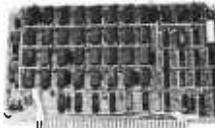
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Listing 1: 8080 assembly language program for finding areas of memory that are free and unprotected. Modifying the command on line 6 allows the program to start looking at any point in memory.

```

0000 *Free Memory Allocation Routine
0001 *   locates available unprotected memory
0002 *
0003 *   coming in: D&E point to location
0004 *   where results are to be stored
0005 *
0006 FMAR: LXI H,0 ;SET H&L TO 0000
0007 FMAR1: CALL LOOK ;LOOK FOR FIRST FREE LOCATION
0008 JZ REP1 ;FOUND IT, REPORT IT
0009 FMAR3: CALL CHECK ;LOOK FOR END OF MEMORY
0010 JNZ FMAR1 ;NOT YET, LOOK SOME MORE
0011 # JMP EXEC ;END OF MEMORY, RETURN TO EXECUTIVE
0012 REP1: CALL REPOR ;REPORT FIRST FREE LOCATION
0013 FMAR2: CALL CHECK ;SEE IF AT END OF MEMORY
0014 JNZ TRYON ;NOT YET, CONTINUE LOOKING
0015 FMAR4: DCX H ;REPORT LAST LOCATION
0016 CALL REPOR
0017 JMP FMAR3 ;AND USE CHECK TO EXIT
0018 TRYON: CALL LOOK ;LOOK FOR A FREE LOCATION
0019 JZ FMAR2 ;VALID LOCATION
0020 JMP FMAR4 ;NOT VALID, LOOK FOR START OF NEXT FREE MEMORY
0021 *
0022 LOOK: MOV C,M ;SAVE MEMORY IN REGISTER C
0023 MOV M,H ;WRITE H INTO MEMORY
0024 MOV A,M ;READ MEMORY INTO A
0025 CMP H ;SEE IF A AND H AGREE
0026 RNZ ;NO, NOT VALID MEMORY
0027 MOV M,L ;OK PASS 1, THIS TIME PUT IN L
0028 MOV A,M ;READ BACK INTO A
0029 MOV M,C ;PUT C BACK INTO MEMORY
0030 CMP L ;SEE IF A AND L AGREE
0031 RET ;RETURN WITH FLAGS SET
0032 *
0033 CHECK: SUB A ;SET A TO 0
0034 INX H ;INCREMENT H&L
0035 CMP H ;SEE IF H=0
0036 RNZ ;NOT YET, RETURN
0037 CMP L ;SEE IF L=0
0038 RET ;AND RETURN
0039 *
0040 REPOR: MOV A,L ;GET THE LOW ADDRESS
0041 STAX D ;STORE WITH D&E POINTER
0042 DCX D ;DECREMENT POINTER
0043 MOV A,H ;GET HIGH ADDRESS
0044 STAX D ;STORE WITH D&E POINTER
0045 DCX D ;DECREMENT POINTER
0046 RET ;RETURN

```

The 5 byte code that does the same translation is as follows:

```

DAA
ADI F0H
ACI 40H.

```

The latter assumes that the carry and the auxiliary carry are reset, which is the case in all applications that I could find of this translation. ■

Checkbook Balancing Routine

Loring C White
26 Boswell Rd
Reading MA 02119

Every month the bank statement arrives and we have to go through cancelled checks and the usual mathematical ritual to reconcile our figures with those of the bank. Here is some software the computer enthusiast can use to balance a checkbook. The program in listing 1 is written in MITS 8 K BASIC Revision 3.2 (used on my Altair 8800 computer). [Since the MITS 8 K BASIC language was written and implemented by the Microsoft Company, this same listing should work with minor changes on a number of computers besides the Altair. These include the Apple II with the "Applesoft" BASIC, the Radio Shack TRS-80 with Level II BASIC, and the Commodore PET computer. . . .CH] If you have printer or Teletype, you can get hard copy of all pertinent information for later references.

The program has the following features:

- The initial printout is a listing of all outstanding checks by check number, date and amount.
- A list of all cancelled checks as they are entered as well as a final summary list is given.
- A new, updated list of outstanding checks is provided to update the list of checks appearing in the data statements. Provision is made for this listing to be in data format so that it can be punched on tape to make the program update easier.
- The computer will search for each check listing as it is entered during the program run.
- Input statements are provided for entering the bank statement balance; service charge and deposits not entered on the statement.

5 Byte Hexadecimal to ASCII Converter

Ashwin L Doshi
5830 Green Valley Cir 105
Culver City CA 90230

I was recently challenged by a colleague to find the most efficient 8080 code to translate hexadecimal 0 thru F (stored in the accumulator) into ASCII 0 thru 9 and A thru F (also in the accumulator). After I came up with a 5 byte translation, he showed me a well-published 6 byte translation (of which I was unaware) which is as follows:

```

ADI 90H
DAA
ACI 40H
DAA.

```

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Listing 1: Checkbook balancing routines for Microsoft (MITS) BASIC. The data statements contain all outstanding checks that will be checked.

```

3 DIM P(100)
4 DIMN(100),D(100),A(100),NR(100),DR(100),AR(100)
5 PRINT"PROGRAM TO BALANCE CHECK BOOK"
7 PRINT"ONLY CHECKS NOT RETURNED SHOULD BE LISTED IN DATA 600"
8 FORX=0TO70:PRINT"-";:NEXT:PRINT
9 PRINT"CHECK#","DATE(MDY)","AMOUNT"
10 FORN=1TO100
20 READ N(N),D(N),A(N)
21 IFN(N)=0THEN50
25 S=S+A(N)
26 PRINT N(N),D(N),"$";A(N)
40 NEXT
50 PRINT"LIST ALL CHECKS RETURNED: CHECK#,DATE(MDY),AMOUNT($)"
55 PRINT"LIST '0,0,0' AS LAST CHECK IN LIST"
60 FORN=1TO100
61 INPUT NR(N),DR(N),AR(N)
65 FOR X=1TO100
67 IF NR(N)=0THEN130
70 IF NR(N)=N(X)THEN80
75 GOTO95
80 IF DR(N)=D(X)THEN90
85 GOTO95
90 IF AR(N)=A(X)THEN100
95 NEXT X
97 NEXT N
100 PRINT"CANCEL CHECK#:";NR(N);"DATE:";"AMOUNT$";AR(N)
102 P(Y)=N
103 Y=Y+1
110 T=T+AR(N)
120 GOTO97
130 PRINT"TOTAL AMOUNT IN $ OF CHECKS RETURNED FROM BANK=$";T
134 PRINT"LIST OF CANCELLED CHECKS"
135 PRINT "CHECK#","DATE(MDY)","AMOUNT $"
136 FORY=0TO100:IFN(P(Y))=0THEN140
137 PRINT NR(P(Y)),DR(P(Y)),AR(P(Y))
139 NEXT
140 PRINT"TOTAL CHECKS NOT RETURNED=$";S-T
150 INPUT"ENTER BALANCE PER STATEMENT FROM BANK $";B
160 INPUT"TOTAL OF DEPOSITS NOT CREDITED ON STATEMENT $";D
166 INPUT"ENTER SERVICE CHARGE INDICATED ON BANK STATEMENT $";SC
168 Z=B-S+T+D+SC
170 PRINT"CHECKBOOK BALANCE SHOULD BE=$";INT(Z*10+2+.5)/10↑2
180 PRINT"REM TO DELETE ALL RETURNED CHECKS FROM DATA LIST"
190 PRINT"REM TO SUBTRACT SERVICE CHARGE FROM CHECKBOOK BALANCE"
191 PRINT"IF YOU WANT LIST OF CHECKS OUTSTANDING FOR NEW DATA"
192 PRINT"LISTING THEN PREPARE TELETYPE TAPE LEADER AND TYPE 'YES' ";
193 INPUT V$:IF V$="YES"THEN200
194 GOTO500
200 FORN=1TO100
210 FORY=0TO100
220 IFN(N)=0THEN500
230 IFN(N)=NR(P(Y))THEN250
240 GOTO280
250 IFD(N)=DR(P(Y))THEN270
260 GOTO280
270 IFA(N)=AR(P(Y))THEN290
280 NEXTY
285 GOTO300
290 NEXTN
300 PRINT600+L;"DATA";N(N);";";D(N);";";A(N)
310 L=L+1
320 GOTO290
500 END
600 DATA 100,12876,18.75
601 DATA 3,3177,2.6
602 DATA 6,3177,16.2
603 DATA 7,3177,48
604 DATA 8,3177,16.75
605 DATA 10,3177,251
606 DATA 13,32177,70
607 DATA 14,32877,70
608 DATA 15,31477,70
609 DATA 16,31577,15
610 DATA 17,3777,12
611 DATA 18,3977,5
612 DATA 19,3977,5
613 DATA 100,31077,88.4
614 DATA 100,31177,15.62
615 DATA 20,31177,20
616 DATA 100,31077,8
617 DATA 21,31277,47
618 DATA 1,31277,52
619 DATA 2,31277,150
620 DATA 100,31477,9.93
700 DATA 0,0,0

```



PROGRAM DESIGN, INC., 11 Idar Court, Greenwich, CT 06830

- A final summary is provided giving the total of all outstanding checks, checkbook balance and the checks returned from the bank.

How It Works

To implement the program it is necessary to provide a list of all checks written by number, date, and amount in the data statements at the end of the program. When I first started writing the software I included the name of the company but later discovered that this information is not really needed.

The first data statement in the program of listing 1 is:

600 DATA 100, 12876, 18.75

The statement says that check number 100 was written on December 8, 1976 for the amount of \$18.75. (I usually carry a number of blank checks in case I need to write a check. I always number this type of check with 100. At the end of the month I may have several checks with number 100 but this is no problem, because they are also identified with the date and amount.) The computer, when searching for each check, looks for all three pieces of information before assuming that the check has been located. Listing each check on a separate

line uses up more memory, but there are good reasons for doing this that become apparent when you run the program.

Using the Program

After all the checks are listed in the data statements, as shown in the program, you are ready to run the program. Take the cancelled checks you get from the bank and input the check number, date and amount the same way you entered the information in the data statements. Then hit carriage return. The program will search the data list for the check and deduct it from the balance, printing for example:

"CANCEL CHECK #: 100
DATE: 12876
AMOUNT: \$18.75"

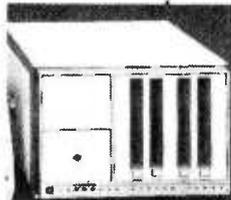
If the check is not located in the data, the computer types a question mark meaning that either the check isn't there or you have not entered the data correctly.

After all the checks have been entered, type 0,0,0 for the last check and hit carriage return. The computer will give you a complete list of all the cancelled checks just entered plus the total of all the outstanding checks. You will be asked to enter the bank statement balance and any deposits not shown and the service charge, if any. Using this information, the program calculates the balance in your checkbook. In this way you can reconcile your arithmetic with that of the bank.

Normally at this point it is necessary to change the data statement list by eliminating all the cancelled checks received from the bank. This would mean searching and typing some of the line numbers. When I developed the program I decided to let the program do this work, so you will be asked if you want an updated "data" list of the outstanding checks.

If you have a mass storage device, you can store the data statements. The program lists all the outstanding checks in the required data format, including new line numbers. The program can then be updated by entering the information back into the program. All data statement numbers not stored will have to be deleted by hand. This is now an easier job because these numbers are at the end of the program and no searching by the operator is required. Also, don't forget to deduct the service charges from your checkbook balance.

Before developing this software I used to dread receiving "that envelope" from the bank, but now I actually look forward to it in spite of the fact that it requires a bit of effort to enter the required information into the computer. ■

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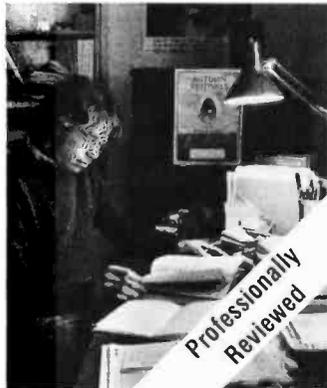
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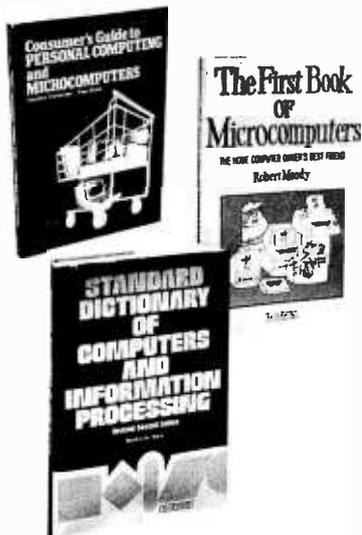


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A Peek at Poke

Users of TRS-80 Level II BASIC will find the POKE function handy for the occasional manual patching of object programs. However, it's frustratingly slow and annoying to be forced into decimal notation. Listing 1 is a Level II BASIC program residing in upper limit statement numbers for a 16 K byte

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```
65509 CLS:PRINTCHR$(14):L%=32767
65510 GOSUB65512
65511 POKE L%,D%:L%=L%+1:GOTO65510
65512 GOSUB65528
65513 IFA$="":THEN I%=1ELSE I%=0:IFI%=0GOTO65522
65514 GOSUB65528
65515 GOSUB65529
65516 D%=A%*4096
65517 GOSUB65528
65518 GOSUB65529
65519 D%=D%+A%*256
65520 GOSUB65528
65521 GOTO65523
65522 D%=0
65523 GOSUB65529
65524 D%=D%+A%*16
65525 GOSUB65528
65526 GOSUB65529
65527 D%=D%+A%:IFI%=0 THEN RETURN ELSE L%=D%:GOTO65512
65528 A$=INKEY$:IFA$="" THEN65528 ELSE PRINT A$;:IFA$=
" " THEN65528 ELSE A%=ASC(A$):IFA%=10 THEN65528E
LSE IFA%=13 THEN65528 ELSE RETURN
65529 A%=A%-48:IFA% < 0 THEN STOP ELSE IFA% < 10 THEN RETURN
ELSE A%=A%-7:IFA% < 16 THEN RETURN ELSE STOP
```

Listing 1: Level II BASIC program for the TRS-80 which allows hexadecimal data to be loaded into memory.

```
10 X=32+RND(159):REM GET A RANDOM NO. BETWEEN 32 AND 191
20 FOR J=0 TO 1023:POKE 15360+J,X:NEXT J:REM FILL THE SCREEN
30 FOR I=1 TO 1000:NEXT I:GOTO 10:REM WAIT AWHILE AND DO IT AGAIN
```

Listing 2: Example of a program to fill the screen of the TRS-80 with graphic characters.

```
ORG 16526D ;LOCATION OF USER FUNCTION ADDRESS
        DW START ;USER FUNCTION ADDRESS
ORG 32000D ;THIS LOOKS LIKE A NICE PLACE
        DS 1 ;DATA TO BE TRANSFERRED TO USER FUNCTION
START: LXI H,32000D ;GET THE DATA TO BE TRANSFERRED -
        MOV C,M ;INTO C
        LXI H,3C00H ;VIDEO DISPLAY STARTS HERE (HEX)
        LXI D,0400H ;SIZE OF DISPLAY (HEX)
NXT: MOV M,C ;LOAD THE DATA FOR DISPLAY
      DCR E ;COUNT THE -
      JNZ EOK ;REMAINING -
      DCR D ;LOCATIONS IN -
      RZ ;VIDEO DISPLAY -
EOK: INX H ;AND FILL THEM ALL -
      JMP NXT ;WITH THE DATA
END
```

Listing 3: An assembly language program which can be called by the modified version of listing 2 to fill the screen quickly. Use the hexadecimal loader to put the object code of this program into memory.

TRS-80 system, which enables fast keyboard entry of hexadecimal code.

The starting address is entered as :HLLL followed by the successive data bytes, which may be spaced as appropriate for clarity in on-screen checking. An invalid character causes a return to the COMMAND mode. The following trivial example illustrates its use.

Example

The BASIC interpreter is too slow for dynamic graphics, as the program in listing 2 illustrates. Run it and see how slowly the screen loads. Now replace statement 20 by:

```
20 POKE32000, X:X=USR(0):
REM FILL THE SCREEN FASTER,
```

which calls the machine language subroutine in listing 3 to do the same job much faster. Insert the assembled object code using the hexadecimal loader, noting that memory size must now be less than 32000:

```
: 408E 017D
: 7D01 21007D4E21003C110004711DC2127D15
C823C30B7D
```

Now run the program again. ■

Clubs and Newsletters

Attention: Buffalo NY Apple II Owners

Gary Weir has written from Buffalo NY with information about a new Apple II users group in his area. Called the Apple Byters Corp, they are highly motivated to provide new owners of the Apple II with the help they may need to successfully program and utilize their investment. A booklet is currently being prepared combining insights and solutions to bugs previously encountered by the club's members. A copy and its updates are included in the \$5 membership fee. Apple II owners or potential owners should contact Gary at 225 Walton Dr, Snyder NY 14226 concerning meeting times and locations.

Apple Bay Area Computer Users Society

ABACUS (Apple Bay Area Computer Users Society) meets the second Monday of each month at the Hayward BYTE Shop, 1122 B St, Hayward CA. They have an active membership of 40 and have developed a club library of 200 programs. They are negotiating to trade libraries with several other clubs. Membership is \$12 a year which includes a

monthly newsletter. Contact Ed Avelar, president, at (415) 583-2431 or David Wilkerson, secretary, at (415) 482-4175.

Mexican Computer Club

We have been notified of the existence of a Mexican computer club. Called the Microcomputer Club, this group is primarily concerned with the Apple II and OSI products. They are interested in exchanging information and experiences with other computer groups. Contact Alfredo Buzali, fte de Quijote #5, Mexico 10, D F or call 5-89-22-79 between 7 and 8 PM.

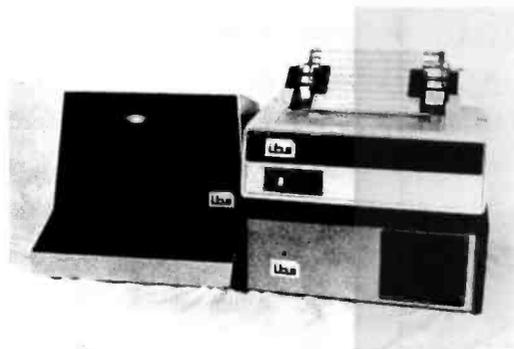
Central Alabama TRS-80 Computer Society

Several TRS-80 users in Montgomery AL have formed the Central Alabama TRS-80 Computer Society. They are planning a club library, a local newsletter and a club computer. Another aim is to provide each new member with a membership package which would contain magazine subscription, blanks, addresses of hardware and software suppliers, and other information pertaining to the TRS-

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80. The meetings are held on the third Tuesday of each month at various locations around Montgomery. Contact Walter F Bray, 2073 Rexford Rd, Montgomery AL 36116.

Newsletter for Sorcerer Owners

Orders are now being accepted for an independent user newsletter dedicated solely to the Exidy Sorcerer. The \$15 subscription price includes all ten issues of volume one, and the first issue will be available around July 1st. *The Source* will include items of general interest to Sorcerer owners, such as program listings, how-to-do-it articles, and hardware and software reviews. Contact ARESCO, POB 1142, Columbia MD 21044.

Sorcerer Users Group

Computer Mart of Massachusetts has announced the formation of the Sorcerer Users Group. The purpose of the group is to set up a channel of communication between Sorcerer owners and to provide information on hardware and software developments to the Sorcerer user. The group has a membership of about 30 people. The \$5 membership fee includes the monthly newsletter, *The Exidy Monitor*. Contact Computer

Mart of Massachusetts Inc, 1395 Main St, Waltham MA 02154.

North American Computer Association

The North American Computer Association (NACA) recently began its third year with a membership of approximately 20 independent businessmen in the computer systems field. One of the objectives of the organization is to increase the efficiency of each member's individual organization by pooling all the different programming developments and the selling and servicing techniques used by the various members. NACA meets once a month in Dallas TX, and interested businessmen are welcome to attend. Contact Tom Crites, Suite 811, 1001 Main St, Lubbock TX 79401.

Small Computer Users Join England's Central Program Exchange

The Central Program Exchange (CPE) at The Polytechnic, Wolverhampton, is opening its doors to users of small computers in an effort to coordinate the free interchange of programming. The Exchange has 72 members, and currently holds a library of over 200 programs in BASIC, FORTRAN and ALGOL. Individual members can obtain

CPE services for \$10 per year. This entitles members to a catalogue, newsletter and up to ten CPE programs as listings or paper tapes. As the personal element expands, CPE also proposes to offer cassette versions at a small extra charge. Contact Dr G Beech, Central Program Exchange, Dept of Computing and Mathematical Sciences, The Polytechnic, Wolverhampton, ENGLAND WV1 1LY.

Software Magazine for Microcomputers

The *Software Exchange* magazine provides information about the latest software that has been developed. Included are reviews, abstracts and articles about software for today's microcomputers. The *Software Exchange* is published bimonthly. Subscriptions are \$5 per year in the US, Canada and Mexico. International subscriptions are \$19. Contact The Software Exchange, POB 55056, Valencia CA 91355.

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Crossroads is a free periodic newsletter which highlights tools and techniques in selling software, data services and turnkey systems. *Crossroads* provides helpful hints, insights to trends, results of experiments and generally, the successes and failures associated with development, sale and support of computer based products. Contact Editor, *Crossroads*, Cross Associates, Suite 530, 9000 Keystone Crossing, Indianapolis IN 46240.

6800 Users Newsletter

The Chicago Area 6800 Users Newsletter is a monthly publication aimed at providing information and assistance to those users of the 6800 microprocessor. For further information, contact Phillip Schuman, 1354 Finley, Lombard IL 60148. ■



A Computer by Any Other Name

A typographical error in "Build a Computer Controlled Security System for Your Home: Part 3" by Steve Ciarcia (March 1979 BYTE, page 150) may have caused some head scratching among our readers. The caption for figure 1 contained the following sentence: "Op amp IC2 is used as a computer to convert the output accordingly." The sentence should have read as follows: "Op amp IC2 is used as a *comparator* to convert the output accordingly." Mr. Ciarcia did not attempt to construct his circuit using a programmable op amp. ■

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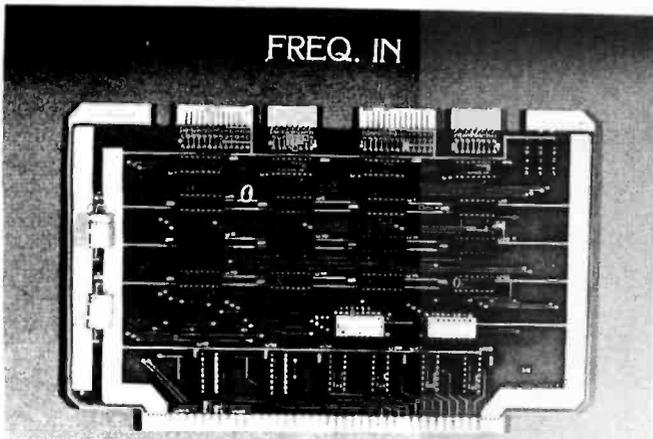
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Languages Forum

Comments on "A High Level Language for 8 Bit Machines"

Glen Newton
Sperry-Univac
Roseville MN 55113

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"A High Level Language for 8 Bit Machines," by Ted Williams and Steve Conley (July 1978 BYTE, page 152) discusses the interpreter for a simple language. If we take the language as given and ignore minor errors in the examples and flowcharts (such as pushing a variable "near operand stack" rather than onto it), several substantial errors remain.

First, evaluation is claimed to start "in the innermost parentheses." Following the flowchart in figure 2 or table 2 or the example in listing 3 shows that this is not true, despite the incorrect annotation accompanying listing 3. Expressions are

evaluated from left to right until parentheses are encountered. In order for evaluation to begin within the innermost parentheses, in the language described in the article, each binary operator except the last would have to be followed by a left parenthesis. Since the programmer cannot define his own functions, the result of evaluation will be the same as if evaluation had begun in the innermost parentheses if the language's intrinsic functions have no side effects.

Second, the claim that although interpretation provides some advantages, "the price paid for this feature is memory" is misleading. The combination of source code,

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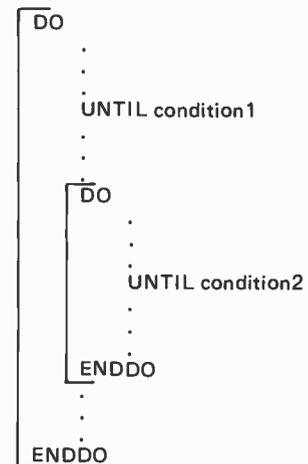
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data, tables, and the interpreter program is often smaller than the compiled code and data, particularly if the source language is a powerful one, like APL, or contains space consuming operations not supported by hardware, such as $A \uparrow B$, where A and B are floating point numbers.

Third, the language presented in the article allows nested DO loops, but the use of UNTIL in this context can lead to problems since an UNTIL within two or more loops is not syntactically connected with a specific loop. For example, the second UNTIL statement in example 1 could express the programmer's intention to leave either the inner or the outer loop when the condition is satisfied. Defining the UNTIL statement semantics to require exit of the innermost enclosing loop when the condition is satisfied solves this problem but it does not correct the flaw in the DO routine in figure 5 of the article. When an UNTIL condition is satisfied, the interpreter seems to search for the first available ENDDO, rather than the matching one. In general this will not work properly, as illustrated by considering the first UNTIL statement in example 1.



Example 1: Nested DO loops.

Fourth, the authors claim that "the lack of statement labels excludes the possibility of errors caused by not nesting DO loops within each other (which is possible in a language like FORTRAN)." In fact, the possibility exists; just take any appropriate FORTRAN nonnested, overlapping DO loop example and remove the statement numbers to see how the error is possible. The difference is that with statement numbers or labels the compiler or interpreter would have sufficient information to detect the error; without them the error must go undetected because the resulting program is syntactically correct.

Fifth, like the factorial function which is presented to illustrate recursion in programming primers, the use of recursion to find matching ENDIFs during interpretation is unnecessary overkill. The nonrecursive use of an "unmatched IF" counter is adequate and conceptually simple. Furthermore, it avoids the problem that "care must be taken in allocating and preserving local data within SEARCH during recursion."

Finally, although APL, like the language presented in the article, does not use operator precedence within expressions, APL expressions are evaluated from right to left, not left to right. Furthermore, APL has numerous nonstandard operators, providing some justification for its no precedence evaluation; in contrast, the language pre-

sented has only standard arithmetic operations plus functions. Thus the claim that the use of precedence in this language would lead to confusion is probably unfounded. Probably the best justification for the decision to have no precedence is that it simplifies implementation somewhat. However, the authors' claim that "this procedure minimizes the size of the stack" is incorrect, as shown by example 2. The FORTRAN expression $A - B * C$ requires parentheses to be expressed in a precedenceless language. The parentheses, in turn, require an extra level on the operator stack (in general, one for each level of nesting). Example 2 shows that a precedenceless language can, for some expressions, require *more*, not less, stack space than a language using precedence. ■

Language	Expression	Operator Stack (Maximum)	Operand Stack (Maximum)
FORTRAN	$A - B * C$	<pre> * - </pre>	<pre> C B A </pre>
precedenceless language	$A - (B * C)$	<pre> * (- </pre>	<pre> C B A </pre>

Example 2: Stack size comparison.



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SNOBOL Conquers All?

Bruce Burns
3852 Amundson Av
Bronx NY 10466

In my experience (at the Bronx High School of Science and at home with my own 6502 system) the most enjoyable part of computing is the coding of algorithms. I know several languages, and I find some beauty in almost every language. The languages I know are BASIC, FORTRAN, LISP, APL, PL/I, and SNOBOL4. BASIC has simplicity, FORTRAN has the virtue of speed (FORTRAN compilers have developed quite a bit over the years), LISP has a straightforwardness unparalleled in most other languages; PL/I has the virtue of strong structure, and while I know almost no Pascal, it is obvious that it, too, shares this virtue. APL has sheer array processing

power and great elegance with its implicit looping and other simplifying features. And, finally, I get to SNOBOL4, by far my favorite.

I feel that SNOBOL4 is one of the most powerful languages in existence. Like APL, it is loaded with elegance and implicit looping, and, also like APL, it lacks the standard structures for repetition of BASIC, FORTRAN, PL/I, and Pascal such as the FOR-TO or DO loops. These structures are not needed as much in SNOBOL4 programs. In addition, the language is powerful enough to permit user defined functions which are implementations of these structures. An example of the powerful implicit looping coupled with some explicit looping is the following statement, which will (in the full scan mode) permute the characters in the string S so that they are in increasing lexical order. This is useful in certain applications which involve set operations:

```
LEX_ORD S LEN(1) $ A LEN(1) $ B
*LGT (A,B) = B A :S(LEX_ORD)
```

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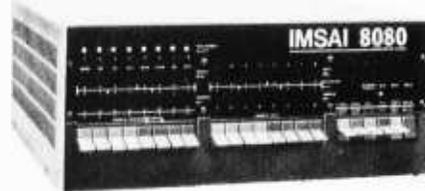
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SNOBOL4's major feature is its dexterity with string manipulation, particularly the operation of pattern matching (ie: the language is good at scanning strings; looking for patterns; and processing them when found). But in addition to these capabilities, SNOBOL4 yields considerable power with respect to data manipulation. I know of no other language (not even APL, which specializes in array manipulation) that allows an array to have an integer in one element, a real number in the next, a string in the next, another array in another, *itself* in still another, etc. One may put *any* data-type into *anything*, and one may also create user defined datatypes if desired. The reaction of some people to all this is indifference, but they are missing the point; the best part is knowing you can do it. Besides, one of the most important applications of a language of SNOBOL4's string processing capabilities is implementation of experimental languages, and with these other abilities, one may create all sorts of arbitrarily complex languages.

While all these abilities may seem confusing at this time, when they are fully understood they are simple to use and the good programmer will soon master them. Opponents to the language say they feel that the language's power invites unstruc-

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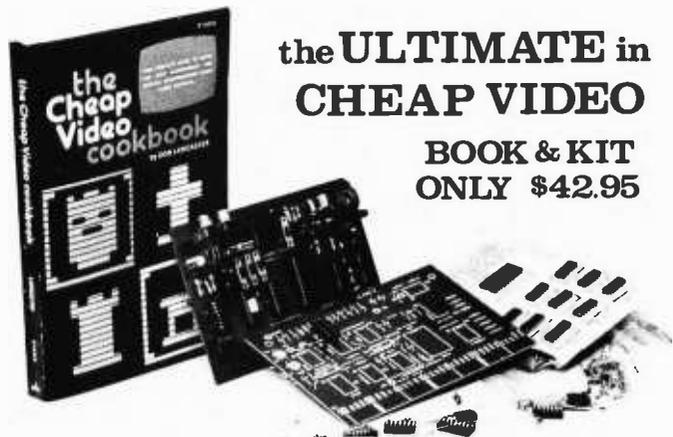
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tured programming because facilities such as run time symbol tables and run time SNOBOL4 code compilation are easy powers to get carried away with. But if programmers take the time and care to know the language they are programming in, they will be in full control. It is possible to create well-structured functions which even redefine themselves during execution. This can simplify a program considerably, but it must be done carefully or the program will be an undebuggable mess.

I recently wrote a function in SNOBOL4 that takes the inner product of arrays of arbitrary dimensions—that is, of any size and any number of dimensions. In APL, this function is a primitive (built-in) function, but I challenge anyone to produce the same in BASIC, FORTRAN, or PL/I. Like APL's generalized inner product, my function allows any two operations to be utilized in the formation of the product array. The definition in SNOBOL4 is easily followed. Upon call, the function goes through some initialization, then redefines itself and calls itself recursively for each dimension of the involved arrays. In this manner, it is evident that the function will work as well for multidimensional arrays as for vectors, and verifying it for vectors is very easily done. This function is a good example of the freedom with which SNOBOL4 processes all sorts of datatypes.

I cannot deny that SNOBOL4's powers may be easily abused, so I must warn that it is a language only for programmers who can discipline their own thinking and don't need a computer language to force them to do so. For those people, SNOBOL4 will perform amazingly well.

SNOBOL4 has remained a language found *only* in large batch computers for too long. It is time to introduce it to the personal computer enthusiast, who can use its great powers to his or her own ends. (It has been found that SNOBOL4 is extremely good for game programming.) And so, any fellow BYTE reader who knows and loves SNOBOL4, please join me in my crusade for SNOBOL4 on microcomputers. I am aware of the fact that there are real reasons why SNOBOL4 has thus far run only on large computers, but these troubles must be overcome. I also hope I have sparked interest in any potential SNOBOL4 users reading this. If what I have described intrigues you, look into the language. You won't be sorry. ■



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Random Comments

David Thornley
2600 Bryant Av S, #205
Minneapolis MN 55408

In the September 1978 BYTE ("Letters," page 17), Scott Johnson inquired about the production of random numbers, particularly hardware-generated ones. The first and foremost consideration in generating and using random numbers is to access Donald E Knuth's *The Art of Computer Programming: Volume 2, Seminumerical Algorithms*. Most of what I am going to say is derived from there.

First, beware of assuming that a process, whether hardware or software, produces random numbers simply because the process by which it produces numbers is incompletely understood. If you wish to use such a source, test the results for randomness using every test you can think of. There are many good ones in Knuth's book. The Z-80 refresh register, by the way, can be a good source for one random number, but is not recommended for more

than one. As far as I can tell, the refresh counter is incremented every time an instruction fetch occurs, which makes it rather deterministic, although if a variable delay is imposed (such as waiting for an entry from the keyboard) it could be used.

For outside randomness, just look around you. Plug your computer into your stereo receiver, set the selector to AM, find a frequency away from any broadcasts, and fiddle with the volume until you get random bits from the static. (To even out the distribution of low and high bits, take the transitions from low to high and high to low as your bit input — in other words, take 2 bit signals, throw out 00 or 11, and treat 01 as 0 and 10 as 1.) This may or may not work, but if it does work it is a quick way to randomness. Give some thought to encouraging noise in the system. Read random numbers off the cassette of your favorite rock group ... be creative.

For those, like myself, who know something about programming but are lost with hardware, this formula is taken from Knuth's book cited above:

$$"X_{n+1} = (a \times X_n + c) \text{ mod } M"$$

where M is the word size you are using (probably hexadecimal 10000), a is between hexadecimal 300 and 7C00, and has 5 or D as its last digit, and c is odd and somewhere in the neighborhood of hexadecimal 3800. The calculation must be performed exactly, which is much easier in assembler than in BASIC; in the former, one merely disregards the inevitable overflow. Starting with X_0 at any initial value, this will give a long series of good pseudorandom numbers.

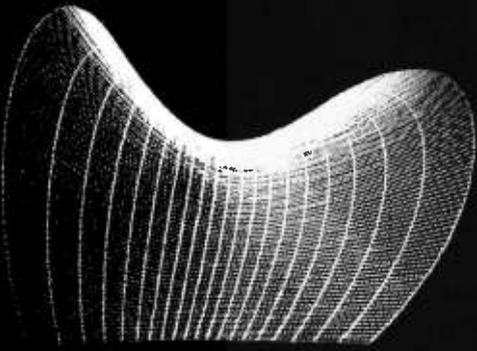
Finally, for people with RND functions, here are several tips: Generating random numbers until the user hits the BREAK key (or otherwise inputs something) is a great way to get a random seed as long as the system does not somehow reinitialize the seed before the program uses the random numbers. Or, to make an intrinsically questionable generator work, throw out a random number of numbers as follows:

```
LET J=INT (10*RND(0)+1)
FOR I=1 TO J
LET X=RND(0)
NEXT I
```

This would fit well in a program as a subroutine, to be called whenever a random number was desired.

I hope this information will be of use to some people. ■

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June 3-6, 1979 International Summer Consumer Electronics Show, McCormick Place, Chicago IL. This show serves as the marketplace for the entire consumer electronics industry. Contact Consumer Electronics Show, 2 Illinois Center, Suite 1607, 233 N Michigan Av, Chicago IL 60601.

June 4-5, Computer Cryptography, Massachusetts Institute of Technology, Cambridge MA. Instruction in the Data Encryption Standard and the new public key cryptographic systems will introduce a working knowledge of the use of cryptography in computer applications. Managers and operators of computer systems will also become acquainted with economic and implementation issues as well as techniques for using this new science in communication networks. Contact MIT, Center for Advanced Engineering Study, Cambridge MA 02139.

June 4-6, Laser Beam Information Systems, New York NY. This seminar will cover the application of laser technology to image and data manipulation in the form of scanning, transmission and reproduction. It will lead the student through the principles and practices of laser beam information systems in preparation for direct application to such fields as facsimile, computer memory and display, target identification, reconnaissance, photo composition, and image manipulation. Contact The University of Chicago, Center For Continuing Education, 1307 E 60th St, Chicago IL 60637.

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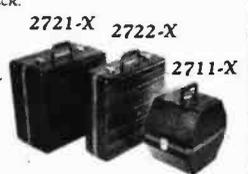
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June 6-8, Eighth Annual Conference of the MUMPS Users Group, Marriott Hotel, Atlanta GA. Papers will be presented on all aspects of MUMPS development, implementation, and use. Contact Judith Faulkner, Program Committee, Department of Psychiatry, Clinical Sciences Ctr, 600 Highland Av, Madison WI 53792.

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June 13-15, Computer Applications in Industry, Grenoble FRANCE. This symposium is intended as a forum for the discussion of recent advances in the applications of computers to industrial processes. The symposium will cover basic problems in computer science as related to industrial applications. Contact ALPES Congres, Avenue d'Innsbruck, 38029, Grenoble-Cedex, FRANCE.

June 19-21, International Microcomputers/Minicomputers/Microprocessors '79, Palais des Expositions, Geneva SWITZERLAND. Focusing on the changing state of the art in mini/microcomputers and microprocessors, the 1979 conference program will probe advances in systems and equipment with emphasis on practical applications and uses of minicomputers and microcomputers as well as the techniques important to their development.

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June 20-22, The 1979 Symposium of the Wilmington Section of the Instrument Society of America, University of Delaware, Newark DE. The symposium theme: "Measurement Technology for the 80s," is being programmed by three of ISA's divisions: Process Measurement and Control, Analysis Instrumentation, and Water and Waste Water Industries. Contact A H Straighttiff, E I DuPont de Nemours and Co Inc, (302) 366-3810.

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June 27-29, Data Processing Operations Management, Toronto Canada. This seminar will emphasize the management skill and techniques applicable to the data processing operations function. Contact The University of Chicago, Center For Continuing Education, 1307 E 60th St, Chicago IL 60637.

June 27-29, Machine Processing of Remotely Sensed Data, Purdue University, W Lafayette IN. The symposium will focus upon the theory, implementation and novel applications of machine processing of remotely sensed data. Contact Purdue University, Laboratory for Applications of Remote Sensing, 1220 Potter Dr, W Lafayette IN 47906.

July 9-20, Computing Systems Reliability, University of California, Santa Cruz CA. Contact Institute in Computer Science, University of California Extension, Santa Cruz CA 95064.

July 11-13, Microcomputer Applications, Southern Technical Institute, Marietta GA. See August 1-3 for description. Contact Dr Richard L Castellucis, Southern Technical Institute, Electrical Engineering Technology Dept, 534 Clay St, Marietta GA 30060.

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.

July 19-20, BASIC: A Computer Language For Executives, New York NY. Executive computing will be discussed, including problem solving, planning, forecasting and database systems. Also to be covered are programming fundamentals, the mindless computer, sequence, decision and iteration, computer languages and BASIC. Contact American Management Associations, 135 W 50th St, New York NY 10020.

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August 6-8, Pattern Recognition and Image Processing, Hyatt Regency 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.

August 8-10, SIGPLAN Symposium on Compiler Construction, Boulder CO. This symposium will consider methods of constructing compilers and experiences with them. The emphasis will be less on theoretical methods and more on techniques applied to real compilers. Contact Prof 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 Div, 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 through 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. ■

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Pictures from Space?

People interested in receiving satellite picture images (such as weather maps) would do well to read the 1968 NASA document number NASA SP-5079. The document, entitled *Constructing Inexpensive Automatic Picture-Transmission Ground Stations* by Charles H Vermillion, was possibly the first report aimed at inexpensive receivers. As stated in the report summary:

This report describes how one can procure or build the antenna, FM receiver, and other components for an Automatic Picture Transmission (APT) ground station. Detailed drawings and parts lists are included. Installation, alignment, and operation of the APT ground station are also described.

When the report was published in 1968, compatible satellites were expected to be operational until 1972 although future extension programs were planned.

The information contained within the report gives enough background to get the serious hobbyist started on a current set-up if updated information can be found. We would be interested in hearing from anyone with current information.

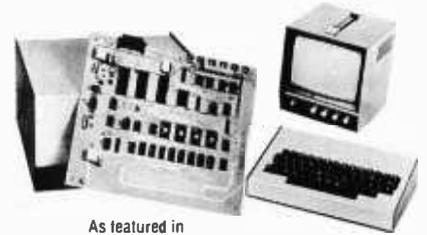
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Sixth Colloquium on Microwave Communications Offers Proceedings

The Sixth Colloquium on Microwave Communications was held in Budapest between August 29 and September 1 1978. The organization was undertaken by the Scientific Society for Telecommunication and the Research Institute for Telecommunication of Hungary by sponsorship of the International Union of Radio Sciences and the Hungarian Academy of Sciences. The following principal subjects were on the agenda of the meeting: communication systems — trends and foundations; circuit theory and computer aided design; electromagnetic fields and antennas; microwave circuits and devices; and materials for microwave applications. The proceedings containing all papers have been issued in two volumes of 944 pages in English, and are available at a price of \$30 plus postage. Contact OMKDK Technoinform, Budapest, VIII Reviczky u 6 HUNGARY.

Fourth European Conference on Electrotechnics Announcement and Call for Papers

The fourth European Conference on Electrotechnics, EUROCON '80, will be held in Stuttgart Germany on March 24 thru 28 1980. The conference theme is "From Electronics to Microelectronics

— Trends and Applications." Key professionals and industry leaders will give a comprehensive overview as well as reports on the latest developments in this area. A commercial and scientific exhibition will illustrate and supplement the technical presentations.

The conference theme will be covered in approximately 160 papers under four main headings: technology of microelectronics; microelectronics in telecommunications and data processing; electronics in electrical power systems and control; and electronics and microelectronics in other fields. Papers are invited to be submitted to: Professor Dr W Kaiser, Chairman Program Committee EUROCON '80, University of Stuttgart, Breitscheidstrasse 2, D — 7000 Stuttgart 1 GERMANY. Abstracts are limited to 500 words and should arrive no later than June 30. The completed text of accepted papers must be received by December 31.

The 3rd World Conference on Medical Informatics Issues a Call for Papers

The 3rd World Conference on Medical Informatics will be held in Tokyo Japan, September 29 thru October 4 1980. Medical informatics is the application of computer technology to all fields of medicine — health care, medical teaching and medical research. The organizers of this conference are seeking

papers in clinical care; administrative, educational and public health applications; information technologies and research; and available systems and products. If you are interested in submitting a paper, write to Morris F Collen MD, Chairman of MEDINFO '80 Program Committee, Director, Medical Methods Research, Kaiser-Permanente Medical Care Program, 3700 Broadway, Oakland CA 94611. Final instructions for preparation of papers and special master typing forms will then be sent to you. The deadline for papers is December 10 1979.

Call for Papers: The Eighth World Computer Congress

The Eighth World Computer Congress (IFIP '80), sponsored by the International Federation for Information Processing (IFIP) will be jointly held in Tokyo Japan on October 6 thru 9 1980 and in Melbourne Australia on October 14 thru 17 1980. The Congress will feature presentations on state-of-the-art developments in technology, equipment, and applications prepared by information processing professionals from around the world. In order to identify and schedule these speakers and topics, the Program Committee has recently issued a formal call for papers. Those papers accepted will be delivered in either Tokyo or Melbourne, and in some cases at both locations. Potential authors should contact AFIPS, 210 Summit Av, Montvale NJ 07645 to receive a copy of a brochure which explains all requirements and necessary qualifications.

IEEE Conferences and Meetings

An extensive listing of IEEE Computer Society sponsored conferences and meetings through 1981 is available by writing Harry Hayman, Executive Secretary IEEE, POB 639, Silver Spring MD 20901.

More Cryptographic Notes

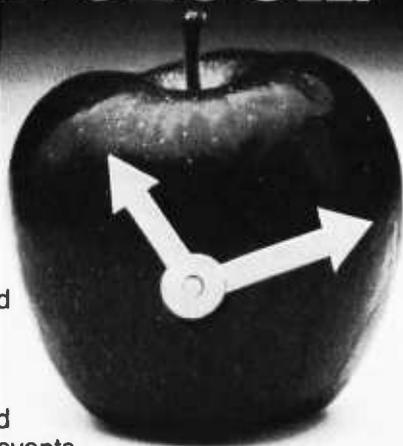
Anyone looking for an in-depth article on data encryption should read two papers brought to our attention by William Flynn. One is a reprint of an article by Ehrsam et al which appeared in the *IBM Systems Journal*, Volume 17, Number 2, entitled "A Cryptographic Management Scheme for Implementing the Data Encryption Standard." The cost is 50¢ per reprint and the IBM order number is G321-5066. For \$1.75 you can obtain a copy of the issue which is devoted entirely to cryptography. Write to IBM Systems Journal Reprints, Armonk NY 10504.

The other paper, *FIPS Publication 46*, is available from the US Department of Commerce, National Technical Information Service, 5285 Port Royal Rd, Springfield VA 22161, at a cost of \$4 for a paper copy and \$3 for a microfiche copy. ■

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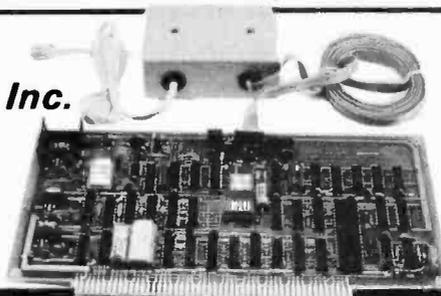
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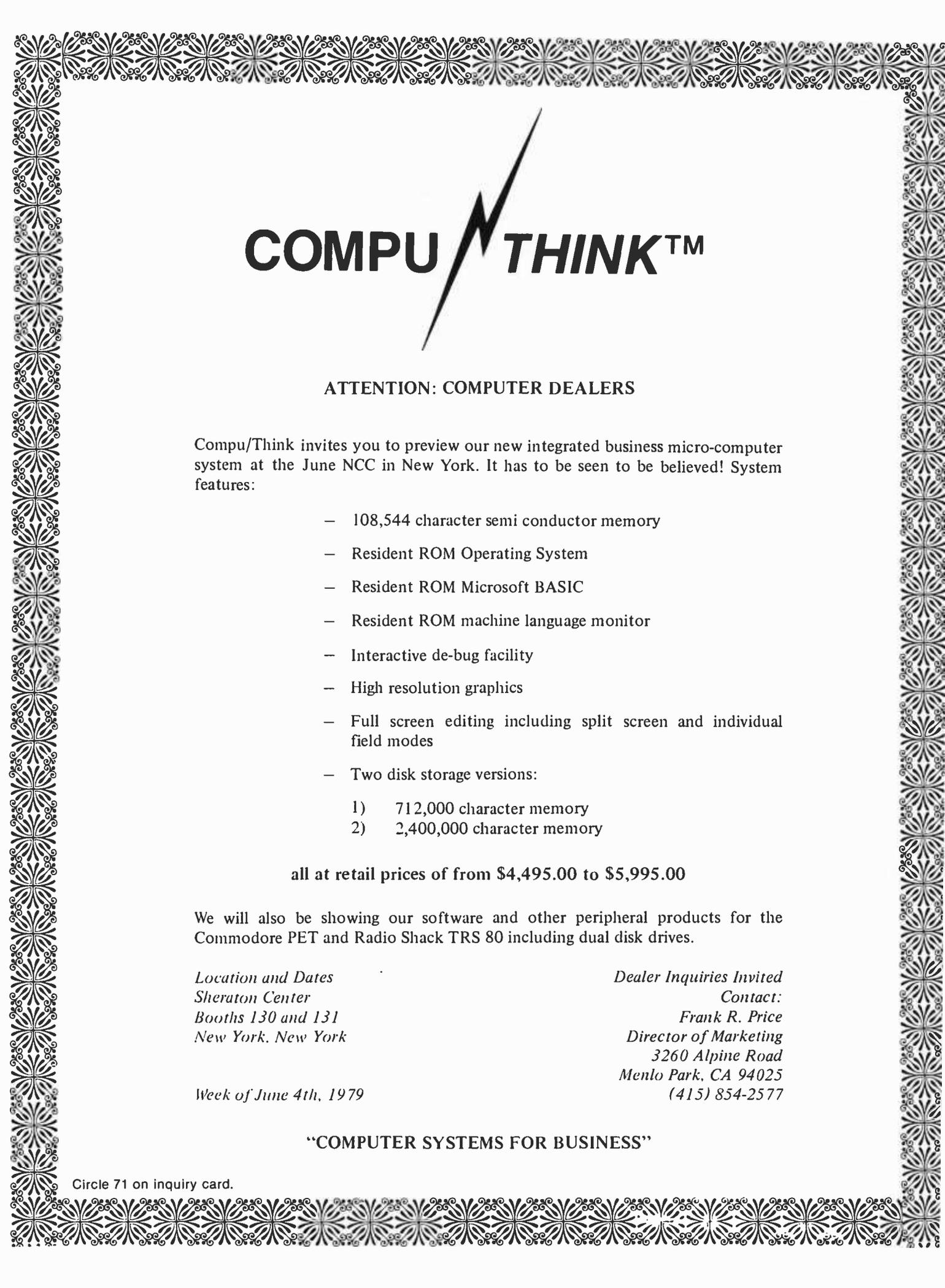
Table 1: An example of a quick relocation scheme designed with a 6800 processor in mind. This set of instructions would be stored along with the program on the auxiliary memory to direct the loader as to how to reinsert the data into main memory each time the program was run. The point of this scheme is to provide a minimal amount of computation when a program is loaded from a library into memory prior to execution. Similar schemes can be chosen for any particular computer's architecture.

Command to Run Time Loader	Explanation
Start absolute loading:	The header code is followed by the absolute start address. In this case, the loader behaves as any other loader. There is no relocation of the data and instructions that follow. Loading starts at the address given.
Start relative loading:	The header code is followed by an address. Loading begins at the first available address, as determined by the operating system. From this point on, a relocation factor will be added to all instructions and data flagged for relocation.
Skip bytes:	This code is followed by a number designating the number of bytes to be skipped. This is useful in defining uninitialized buffers and is more efficient than repeated uses of code to reserve one or two bytes (see below).
Define absolute start address:	The header code is followed by the absolute start address. If the routine is a subroutine, this code would not be used as the module has no start address. When this code is used the program will be started at the specified address once loading is completed.
Define relative start address:	Similar to the preceding code; however, program execution will start in a position relative to the first location.
One byte:	The header code is followed by one byte. This code gets no relocation, because it is either an instruction without an address, or data which is too small to be an address.
Two bytes absolute:	The header code is followed by the two bytes. This code also receives no relocation because it is either an absolute address value, a one byte immediate instruction with its data byte, or it is a relative address instruction which is self-relocating.
Three bytes relative:	The header code is followed by the 3 byte instruction. This code will receive a relocation factor.
Three bytes absolute:	The header code is followed by a 3 byte instruction with an absolute address value which is unchanged in loading.
Two bytes relocatable address values:	The header code is followed by the address data. The address data is always relocatable.
End:	At this point, control returns to the program that called the loader if no starting address was given in the loading module. If the loading module contained a start address that address is called.

Although one normally thinks of timesharing as only working on large computer systems, it is possible to run even on small systems. Many of the newer large scale timesharing systems use virtual memory and swapping, which is not possible or practical on smaller machines. Virtual memory requires mapping hardware (a machine with interruptable instructions, such as an IBM 370). Swapping requires a reasonably fast disk, which will cost at least \$2000. What we are left with is an in core system that keeps everything running in real memory at all times.

The first consideration is the assembler and loader. In your current system, a program's location can be assigned only at assembly time. On a timesharing system, the programmer may not know where the program will be located in memory. The reason knowledge of this location is conditional is that a decision point in the design of the system has been reached. If the system is to be nonrelocatable, the programmer may define the location of the program. The problem that arises here is that if, at the time the program is to run, the place in memory that the program was supposed to run in is already occupied, it cannot be loaded. On the other hand, if the system is capable of relocating, the program can be put anywhere in memory. This produces the additional benefit that subroutines do not have to be assembled with the program. To perform this relocation the assembler leaves offset information in the object tape or file which the loader will interpret as it goes. One possible relocation code scheme is shown in table 1. Of course, all sorts of schemes are possible. Note that relocation alone will take some amount of coding and execution time.

The second consideration is the allocation of system resources. In most cases this should concern only IO devices, although there may be some systems with interrupts not associated with IO devices. There are



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Table 2: Minimum routines that are required for handling a timesharing system. The end task routine should return control to the supervisory program with information that the task is totally finished. The last thing you want to do is encounter a halt instruction in the program code and halt the machine.

- Attempt to allocate a particular device. This routine must give a return code stating whether or not the device is already being allocated.
- Free a device.
- Read a character from a particular device.
- Write a character to a particular device.
- Read a particular disk block.
- Write a particular disk block.
- Wait.
- End a task.

basically three types of IO devices. The first and most common type of device is the single owner. This is a device which can only be used by one task at a time. (A task is a program running in the timesharing system.) An example of a device which must be single owner is a cassette recorder. It would just not do to have someone else's data in the middle of your program.

The second type of IO device is the shareable unit. The most common example of this is the floppy disk. For a disk to be correctly shared, the operating system routine which is handling the disk must reposition the heads every time the disk is used. Most systems already use this method, but there are those that have a call to position the head and another set of calls to read, write and verify. Separate calls cannot be used because a second task might reposition the heads before the first task had a chance to read or write.

The third type of IO device is the device that is the system's alone. An example of this is the clock interrupt, a solitary interrupt device. It must be the system's job to keep track of time. It is also the charge of the system to keep track of which devices are owned by which tasks. The system must place all of the task's allocated devices back on the available list if a "cancel the program" function is executed.

When a task wants to perform input or output, it might use a considerable amount of system time monitoring status lines, thereby making timesharing impossible, unless all, or at least some of the devices are interrupt driven. The best way to handle things is to have a routine which will cause a task to wait until an interrupt is received for that task, then let the task handle the interrupt, including polling. So far, the routines required are summarized in table 2. (This is not to say that these are the only routines you will ever need. Table 2 is probably the minimum set of functions you will ever need.)

When handling disk interrupts, it is necessary to keep track of which task, if any, is

using the disk. When a task requests the use of a disk or other shared device, it must get a return code stating whether or not the device is busy. Otherwise, the system must queue its request (make the program wait and handle the request whenever it can).

A third consideration is scheduling. Each task has a status: ready to run, running, running with an interrupt pending, or waiting. At some point, the system must stop running one task and begin running another.

We will require the operating system to reschedule the tasks every time a task asks to wait. Since that task cannot proceed, we will perform a task that is not in a wait state. There are three other times when we may optionally reschedule the tasks: every interrupt, every clock interrupt, or every interrupt and system call. These methods are called demand scheduling, event scheduling, time slicing, and quick scheduling, respectively. The fastest method is to wait for WAIT calls. The other three methods are fairer, depending on how you look at things.

The actual method of scheduling leads to another decision point. The scheduler may be foreground-background, round robin, or priority scheduling. Foreground-background is the fastest. In this type of scheduling, the system scans down the list of tasks and runs the first nonwaiting task. When this method is used, the position on the list is the important factor.

Round robin scheduling starts the search for an executable task after the last task running. The search starts at the top of the list when it hits the bottom. This way gives every task its chance to run.

Priority scheduling requires a list of priorities. This scheduler runs the task with the highest priority which is not waiting. This is the fairest method because each task is given exactly what it deserves. When you run off the bottom of the list, using either the foreground-background or priority scheduling method, you have the option of starting over or executing a WAIT instruction. Although it will cost a byte of program memory, it will save considerable time on a 6800 or similar machine, since the interrupt vectoring will be half done by the time you get the interrupt.

The above covers most of what you need, but there are a few more minor considerations:

Creation of tasks: A task has to get into the machine somehow. Two possible methods come to mind. One is the typical timesharing method with each terminal getting its own task. The other is to add a system call which adds a new task.

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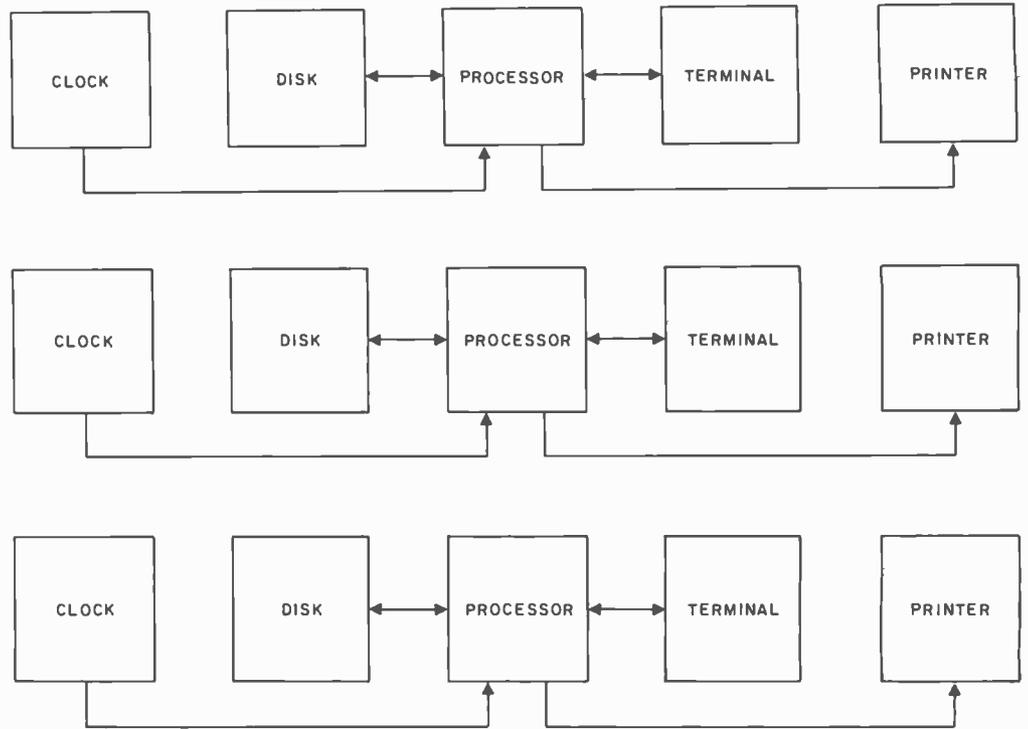


Figure 1: A system set up with each processor having its own mass storage device and IO peripherals.

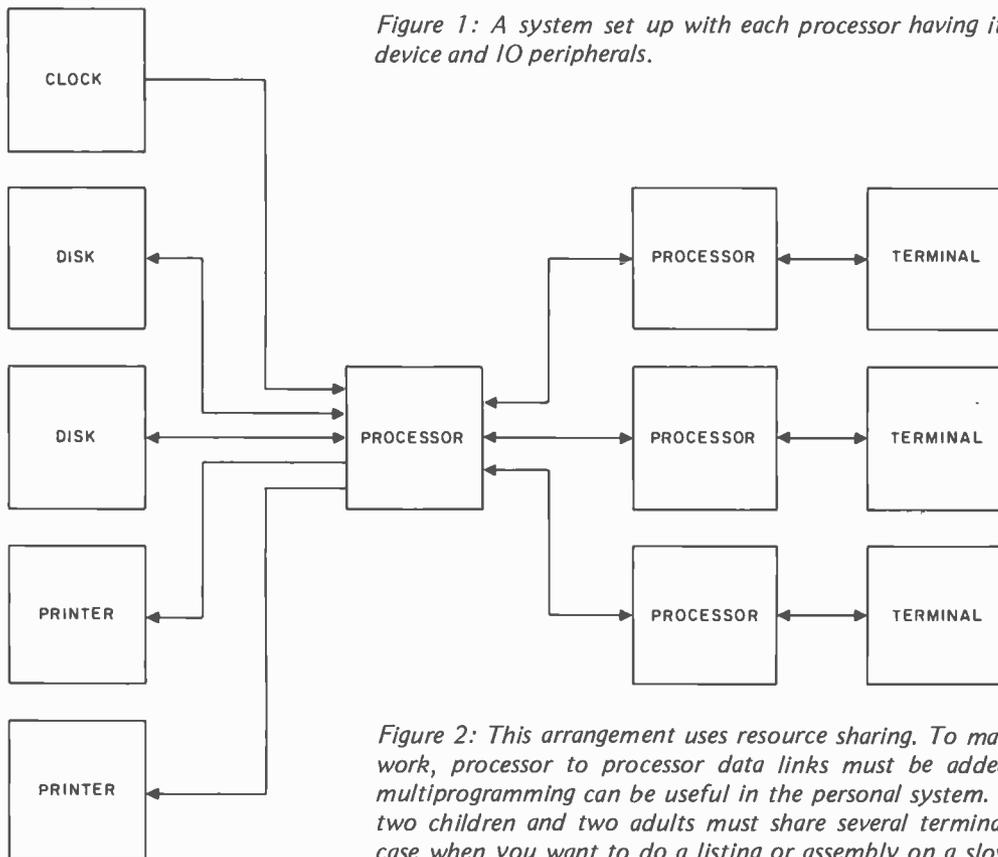


Figure 2: This arrangement uses resource sharing. To make this arrangement work, processor to processor data links must be added. Timesharing and multiprogramming can be useful in the personal system. What happens when two children and two adults must share several terminals? What about the case when you want to do a listing or assembly on a slow printer while continuing an editing operation on a separate source file? The smallness of the scope of a computer does not rule out the use of resource sharing and multiprocessing.

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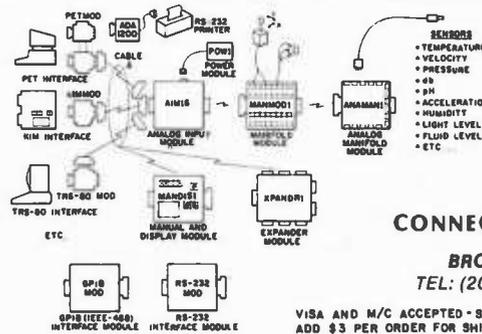
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Memory: You can set things up so that each task has a fixed amount of memory (which may or may not be reset between tasks) or use some sort of a system where the tasks can acquire and free memory dynamically.

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Machine considerations: When an interrupt occurs, or a task is otherwise stopped, the registers, including the program status word (PSW), and stack pointer must be saved and later restored. Depending on the type of programs you run and your type of machine you may have to save and restore all or part of page zero. If you have a 6502, you will also have to deal with the stack's page.

Reentrancy: Programs which can be run concurrently by more than one task are reentrant. You may wish to set up some way of effectively using reentrant programs, such as having a null task, into which may be put reentrant subroutines; or by having various small reentrant routines always in the same place in memory, such as multiply and divide.

There are other methods of going about this completely, which I mention only in passing. Many BASIC systems will have one BASIC interpreter in memory along with multiple programs, and will execute one line of BASIC code and then go on to the next pseudotask. This will also work for APL, although long matrix operations will tend to extend the intervals between transitions from one process to another. (Of course, it is a debatable point whether or not a time-sharing APL and two workspaces will ever fit into the same memory at one time.)

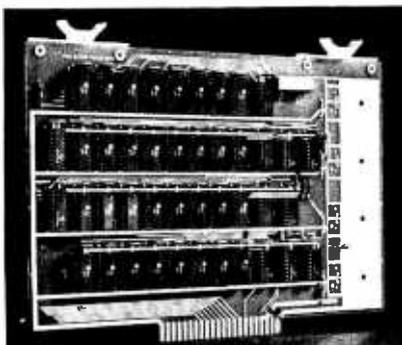
Multiple processor timesharing systems are also possible. Assuming that you have a central processor with disks and printers, there is a method that can save a lot of money. This method is resource sharing. Figure 1 shows a typical group of three computers each working independently. Each processor handles everything with inefficient use of the printers and disks. Figure 2 depicts a resource sharing setup. This requires the addition of processor to processor data links. In this setup, each peripheral processor does the computing while the central processor handles queued IO and interrupts much like the simple timesharing systems above. ■

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About the Author

C Brian Honess is currently assistant professor of management science in the College of Business Administration at the University of South Carolina. He reports that he has been an active "building" radio amateur (ham) for 20 years; his interest in computers goes back to programming scientific business applications on an IBM 1620. He learned about what was inside computers by buying a surplus IBM 704 from the government, and slowly taking it apart (donating, selling and scrapping the parts as he went). Another 704 was eventually purchased, and this time it was built back up, from the inside out. This is not exactly a typical personal computer.

Three Types of Pseudorandom Sequences

C Brian Honess
Asst Prof of Management Science
College of Business Adm
University of South Carolina
Columbia SC 29208

Random numbers are extensively used in virtually all areas of data processing, from the simplest games for a hobby microprocessor, up to the most complex business and scientific applications. Deterministic games programmed without the benefit of some random parameter soon become boring and easy to "beat," so it would seem that random number generation and testing should be of interest to even the neophyte programmer or computer hacker when trying to get a simple game up and running. Random numbers are used extensively in various business applications. For example, random numbers would be used by an auditor faced with a large number of transactions to audit, and using a sampling technique to only look at a certain percentage of representative transactions. The number of checkout stations at your local discount department store may have been determined by using a mathematical model of the store, wherein the arrival and departure of "customers" was simulated using random numbers. Market research makes extensive use of random numbers, in selecting the people, streets, blocks, households, etc, to interview or to mail questionnaires. A mathematical model can also be "built" of an

element, molecule or compound, and a particle introduced at random and collisions counted. Suppose further that you had a photograph of some obscure planet, covered in an extremely irregular way with areas you assumed to be water. You could divide the photograph into small squares, or maybe overlay with a piece of graph paper, and then "take shots" at the grid with a random number generator, wherein the random number would determine the coordinates of the "shot" and you could then tally the number of "hits" and "misses" and thereby determine the number of hits out of the total number of shots, and get an approximation of the percentage of the surface covered by water.

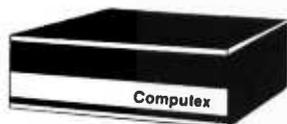
Before reading on, let me suggest that you try a short experiment. Consider the set of integers from 0 to 99, and quickly write down a list of random 2 digit numbers. Use whatever your current idea of random is, and make a list of 100 numbers. Later we'll see several methods for determining how random your numbers are, but I'll hasten to guess that they won't be very random. Psychologists repeatedly show that the average human just cannot think up random numbers. Upon inspection, there might be too many 4s compared with 6s, or maybe very few 0s and an abundance of 5s.

While it's true that a machine can produce a much better selection of truly random numbers than a human, the problem is that the numbers produced by the machine aren't really random either. If you could build a perfect roulette wheel, you'd get truly random numbers, but the mechanical considerations of such a device are, of

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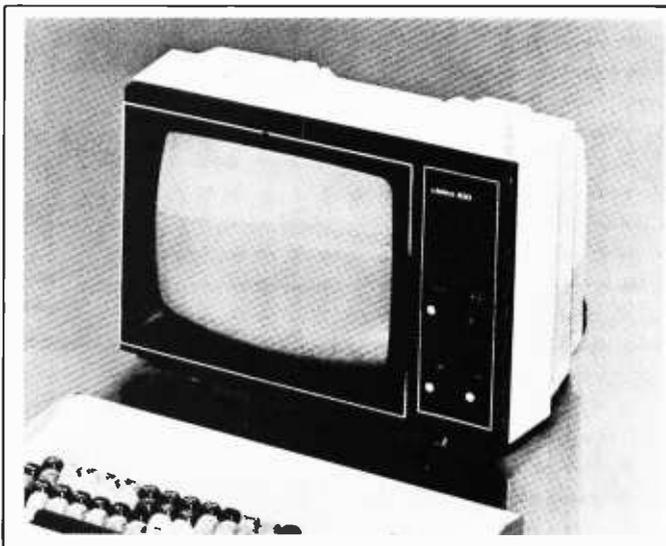
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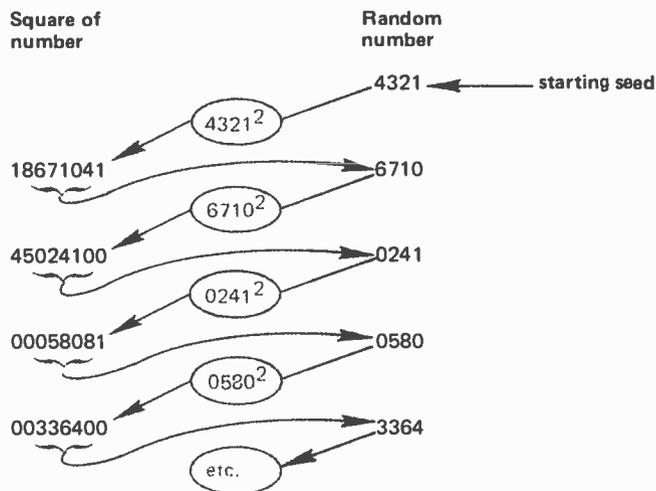


Figure 1: Operation of the center squared method of random number generation can be illustrated by this example. Here we use 8 digit decimal numbers, and assume the ability to extract the center four digits as the 4 digit random number for each cycle. [In principle this algorithm could be done on a binary basis by picking the middle 16 bits of a 32 bit product, or the middle 32 bits of a 64 bit product . . . CH] All versions of this algorithm are subject to the problem of degeneration, since if the middle digits happen to become 0, the square will continue to be 0 through successive generations of the algorithm.

course, impossible, to say nothing of the costs, speed, maintenance, testing, and so forth. There is really not much need to strive for such a device for the usual application of random numbers, because there are some mathematical methods which produce what are called pseudorandom numbers. Implemented on a computer, they are quite fast, easy to implement, and just as much fun to play with as a roulette wheel!

Before looking at some of these methods, I might mention that there are a couple of other ways to get random numbers for your games, experiments, or business applications. You could always punch or key

into your system as many numbers as you want from the Rand table. This is a formal table used by statisticians entitled *A Million Random Digits* and published by Rand Corporation. There are a million of them, so this could take quite a while. Of course, you're assured that these numbers are thoroughly tested and as unbiased as possible, but assuming you have the time and perseverance to do the job, unless you work out some scheme for using different parts of the table or different orderings, you'll always get the same string of digits. You might find an abbreviated table in the back of some statistics book and use the numbers therein, but the problem here is that you'll probably need more numbers than appear in the table. Of course you could always go through the table more than once, but this doesn't multiply the size of the table. In some applications it might be desirable to be able to use the same random numbers, in the same order, more than once. For example, you may want to duplicate the results of an experiment, an audit, a market research test, or a game. But usually, you'll want a new string of numbers, and this can be secured by selecting starting values or other parameters in the mathematical algorithms that follow.

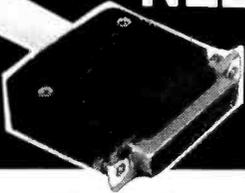
The Center Squared Method

The earliest computer oriented method for producing pseudorandom numbers was probably the center squared method. In this method we begin with a $2n$ digit number, square it, and then extract the center $2n$ digits from the $4n$ digit result, and this becomes the next random number, and also becomes the number which is squared in the next iteration. For example, suppose you want some 4 digit random numbers. In this case, of course, $n = 2$, and let's assume we start off with the number 4321 as our "seed" value. Figure 1 shows the process through three iterations.

This method makes a good little program to assign to a beginning programming class because it is easy to explain, easy to determine what the answers "should be," but it has several problems which arise as you get deeper into the problem. In FORTRAN or BASIC, lacking any specific digit manipulation instructions, the hard part comes when you try to strip off the digits either side of the center. Listing 1 shows a simple BASIC program which will generate one random number. [This program assumes an interpreter with greater than eight digits of arithmetic precision]. Here, we see that we desire four digits, and enter the seed 4321. Squared,

BASIC Program	Sample Results
100 PRINT "INPUT A 4-DIGIT SEED";	
110 INPUT N	4321
120 LET N = N * N	18671041
130 LET N = N / 100	186710.41
140 LET N = INT(N)	186710
150 LET A = A / 10000	18.6710
160 LET A = INT(A)	18
170 LET A = A * 10000	180000
180 LET N = N - A	6710
190 PRINT N	6710
200 END	

Listing 1: A BASIC program which accomplishes one generation of the center squared method of calculation. Note that this program assumes an interpreter with at least eight decimal digits of accuracy.

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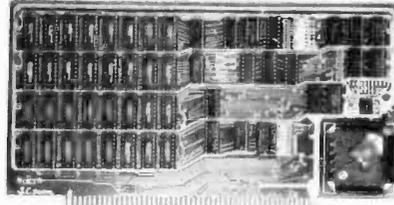
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```

100 PRINT "HOW MANY NUMBERS DO YOU WANT?";
110 INPUT J
120 PRINT "INPUT A 4-DIGIT SEED";
130 INPUT N
140 FOR I = 1 TO J
150 LET N = INT(N*N/100)
160 LET A = INT(N/10000)*10000
170 LET N = N - A
180 PRINT N
190 NEXT I
200 END

```

Listing 2: A BASIC program which will generate a list of random numbers using the center squared method. The program embeds a revised form of the calculation of listing 1 within a FOR-NEXT loop.

this becomes an 8 digit number in line 120. Line 130 divides by 100 in the first step of several necessary to get out the four center digits. Of course if you wanted 2 digit random numbers your seed would have been a 2 digit number; you'd have a 4 digit square, and you would change line 130 to divide by 10. For 6 digit numbers, you'd change it to divide by 1000, etc. Line 140 completes the removal of the right-hand two digits by integerizing the number. This resulting 6 digit number is then set aside, and you start removing the front two digits. This is done by dividing by 10000, integerizing the result and then multiplying by 10000. In line 180 you subtract this number from the one previously set aside and out come the center four digits, the new random number. If you are working with 2 digit random numbers, the divisor in line 150 would be changed to 100 and you'd then multiply by 100 in line 170.

One number isn't going to be enough

```

100 PRINT "HOW MANY NUMBERS DO YOU WANT?";
110 INPUT J
120 PRINT "INPUT A 4-DIGIT SEED";
130 INPUT N
140 FOR I = 1 TO J
150 LET N = INT(N*N/100)
160 LET A = INT(N/10000)*10000
170 LET N = N - A
180 PRINT N
190 IF N <> 0 THEN 230
200 PRINT "DEGENERATION AFTER"; N ; "NUMBERS"
210 PRINT "ENTER ANOTHER 4-DIGIT SEED";
220 INPUT N
230 NEXT I
240 END

```

Listing 3: The program of listing 2 will occasionally produce examples of degenerate cases. The center squared method is prone to such degeneration with an unpredictable frequency, so for purposes of illustration this version incorporates an ad hoc fix to ask for a new seed when degeneracy is detected, and report on how many cycles were required to reach degeneracy.

for most applications, so let's put in a loop and get "n" numbers. Listing 2 shows the modifications necessary. Also, we'll combine lines 120 to 140, and lines 160 to 170 in listing 1.

I remember when I first coded this method in a beginning FORTRAN class. I've forgotten what 4 digit seed the instructor used at the time, but it was a revelation when I found out about something he called "degeneration." I'm sure a simple program can be written to discover any and all of the 4 digit seeds which will cause this program to degenerate to zero, but let's assume that there is at least one, and that Murphy's Law will guarantee that this particular one is the seed you choose for your first run. It is not difficult to imagine that there is a 4 digit number, which, when squared, will have four zeros in the middle. Maybe your number squared will be 12000034, or 65000025, etc. This being the case, you'll get 0000 as your next random number until you discover what is going on and get out of the loop. Listing 3 shows how we'll test for that problem and perform an ad hoc fix; we'll just call for another seed when a random number of zero is obtained.

Our final try at the center square program still doesn't solve one of the worst problems with this method. The method doesn't give very long periods for many seeds, and you really can't predict what the results will be until you try it. The method starts repeating numbers, and even the place where it starts repeating can't be determined without trying it. For example, you may print out 722 different numbers, and then it will start repeating the last 34 of them. The method is easy, and it is fun, and it may just produce all the pseudorandom numbers you need for your application.

Fibonacci Series Technique

A second method for generating random numbers makes use of the Fibonacci series, so named for its discoverer Leonardo of Pisa, known as Fibonacci (meaning son of Bonaccio). Leonardo was perhaps the greatest European mathematician of the Middle Ages, and if not for him you might be programming your machine using Roman numerals, because it was Leonardo who recognized the enormous superiority of the Hindu-Arabic decimal system with its positional notation and the zero symbol, over the much clumsier Roman system. Table 1 shows several numbers in the Fibonacci series, and you'll notice that each number is simply the sum of the previous two numbers. Actually, we could make up any number of series by starting with any

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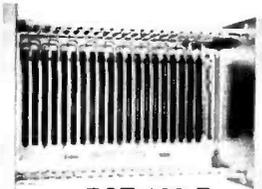
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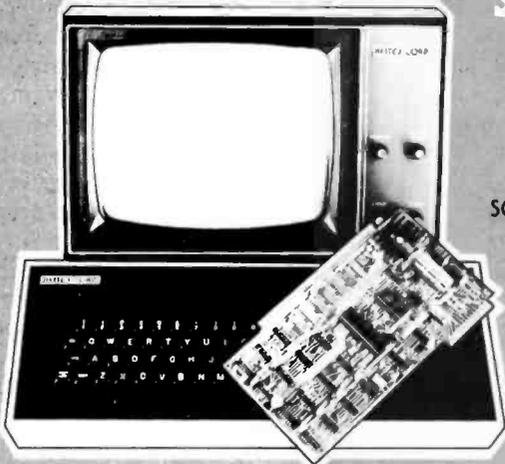
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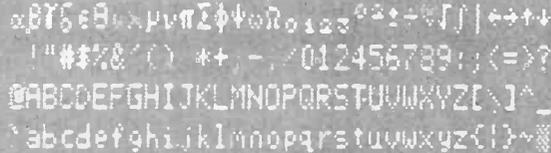
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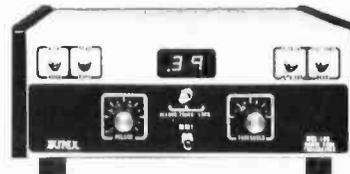


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(a) The Fibonacci Series

n	F _n
1	1
2	1
3	2
4	3
5	5
6	8
7	13
.	.
.	.
19	4181
20	6765
21	10946
22	17711
.	.
.	.
.	.

(b) Some Characteristics of the Fibonacci Series

Final digit (LSD)	repeats	in cycle	of	60
Last 2 digits	repeat	in cycle	of	300
Last 3 digits	"	"	"	1500
Last 4 digits	"	"	"	15000
Last 5 digits	"	"	"	150000
etc.				

Every 3rd F _n	is	divisible by	2	} Note: this is also the Fibonacci series.
" 4th	"	"	3	
" 5th	"	"	5	
" 6th	"	"	8	
etc.				

Table 1: The Fibonacci series is a numerological phenomenon which is generated by the following definition: the next term in the series is the sum of the previous two terms, with the first two terms defined to be a value of 1 as a starting point. At (a) are listed several representative sections of the Fibonacci series, and at (b) are shown several miscellaneous characteristics of the Fibonacci series abstracted from the mathematical literature. This series can be used as a basis for a random number generator, as described in the text.

two numbers and letting their sum be a new random number, and repeating this for our desired number of iterations. The reason that we'll use the Fibonacci series specifically, and not any other series, is that the characteristics of the Fibonacci series have been studied, and we know several facts about it that will be of interest. Table 1 for example shows that if we want more than 60 single digit random numbers, the Fibonacci series isn't going to work. Of course we could start extracting 2 digit numbers from different parts of the numbers produced, but here we're on our own as far as statistical characteristics are concerned.

Listing 4 shows a BASIC program for calculating and printing "n" random numbers of five digits each. Notice that the generator is seeded with two seeds from table 1. These could have been INPUT, of course, and in that way a different series of random numbers could be produced. I've chosen the first two 5 digit numbers in the sequence, but there is nothing special about them. Also, you might consider having the generator run through the loop a number of times before it starts printing the output. This could be easily implemented with another INPUT statement and another FOR . . . NEXT loop, or maybe by just adding the number of unwanted numbers to J, and then putting in an IF to suppress printing of the first J-N numbers. Listing 4 is straightforward: after determining how many numbers you want, it takes the two seeds and calculates the first number. It is possible that the result will be over five digits when the two previous numbers are added, but it can never be greater than 199998 (99999 + 99999), so we check for this condition in line 160 and simply subtract 100000 if the number is larger than 99999. Lines 190 and 200 serve to shift the second number into the location previously holding the first number, and the new random number into the location previously holding the second number, and we're ready for a new iteration.

```

100 PRINT "HOW MANY NUMBERS DO YOU WANT?";
110 INPUT J
120 LET A = 10946
130 LET B = 17711
140 FOR I = 1 TO J
150 LET N = A + B
160 IF N < 100000 THEN 180
170 LET N = N - 100000
180 PRINT N
190 LET A = B
200 LET B = N
210 NEXT I
220 END

```

Listing 4: A BASIC program which implements a Fibonacci series random number generation technique. The program works machines of finite precision (even though the Fibonacci numbers eventually get infinitely large) because only the low order digits are kept as part of the pseudorandom number. Since the high order portion of a Fibonacci number has no effect on the low order portion during calculation of the next number, it is possible to completely ignore the high order part.

In order to find the nth Fibonacci number, you needn't go up to "n" one at a time. There is an easier method, although you might not think so when you see the formulas in figure 2. You might try to find the 20th Fibonacci number with your

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$$(a) \quad F_n = \frac{1}{\sqrt{5}} \left[\left(\frac{1+\sqrt{5}}{2} \right)^n - \frac{1-\sqrt{5}}{2} \right]^n$$

$$(b) \quad F_n = \frac{\Phi^n}{\sqrt{5}} = \frac{((1+\sqrt{5})/2)^n}{\sqrt{5}} \quad \text{rounded to nearest integer.}$$

$$(c) \quad (\text{Golden ratio})^k = \left(\frac{1+\sqrt{5}}{2} \right)^k = \Phi^k = 1.61803^k \dots$$

Figure 2: The program of listing 4 was an iterative calculation. It turns out that there are several ways to calculate Fibonacci numbers directly which do not involve iteration. Formula (a) is an exact calculation of the n^{th} Fibonacci number. Formula (b) is also an exact calculation if the result is rounded to the nearest integer. Formula (c) defines a criterion for making the Fibonacci sequence pass various statistical tests which would otherwise fail: pick every k^{th} number where k is chosen so that the "golden ratio" to the k^{th} power is relatively large compared to the low order portion of the Fibonacci numbers which is used as a random number output.

pocket calculator (or maybe your computer?) using formula a of figure 2. We know the answer is 6765, from table 1. This formula produces the exact answer, but we can get it with a little less calculation by using formula b in figure 2. The term $(1 + \sqrt{5}) / 2$ is known in the mathematical literature as the "Golden Ratio" and is often symbolized by the Greek letter Φ (phi). If formula b is evaluated and then rounded to the nearest integer, it will produce F_n . You might try this, again, with $n = 20$.

The Golden Ratio assumes importance when using the Fibonacci series random number generator, because it is used as a "correction factor." The results of the generator, aside from being somewhat predictable as shown in table 1, fail many of the statistical tests usually applied to random number generators. A big improvement can be made in the results if we use only every k^{th} number, where k is almost any number

```

100 PRINT "INPUT ANY ODD INTEGER";
110 INPUT N
120 LET X = N * 65539
130 LET Y = X * 0.4656612873077392578125E-09
140 PRINT X ; Y
150 END

```

Listing 5: A BASIC program to calculate one cycle of a pseudorandom sequence using the power residue method. This particular program is the algorithm used for a 32 bit machine as found in the IBM System 360 and 370 "Scientific Subroutine Package," IBM Publication Number H20-0205. In the source document cited, this algorithm is given as a FORTRAN subprogram named RANDU.

which will make the Golden Ratio to the k^{th} power relatively large. Figure 2c is the required formula. If this modification is implemented, and k is large, your calculating time for each random number that is to be used will greatly increase, but you'll have numbers that are about as good statistically as any other method.

Power Residue Calculations

A third general class of pseudorandom number generators is called the Power Residue Method. It is this method that is usually favored by hardware manufacturers, software writers and mathematicians, because long periods prior to repetition can be assured, and the numbers generated hold up well to statistical tests for randomness. The method is, however, machine dependent since it relies on the word size of the machine. The Power Residue Method is the method employed in RANDU, an extremely popular random number generator appearing in the "Scientific Subroutine Package" (IBM publication number H20-0205) for the IBM System 360 and 370 computers. The publication gives a FORTRAN listing of this subroutine and documentation on how to use it, and also delineates a FORTRAN listing and instructions for use of GAUSS, which is a program for producing a normal distribution of random numbers. The methods can easily be extended to distributions other than the normal. Background on the number theory aspects of the Power Residue Method can be obtained in another IBM booklet, "Random Number Generation and Testing" (IBM publication number C20-8011).

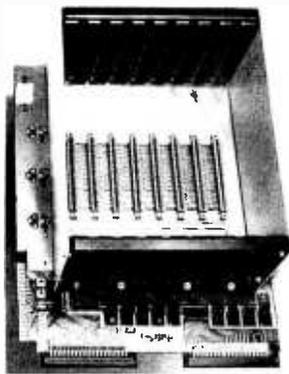
Listing 5 shows a BASIC version of a program to produce one random number on a 32 bit machine. The program can be easily modified, of course, along the lines we followed for the center squared and Fibonacci methods covered earlier. The multiplier in line 130 is 2^{-31} and of course you'll be rounding it to fit your particular BASIC compiler. Line 130 simply transforms our new random number X into a floating-point version between 0 and 1, which is a more usual way of delineating random numbers. With a 32 bit machine (1 sign bit) we use 2^{-31} , and this would be changed to correspond to the particular machine upon which the method is implemented. The multiplier in line 120 is also machine dependent. It has the form: $8i \pm 3$, where i is any integer. The trick here is to choose i , such that the resultant multiplier is close to $2^{b/2}$. Since $b = 32$ for this example (b is the number of bits), then we

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want the multiplier to be close to $2^{16} = 65536$. If $i = 8192$, then the multiplier will be $65536+3=65539$. The seed multiplied by the multiplier produces a product which is $2b$ bits long and we discard the b high order bits, and the remaining b low order bits become the random number and the input seed for the routine for the next number. Using this method we will get 2^{b-2} terms before repeating. Actually, the sign bit doesn't count, so we'll have $2^{31} - 2$ or 2^{29} , or over half a billion numbers before repeating. I'm not about to try and prove this, but I will give it a "go" with a smaller machine assumed.

Let's assume a 6 bit machine. This should produce 2^{b-2} , or $2^4 = 16$ numbers before repeating, and that shouldn't be too difficult to inspect manually. We want a multiplier of the form $8i \pm 3$ which is close to $2^{b/2} = 2^{6/2} = 2^3 = 8$. If $i = 1$, we'd have $8 \times 1 + 3 = 11$ and $8 \times 1 - 3 = 5$. Both of these possibilities are equally 3 away from our desired value of 8, so let's try both. Table 2a shows how we get started using 5 as the multiplier, and table 2b shows the whole cycle of all 16 numbers produced. Table 2 also shows that if we had chosen a multiplier of 11 the procedure would

also have produced 16 numbers before repeating.

You've probably noticed that the two columns of numbers in table 2 just don't look too random. Both columns have numbers that always end in 1. For the 11 multiplier case, the 4th digit is always 0, and the 5th digit alternates between 0 and 1. For the 5 multiplier case, the 5th digit is always 0 and the 4th digit alternates between 0 and 1. Obviously the low order bits are far from random. If you wanted random digits, and not random numbers, it would obviously be to your advantage to choose high order bits, or possibly the bits you discarded when you cut the product from 12 to six bits. The usual scheme, after developing the numbers in table 2, would be to place the binary point at the beginning of the 6 bit numbers, and thereby transform the whole list to a distribution between 0 and 1.

Testing Randomness

Tests of the randomness of a series of numbers usually fall into one of two major categories, those that examine the digits appearing in the numbers and those that

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(a)

1. Choose an odd integer starting value. We'll choose the 6 bit number 100001 (simply because it'll be easy to multiply).
2. Choose the multiplier. (We've already decided on 5, binary 101.)
3. Compute the product. (100001) * (000101) = 000010100101
4. Cross out the first six bits, and you have the new number.
~~000010~~100101 = 100101
5. (100101) * (000101) = ~~000010~~111001 = 111001
6. (111001) * (000101) = etc.

(b)

	Multiplier = 5 (000101 ₂)	Multiplier = 11 (001011 ₂)
Starting seed	100001	100001
n(1)	100101	101011
n(2)	111001	011001
n(3)	011101	010011
n(4)	010001	010001
n(5)	010101	111011
n(6)	101001	001001
n(7)	001101	100011
n(8)	000001	000001
n(9)	000101	001011
n(10)	011001	111001
n(11)	111101	110011
n(12)	110001	110001
n(13)	110101	011011
n(14)	001001	101001
n(15)	101101	000011
n(16)	100001	100001

Table 2: The power residue method, adapted to a 6 bit example with two possible multipliers. The algorithm is shown at (a), and the complete set of 16 pseudorandom output states is listed in this table at (b). Note the deviations from randomness apparent in the regular patterns seen in the two low order bits of each number.

treat the numbers as points in the interval 0 to 1. Some tests can handle either case, of which the Chi-square test is one. It can be applied directly to the digits produced, or to groupings of the digits, or we can divide the interval 0 to 1 into subintervals and see how many of the random numbers fall into each of the subintervals and apply the Chi-square test to see if the distribution is biased.

Digit	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	Sum
Observed frequency	58	28	40	34	70	62	72	36	40	60	500
Expected frequency	50	50	50	50	50	50	50	50	50	50	500

$$\chi^2 = \frac{(58 - 50)^2}{50} + \frac{(28 - 50)^2}{50} + \frac{(40 - 50)^2}{50} + \dots + \frac{(60 - 50)^2}{50} = \underline{46.56}$$

Table 3: A random number sequence can be tested with various statistical measures. One excellent test is the Chi-square test, here illustrated with a hypothetical single digit decimal random number generator with the observed frequencies shown in a trial of 500 cycles of calculation. If the result were truly random, of course, the expected frequencies of each digit would be uniform. The Chi-square test involves calculating the characteristic number shown by the formula here (using this table's data). This characteristic number is then used with a statistical reference table of the Chi-square distribution and the number of degrees of freedom allowed by the statistics (here v=9), to check the quality of the pseudorandom sequence.

The Chi-square (symbol χ^2) statistic looks somewhat formidable, but in reality is easy to work with. The formula is:

$$\chi^2 = \sum_{i=1}^k \frac{(o_i - e_i)^2}{e_i}$$

$$= \frac{(o_1 - e_1)^2}{e_1} + \frac{(o_2 - e_2)^2}{e_2}$$

$$+ \dots + \frac{(o_k - e_k)^2}{e_k}$$

where e_i is each expected frequency, and o_i is the actual observed frequency. If we had a generator which produced 250 digits we would expect each of the digits 0 through 9 to appear 25 times, although the digits might actually appear more or less than 25 times. Assume that your random number generator has just produced a series of 500 digits. You count all the zeros, ones, etc, and tabulate these observed frequencies (as in table 3) along with the expected frequency in each case of 50. You have counted 58 zeros, 28 ones, etc. You next put these observed and expected frequencies into the χ^2 formula and arrive at an answer of 46.45 as shown. At this point we need to turn to a Chi-square distribution table, which can be found in the back of almost any statistics book. Table 4 shows a portion of such a table and will suffice for most of our needs for uses like this application of the Chi-square statistic. The table is entered after you calculate the "degrees of freedom" in the column labeled "v" and after you



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10	25.2	23.2	18.3	16.0	12.5
19	38.6	36.2	30.1	27.2	22.7
24	45.6	43.0	36.4	33.2	28.2

Table 4: An abbreviated portion of a standard Chi-square table used as described in the text to check the quality of a pseudorandom sequence.

determine the level of significance you want to test. The degrees of freedom in our case are $10 - 1 = 9$. This simply means that after we have determined nine of the observed frequencies, the 10th one is fixed. The frequencies have to add to 500, so we have "nine degrees of freedom." Traditionally, the Chi-square statistic is used to test the hypothesis that the numbers are randomly distributed. If the computed value of Chi-square is greater than the critical value read from the table, we would then conclude that the observed frequencies differ significantly from the expected frequencies and we would reject the hypothesis of randomness at whatever level of significance we select. The levels of significance often used are 0.05 and 0.01, corresponding to the $\chi^2_{.95}$ and $\chi^2_{.99}$ columns respectively, in the table. Going back to our example, we calculated a value of 45.56, but in the table for nine degrees of freedom and at the .01 level of significance, we see that the critical value of Chi-square is 21.7. Since $46.56 > 21.7$ we therefore conclude that the observed distribution of numbers produced by our generator differs significantly from the expected distribution at the 0.01 level of significance, and we therefore cast considerable suspicion on our random number generator. As previously mentioned, we could take our list of generated numbers in the 0 to 1 interval and set up some subdivisions of this interval. Next, we could see how many of the numbers fell into each subinterval, calculate the expected frequency for the subintervals, and apply the Chi-square test in the same fashion.

A second test frequently applied to random numbers is called the "poker test," but is in reality similar to the frequency test already considered. In the poker test we

look for specific combinations of digits. For example, suppose we are generating 5 digit integer random numbers in the interval 00000 to 99999. Probability theory tells us the number of numbers we should have where all digits are the same, like 22222 or 66666 etc. We can also calculate the expected number of pairs, three-of-a-kind and full houses, etc. The Chi-square test can be applied to the analysis of the results.

A very similar test, called the "gap test," can be applied in like manner to the distances separating two like digits or two like groups of two or more digits. Again, Chi-square is a useful statistic in the analysis of these findings. The power residue method satisfactorily passes the poker test, the gap test and the usual frequency test; however it often fails to pass tests which consider runs of numbers. We've already seen how the power residue method produces certain predictable results, so this should not come as a surprise. However, if we are generating random *numbers* instead of random *digits*, this is not a big problem. A study of the runs up and down is often a good test to determine which multipliers are better than others when you use the power residue method, and the "run test" will also consistently prove that the Fibonacci series method will not produce the predicted number and lengths of runs. Taking, for example, a long string of random generator produced bits, we would count the number of strings of zeros bracketed by ones for each length, from one, on up to the longest string length. Number theory helps us determine the number of total runs we should have for both the ones and zeros. Figure 3 shows how to calculate these lengths, assuming "n" bits. There are several special tests similar to the run test, for example: "runs above and below the mean," etc. And, as usual, the Chi-square test is frequently applied to see if the actual results are reasonable.

I can't guarantee all of the above will help you program your computer to play interesting Star Trek or sophisticated One-Armed-Bandit games but at least you'll be able to come up with generators that are biased in your favor. ■

Figure 3: Several formulas for the run test of a pseudorandom sequence.

Run length	Formula
1	$(5n + 1) / 12$
2	$(11n - 14) / 60$
k (for $k < n - 1$)	$2 \left\{ (k^2 + 3k + 1)n - (k^3 + 3k^2 - k - 4) \right\} / (k + 3)!$
$n - 1$	$2 / n!$

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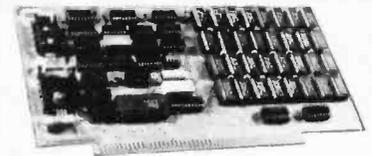
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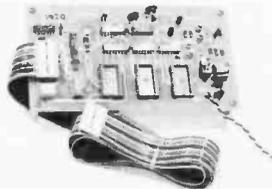
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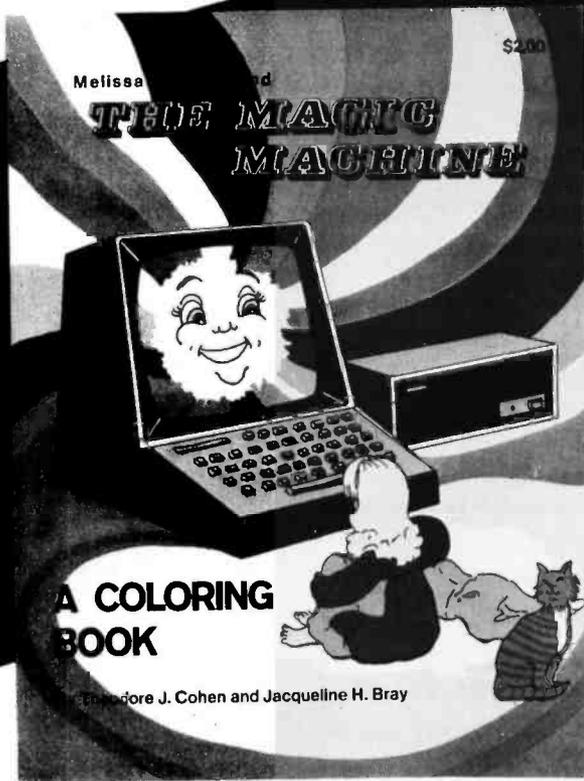
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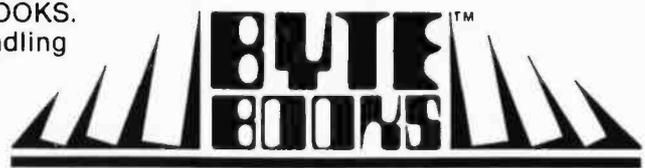
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What's New?

The Physicians Microcomputer Report

The Physicians Microcomputer Report is a monthly publication for doctors who wish to become better informed about the computer and its application in the field of medicine. Some of the features include: software news, calculator corner, computers in patient health care, microcomputer hardware news, the bargain market, and computer articles of special interest to the physician. Additionally, the report contains articles on nonmedical applications such as linking your computer to a stock portfolio information center. Another intent of this publication is to facilitate the exchange of information between physicians who own computers. For this purpose the magazine has a listing of user groups.

The Physicians Microcomputer Report is available for \$25 a year and \$12.50 for students. Contact Dr Gerald M Orosz, POB 6483, Lawrenceville NJ 08648.

Circle 591 on inquiry card.

Attention Readers, and Vendors...

Where Do New Products Items Come From?

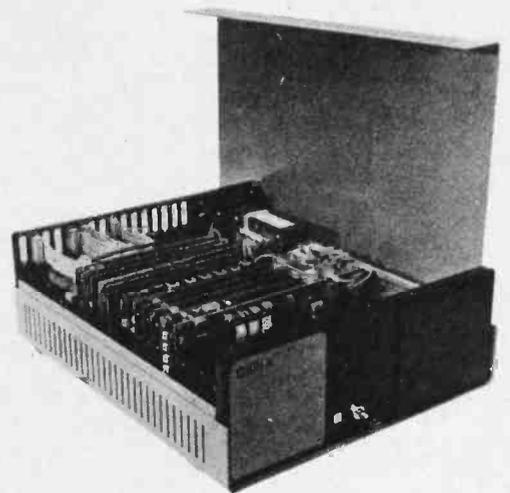
The information printed in the new products pages of BYTE is obtained from "new product" or "press release" copy sent by the promoters of new products. If in our judgment the information might be of interest to the personal computing experimenters and homebrewers who read BYTE, we print it in some form. 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.

Complete Microcomputer System from Gimix

Gimix Inc has announced its complete System 68 microcomputer. It features the following: a ferro-resonant constant voltage power supply; an SS-50 motherboard (15 50 pin and eight 30 pin gold plated slots); a 6800 processor board that holds four 2708s and three independently programmable software timers; the Gimix 16 K byte software readdressable static programmable memory boards organized into four separately controllable 4 K byte blocks, which allows the user as much memory as can be contained in the mainframe.

Dual-in-line package switch features allow use of existing SwTPC and MSI compatible software. The system is video based using the Gimix video board and advanced GMXBUG 3 K byte read only memory monitor that contains the standard utility functions plus routines that facilitate software development.

The price of \$1395 includes the motherboard, switches, fan, power supply, video board, 3 K GMXBUG version



2, 8 K byte static programmable memory, 2 port parallel I/O (input/output) board, cable and two disk regulator board. For further information, contact Gimix Inc, 1337 W 37th Pl, Chicago IL 60609.

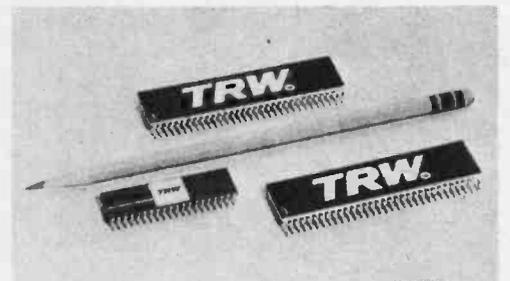
Circle 590 on inquiry card.

TRW LSI Products Introduces New Generation of Multipliers

A new series of monolithic multipliers, designated the MPY/HJ series, provide n by n bit multiplication of 24, 16, 12 and 8 bit numbers. All four multipliers have improved input registers that feature simplified clocking so that no data-hold time (clock overlap) is necessary. The three largest multipliers (MPY-24, -16 and -12HJ) feature improved output registers that can be made transparent for asynchronous output. They also feature a programmable selection of output product formats and can intermix two's complement numbers with numbers in absolute magnitude in the same operation.

All the new circuits are plug compatible with their first generation counterparts. Inserting one into a socket wired for an /AJ device automatically masks out the new /HJ features while still providing faster operation and reduced power consumption.

The MPY-24HJ contains a new shift and normalize feature, and yields a 48 bit product in 200 ns. The MPY-24HJ is supplied in a standard 64 pin dual-in-line package. The MPY-16HJ produces a 32 bit product in 100 ns and is pin compatible with the older 16 bit multi-

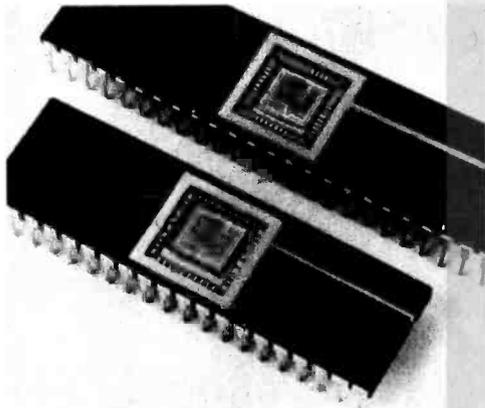


pliers. Like the MPY-24HJ, it can be expanded to operate on 32, 48, 64 and larger numbers. The MPY-12HJ multiplies a pair of 12 bit numbers and yields their product in 80 ns. It is ideal for digital signal processing applications such as fast Fourier transforms and digital filters. The MPY-8HJ produces a 16 bit product in 65 ns. A fast version of the 8 bit multipliers called the MPY-8HJ-1 is being offered. It produces a 16 bit product in 45 ns and is intended for use in digital television systems.

Prices are \$59 for the MPY-8HJ; \$71 for the MPY-8HJ-1; \$103 for the MPY-12HJ; \$157 for the MPY-16HJ and \$310 for the MPY-24HJ. For more information, contact TRW LSI Products, POB 1125, Redondo Beach CA 90278.

Circle 592 on inquiry card.

Zilog Announces Availability of 16 Bit Z8000 Microprocessor



Zilog Inc has announced the availability of a Z8000 microcomputer processor circuit that offers users the architectural resources of mini and large mainframe computers in a single circuit device. The processor is available in two versions: the Z8001 in a 48 pin ceramic dual-in-line package that allows the user to address up to 8 M bytes of memory; and the Z8002 in a 40 pin ceramic dual-

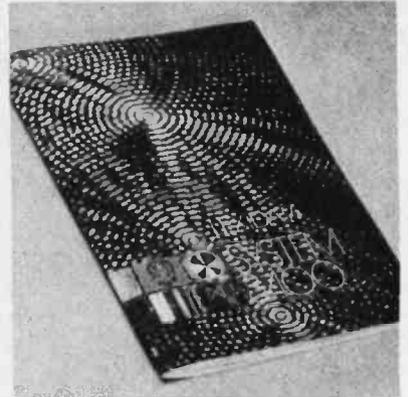
in-line package. The 40 pin Z8002, designed for smaller, less memory intensive applications, is compatible with the 48 pin Z8001, but the 40 pin processor's addressing is limited to 64 K bytes in each of its 6 address spaces.

A scaled N/MOS depletion load silicon gate device, the Z8000 processor densely packs 17,500 transistors on a device which is 238 by 256 mils. The Z8000 is designed for both minicomputer and microcomputer applications. The Z8000 contains 24, 16 bit registers that reduce the number of memory references needed in programming. Sixteen of those registers are general purpose. The Z8000's problem solving instruction set supports seven different data types from single to 32 bit words, has 8 addressing modes, and 418 usable op code combinations.

Pricing for the Z8001 is \$195 for 1-9 pieces, \$162.50 for 10-99 quantities and \$140 for lots of 100 and up. The Z8002 sells for \$150 for 1-9 quantities, \$125 for 10-99 pieces, and \$107.10 for lots of 100 and up. For further information contact Zilog, 10340 Bubb Rd, Cupertino CA 95014.

Circle 615 on inquiry card.

28 Page Brochure on Computer Graphics and Imaging



Lexidata Corporation, 215 Middlesex Turnpike, Burlington MA 01803 offers a free 28 page brochure describing the relative advantages of various display technologies and comparing them to its new System 3400 Video Image Processor. Interfacing, system software, application, and hardware options are covered in detail.

Circle 618 on Inquiry card.

New Software Compatible With Any Z-80 or 8080 CP/M System



Circle 616 on inquiry card.

Graham-Dorian Software Systems has developed four complete software program packages for payroll, inventory, cash register, and apartment management. All programs are compatible with any Z-80 or 8080 CP/M system, and can be ordered in eight inch (double or single density) or five inch floppy disks. Each program package contains a disk with CBASIC-2 compiler, CBASIC-2 run command, the Graham-Dorian software program in INT and BAS file form, plus a users manual and hard copy source listing. The four programs sell for \$695 each. One CBASIC-2 is free with a program order, others cost \$89.95 each. For further information contact Graham-Dorian Software Systems, 211 N Broadway, Wichita KS 67202.

A Powerful Disk Based Operating System for 6800 Microprocessors

The CP/68 operating system for the 6800 family of microprocessors furnishes big system features and capabilities for microcomputers. A combination of memory resident and transient commands provide the system's flexibility. With the CP/68 operating system it is possible to add your own commands to the system. PIP (Peripheral Interchange Program) allows transfer of data between physical devices. Wildcard operation of all disk commands lets the user specify files either ambiguously or unambiguously.

Other features of the operating system are complete device independent I/O (input/output); sequential and random file access methods; dynamic allocation and expansion of files; command files; and chaining and overlaying of user programs. It fits in less than 8 K bytes and can be relocated anywhere in memory; the extended instruction set includes 19 new 6809-type instructions (PSHX, PULX, etc); all disk operating system services are available through a single supervisor call; and it easily interfaces to new devices and peripherals.

The operating system supports functions that STRUBAL+ used to provide in its runtime package. The operating system runs on Percom, ICOM, MSI, Smoke Signal, Micropolis and SwTPC systems. For further information contact Hemenway Associates Inc, 101 Tremont St, Suite 208, Boston MA 02108.

Circle 619 on inquiry card.

Text Processing Software

Digitan Systems Inc has announced a text processing system which uses special commands for text formatting applications. It is intended for use with 8080 and Z-80 microcomputer based systems. The commands include multiple line spacing; left and right margin control; indenting; paging; optional right margin justification; centering and underlining text; no-frill modes; automatic page numbering; page and line length control; and the printing of left, right and center header titles and footer titles with optionally different titles based on even and odd pages. Also included is the ability to input extra data from a file or the console terminal during the formatting process.

The text processing system will automatically loop for repeated formatting applications such as form letters. A pre-processing program is able to select a subset of the extra text data according to a user specified matching pattern. The output of the text processor can be directed to either the console terminal, line printer, or a disk file.

The source code of the text formatter has been written in CBASIC and runs under the CP/M operations system. It is available on eight inch floppy disks with a comprehensive manual at a cost of \$250 per copy. A well documented source code is also available for an additional fee. For further information contact Digitan Systems Inc, 5001 16th Av, Brooklyn NY 11204.

Circle 617 on inquiry card.

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| 8228 Bus Driver |3.95 |
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| 6810-1 128 x 8 RAM |1.95 |
| 6820 Pk |6.50 |
| 6821 Pk |6.50 |
| 6828 Priority Int. |11.00 |
| 6828 Serial Adapter |12.95 |
| 6828 Serial Adapter |7.20 |
| 6848 HD4650S CRT Control |39.95 |
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| 6869 Modulator |2.95 |
| 6871A 1GMHz OSC |25.95 |
| 6875 |8.25 |
| 6875 Bus Driver |2.39 |
| AC6848B |19.50 |
| 1821 SCD 1K RAM |25.00 |
| 1822 SCD 1K RAM |25.00 |
| 1824 CD 32 x 8 RAM |9.95 |
| 1825 CD 8 bit I/O |10.95 |
| 1854 Unit |8.95 |
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| 6522 M/D |7.50 |
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16K CCD - First time offered Fairchild 460 CCD
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\$18.95 each (reg. 43.00)

CRYSTALS

- | Microprocessor Timebases TV Game | Frequency | Price | Frequency | Price |
|----------------------------------|-----------|-----------|-----------|-------|
| 1MHz | \$5.85 | 6MHz | \$ 5.95 | |
| 1.5MHz | 4.95 | 6.144 | 4.95 | |
| 1.8MHz | 4.95 | 6.552 | 4.95 | |
| 2.0MHz | 4.95 | 10MHz | 4.95 | |
| 2.09713MHz | 13.00 | 4.95 | 4.95 | |
| 2.47676MHz | 14.31818 | 4.95 | 4.95 | |
| 3.174515MHz | 15.00 | 18MHz | 4.95 | |
| 4.190376MHz | 19.50 | 18.432MHz | 4.95 | |
| 4.19430MHz | 19.50 | 20MHz | 4.95 | |
| 4.91520MHz | 19.50 | 22.184MHz | 5.95 | |
| 5.1MHz | 19.50 | 27.00MHz | 4.95 | |
| 5.9386 | 19.50 | 36.00MHz | 5.95 | |
| 7.143MHz | 19.50 | 48.00MHz | 5.95 | |

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- FND 357 (CCD) 357' Red 99
- FND 500/503 (CCD) 500' Red 99
- FND 507/510 (CCD) 500' Red 99
- FND 800/803 (CCD) 800' Red 1.75
- FND 807/810 (CCD) 800' Red 1.75
- AN 3092 500' Green 99
- HP5092-7731 (CA) 300' Red 99
- 9 Digit Bubble Min. Calc. Display 99
- 9 Digit Fanout Display 40x 99
- 9 Digit Fluorescent 300' 99
- MA1003 12V Auto Clock Module 18.99
- Set for MA1003 w/Red Filter 178.95
- MA1002A LED 12 hr. Clock Module 10.95

NUMERIC DISPLAYS

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- HP 508-27340 Red Hexadecimal 15.95
- TIL 306 Numeric w/Logic 8.95
- TIL 308 Numeric w/Logic 8.95
- TIL 310 Numeric w/Logic 8.95
- TIL 311 Hexadecimal 12.95
- MAN 24 320' Red Alpha-Numeric 5.95
- MAN 10A 270' Red Alpha-Numeric 8.95

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- 4N25 Photo XSTR HFE 250 30V 1.29
- 4N33 Photo Diode 1.29
- FPT 1108 Photo XSTR Flat Lens SALE 4/100

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- KIMSI to KIM Connector \$75.00/85.00
- KIM I 16252 Single Board Computer 178.95
- KIM I Power Supply 99.95
- KIM Memory Plus (consists of 8K Ram, 8K2716 Eprom, Programmer, I/O etc.) 245.00
- KIM SOFTWARE
 - Press package (cassette) 12 games 18.95
 - Help Editor package (cassette) 16.95
 - Help Mailing List pkg. (cassette) 16.95
 - Help Intro Referral pkg. (cassette) 16.95
 - Microass (cassette) 16.95
 - Microass Assembly/Disassembly Editor 27.95
 - Microass Source Listing (cassette) 27.95
 - Tiny Basic for KIM (paper tape) 10.95

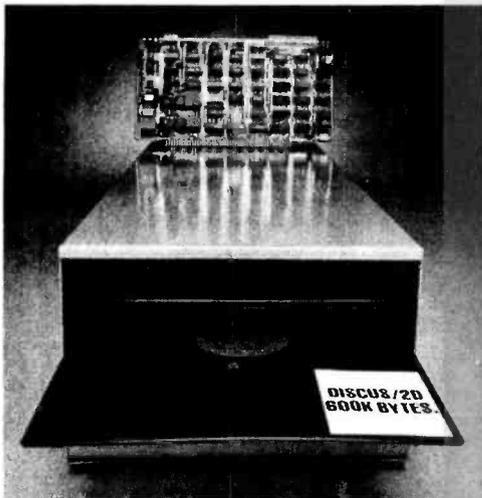
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- HP/Int Digiziter 795.00
- Endy w/32K 1395.00
- Endy w/128K 1195.00
- Compucenter II w/16K 1895.00
- TEI P2128 (1 w/all) 4995.00
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- Centronics P-1 455.00
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- | | |
|--------------------------------------|------------|
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| CM7202 20 Pin Decade Counter |17.95 |
| ICM7203 Octal Counter |8.95 |
| ICM7045 Precision Shift/Match 12 bit |22.95 |
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| ICL8211 Voltage Reference |1.95 |
| LM330 Battery Op. Audio Amp |3/100 |
| LM1850 Fixed Divider |3/100 |
| LM1850 Ground | |

S-100 Single and Double Density Disk System



DISCUS 2D is a full-size, single and double density floppy disk system capable of storing up to 600 K bytes of data on each side of an 8 inch disk. This disk is formatted to be compatible with

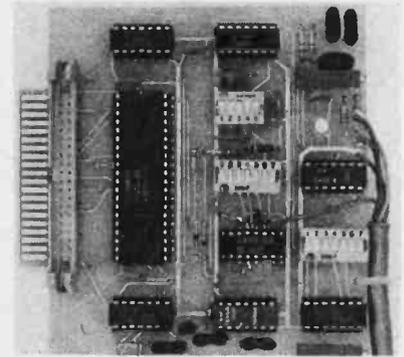
the IBM System 34. Like the original single density DISCUS I, DISCUS 2D comes fully assembled with a controller board and a Shugart SA800R full-size drive mounted in a cabinet with a power supply.

The S-100 controller board utilizes the Western Digital 1791 dual density controller device and also has power on jump circuitry, 1 K bytes of programmable memory, 1 K bytes of read only memory with built-in monitor, and a hardware universal asynchronous receiver-transmitter with a data rate generator to simplify I/O (input/output) interfacing. It is capable of handling up to four drives.

Software includes BASIC-V virtual disk BASIC, DOS and Disk/ATE assembler and editor. Extra cost optional software, including CP/M Microsoft Extended Disk BASIC and FORTRAN, is available. The price is \$1149 for the completely assembled single and double density system, and \$795 for each additional drive. For further information, contact Thinker Toys, 1201 10th St, Berkeley CA 94710.

Circle 585 on inquiry card.

TRS-80 Serial Input/Output Board



This board is RS-232 compatible and can be used with or without the expansion bus. There are on-board switch selectable data rates of 110, 150, 300, 600, 1200 and 2400 bps; parity odd, even, or null; 5 to 8 data bits and 1 or 2 stop bits. It has a data terminal ready line. The board alone sells for \$19.95 (with parts \$59.95). Assembled, it is \$79.95. Contact Electronic Systems, POB 21638, San Jose CA 95151.

Circle 587 on inquiry card.

Light Pen Complements Apple II Computer

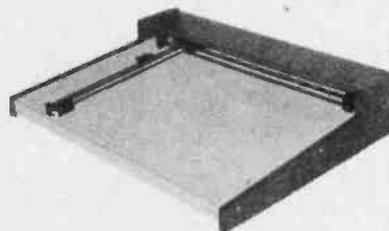


Symtec Inc, POB 462, Farmington MI 48024 has announced a low cost light pen for microcomputer use. The Symtec light pen is supplied complete with Interface and provides an X, Y coordinate number to the bus when the pen is activated by a touch sensitive switch or from software control. The pen can provide up to 255 Y values and 511 X values and is software dividable to fit any screen size.

The Apple version of the light pen can resolve a single high resolution point and can be used with all of the Apple graphics features and text. This version is provided with a demonstration cassette written in integer BASIC for easy modification by the user if desired and allows use of the pen in the user's own programs. A complete listing of the light pen routine and suggested uses is included in the applications manual. The light pen is priced at \$249.95.

Circle 586 on inquiry card.

X,Y Plotter Unit from Sylvan Hills Laboratory



This X, Y plotter includes a plotter, drawing surface, electronics, and power supply completely assembled and ready for interface to any 8 bit transistor-transistor logic parallel port. The pen holder accepts any writing instrument or stylus 7 to 11 mm in diameter, encoded for 0.01 inches per pulse (0.005 inch optional). The maximum pen travel speed is 2.5 inches per second with a 24 V supply. A basic 8080

software program is included in the owner's manual. Applications include architectural, mechanical, and schematic drawing; printed circuit board artwork; positioning of small objects; computer generated art; games; and others.

The plot driver software is available as ASCII source files on paper tape and CP/M small disk formats. TEI and Cromemco small disk formats are also available. Both the BASIC and assembler source are provided, and contain comments which guide the user in making source modifications.

Unit-1 with an 11 by 17 inch drawing area is \$1,049; Unit-2 with a 17 by 22 inch drawing area is \$1,249. The plotters are also available in kit form with console and power supply priced separately. The owner's manual can be purchased for \$5. For further information, contact Sylvan Hills Laboratory Inc, POB 646, Pittsburg KS 66762.

Circle 588 on inquiry card.

TRS-80 Expandable Interface



Microtronix has introduced an expandable interface for the Radio Shack TRS-80. The basic interface unit uses

low power Schottky circuitry, the standard Radio Shack 40 pin bus, and provides the following features: two joysticks for games, screen editing and educational instruction; stereo sound using two RCA 1863 programmable integrated circuits; parallel printer interface. At an introductory price of \$129.95, the interface may be ordered with a \$29.95 optional real time clock. Joysticks and music may be controlled directly from the user's BASIC program, using the INP and OUT commands. For further information, contact Microtronix, POB Q, Philadelphia PA 19105.

Circle 589 on inquiry card.

a PERCOM SAMPLER



For your SS-50 bus computer — the CIS-30+

- Interface to data terminal and two cassette recorders with a unit only 1/10 the size of SWTP's AC-30.
- Select 30, 60, or 120 bytes per second cassette interfacing, 300, 600 or 1200 baud data terminal interfacing.
- Optional mod kits make CIS-30+ work with any microcomputer. (For MITS 680b, ask for Tech Memo TM-CIS-30+—09.)
- KC-Standard/Bi-Phase-M (double frequency) cassette data encoding. Dependable self-clocking operation.
- Ordinary functions may be accomplished with 6800 Mikbug™ monitor.
- Prices: Kit, \$79.95; Assembled, \$99.95.

Prices include a comprehensive instruction manual. Also available: Test Cassette, Remote Control Kit (for program control of recorders), IC Socket Kit, MITS 680b mod documentation, Universal Adaptor Kit (converts CIS-30+ for use with any computer).
MIKBUG® Motorola, Inc.

In the Product Development Queue . . .

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6809 Processor Card — With this SS-50 bus PC board, you'll be able to upgrade with the microprocessor that Motorola designers describe as the "best 8-bit machine so far made by humans."

The Electric Crayon™ — This color graphics system includes its own μ P and interfaces to virtually any microcomputer with a parallel I/O port.

Printer Interface — For your TRS-80™. Interface any serial RS232 printer to your TRS-80™ with this system.

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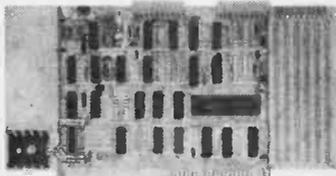
TRS-80 is a trademark of Tandy Corporation and Radio Shack which has no relationship to Percom Data Company.

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For your data storage — Pilon-30™ and Pilon-10™ data cassettes

- Orders-of-magnitude improvement in data integrity over ordinary audio cassettes.
- Pilon-coated pressure pad eliminates lint-producing felt pad of standard audio cassettes.
- Smooth pylon coating minimizes erratic tape motion.
- Foam pad spring is energy absorbing. Superior to leaf spring mounted pad which tends to oscillate and cause flutter.
- Five-screw case design virtually precludes deformation during assembly.
- Price: \$2.49.



For your S-100 computer — the CI-812

- Both cassette and data terminal interfacing on one S-100 bus PC board.
- Interfaces two recorders. Record and playback circuits are independent.
- Select 30, 60, 120, or 240 bytes per second cassette interfacing, 110 to 9600 baud data terminal interfacing.
- KC-Standard/Bi-Phase-M (double frequency) encoded cassette data. Dependable self-clocking operation.
- Optional firmware (2708 EPROM) Operating System available.
- Prices: kit, \$99.95; assembled, \$129.95.

Prices include a comprehensive instruction manual. In addition to the EPROM Operating System, a Test Cassette, Remote Control Kit (for program control of recorders), and an IC Socket Kit are also available.

CASSETTE SOFTWARE

For 8080/Z-80 μ Cs . . .

BASIC ETC — Developed by the co-authors of the original Tiny BASIC, BASIC ETC is easy to use yet includes commands and functions required for powerful business and scientific programs as well as for hobby applications. 9.5K bytes of RAM. 1200-baud cassette and 42-page user's manual . . . \$35.00

Cassette Operating System — EPROM (2708) COS for the Percom CI-812 dual peripheral interfacing PC card . . . \$39.95

If you're programming on a 6800 μ C, you'll want these development and debugging programs written by Ed Smith of the Software Works:

Disassembler/Source Generator — Disassembles SWTP Resident Assembler, TSC Mnemonic Assembler/Text Editor or Smoke Signal Mnemonic Assembler/Text Editor and produces compacted source code suitable for re-editing. Prints or displays full assembly-type output listing. 4K bytes of RAM. (Order M68SG) . . . \$25.00

Disassembler/Trace — Use to examine (or examine and execute) any area of RAM or ROM. "Software-single-step" through any program, change the contents of CPU or memory location at any time, trace subroutines to any depth. 2.3K bytes of RAM. (Order M68DT) . . . \$20.00

Support Relocator Program — Supplied on EPROM, this program relocates a program in any contiguous area of RAM or ROM to anywhere in RAM. Use to assemble and test programs in RAM, adjust programs for EPROM operating addresses and then block move to your EPROM burner address. 952 bytes of RAM. Loads at hex 1000. (Order M68EP) . . . \$20.00

Relocating Assembler & Linking Loader (M68AS) . . . \$50.00

Relocating Disassembler & Segmented Source Text Generator (M68RS) \$35.00

Americana Plus — 14 tunes for the Newtech Model 68 Music Board in machine language ready to load and run. Cassette compatible with Percom CIS-30+ and SWTP AC-30. Order MC-1SW . . . \$15.95

HARDWARE

Newtech Model 68 Music Board — Produces melodies, rhythms, sound effects, morse code, etc. from your programs. Includes manual with BASIC for writing music scores and assembly language routine to play them. Installs in SWTP I/O slot. Assembled & tested . . . \$59.95

The Percom ELECTRIC WINDOW™ — Memory-resident and programmable, this video display character generator board for your SS-50 bus displays up to 24 80-character lines. Features dual character generators, dual-intensity high-lighting. One programmable register controls scrolling. Compatible with standard video monitors . . . \$249.95

SS-50 Prototype Cards:
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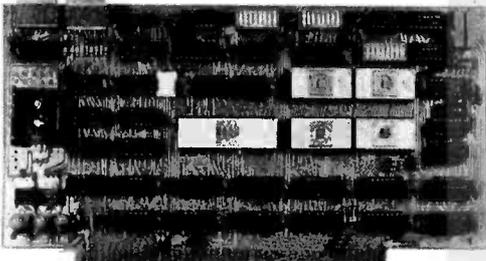
To order products or request additional literature, call Percom's toll-free number: 1-800-527-1592. For detail technical information call (214) 272-3421.

Computer Terminals Directory

A user-oriented directory of computer terminals has been published by the Association of Time-Sharing Users (ATSU). This guide contains photographs and full page information about each of 120 terminals. In addition to the latest pricing information, the directory lists each terminal's lease costs (when available), the number that have been installed, and information about whom to contact at each supplier. The *Computer Terminals Directory* is available for \$45 in bound form. It is available as part of a membership in ATSU for \$85, in loose leaf form, as it is part of the Association's three volume *Interactive Computing Directories*. Orders for the Directory or for Association membership should be sent to ATSU, POB 9003, Boulder CO 80301.

Circle 593 on Inquiry card.

The Slavemaster 2650 Multiprocessor System



The Slavemaster 2650 S-100 bus multiprocessor system is based on the Signetics 2650 microprocessor. The system is composed of two identical S-100 cards interconnected by one ribbon cable. One is identified as the slave and the other the master. The only functional difference is that the master has the ability to reset, reset-jump, or stop the slave.

Both processors operate at full speed with fetch and execute cycles interleaved in such a way that precise single processor timing is maintained. Once synchronized, there is no interaction between the two processors. Communication between the two processors is through a common data base in the S-100 memory.

Some of the features of the Slavemaster card include Kansas City cassette interface, RS-232/20 mA serial I/O (input/output), keyboard interrupt on serial input, real time clock interrupt, power fail interrupt, eight vectored interrupts decoded on board, 4 K byte 2708 erasable read only memory sockets with dual-in-line package switches to select reset and power-on jump address. The kit is priced at \$198 per board. For further information, contact Victoria Micro Digital, 401 Dundee St, Victoria TX 77901.

Circle 594 on inquiry card.

Western Digital System Speeds Up Pascal

A set of integrated circuits which directly executes the object code from a Pascal compiler has been developed by Western Digital Corp, 3128 Red Hill Av, POB 2180, Newport Beach CA 92663.

The 16 bit processor, which forms the basis of the Pascal Microengine product line, executes Pascal programs at least five times faster than conventional system software. The system uses the version of Pascal which was developed at the University of California at San Diego (UCSD). The UCSD Pascal software system includes a complete operating system with the Pascal compiler, BASIC compiler, file manager, screen-oriented editor, debugging program, and graphics package; all written in the Pascal language.

The four integrated circuits are the following LSI metal-oxide semiconductor components:

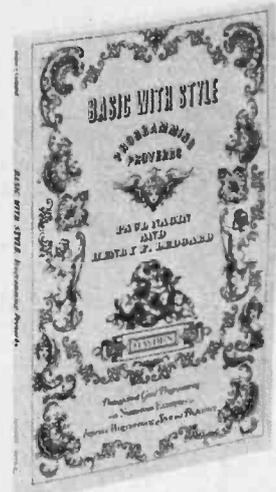
- an arithmetic device containing arithmetic and logic unit, microinstruction decoding, and the register file;
- a microsequencer device containing macroinstruction decoding, portions of the control circuitry, microinstruction counters, and I/O (input/output) control logic;
- two MICROM devices containing the microinstruction read only memories and microdiagnostics.

Direct execution of the p-code (pseudo-code) produced by the Pascal compiler eliminates the previously required host operating system and p-code interpreter.

Additional features of the Microengine system include user-defined bus configuration, four levels of interrupts, single and multibyte instructions, hardware floating point operations, stack architecture, a 3.0 MHz 4 phase clock (75 ns per phase) and a transistor-transistor logic compatible three-state interface.

Circle 595 on Inquiry card.

BASIC With Style



BASIC With Style by Paul Nagin and Henry Ledgard is intended for BASIC programmers who want to write carefully constructed, readable programs. This 134 page book offers short rules and guidelines for writing more accurate, error free programs. These simple elements of style enable the programmer to focus creativity on the deeper issues in programming.

Chapter 1 is an overview. Chapter 2 is a collection of simple rules, called proverbs. The proverbs summarize the major ideas of the book in terse form. Chapter 3 is an introduction to a strict, top-down approach for programming problems in any programming language. The approach is oriented toward the easy writing of complete, correct, readable programs. Chapter 4 gives a set of strict program standards for writing programs, and Chapter 5 elaborates on several important and sometimes controversial ideas discussed in the chapter on programming proverbs.

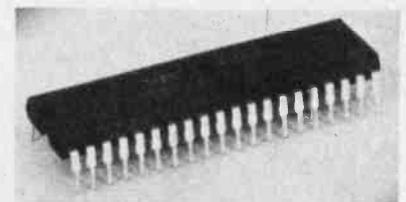
The cost of the book is \$5.95. It is available from Hayden Book Co Inc, 50 Essex St, Rochelle Park NJ 07662.

Circle 596 on inquiry card.

Stand-Alone Microprocessors

Three stand-alone microprocessors, the μ PD8048, μ PD8748, and μ PD8035, have been announced by NEC Microcomputers Inc, 173 Worcester St, Wellesley MA 02181. The μ PD8048 contains the following features normally found in external support devices: 1025 by 8 bits of read only memory; 64 by 8 bits of programmable data memory; 27 I/O (input/output) lines; 8 bit interval timer and event counter; and oscillator and clock circuitry.

The μ PD8748 (available late 1979) differs from the μ PD8048 only in the use of an 1024 by 8 bit ultraviolet erasable read only memory for its program



memory, while the μ PD8035 is scheduled for applications using external program memory. The functional power of the units can be expanded using standard 8080A/8085A peripherals and memory products. The microprocessors are available in a standard 40 pin, plastic or ceramic dual-in-line package.

Circle 597 on inquiry card.



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Connects easily to most popular computers including TRS-80. 3 basic ASCII compatible interface configurations are provided. 80 columns, 112 cps. 84 lines per min, bi directional printing. Out-of-paper detector, uses standard low-cost papers. 96 character set, 9x7 dot mat-

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get the eighth of
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21L02-450	1.00
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A true static ram board designed for the S-100 bus. Bank switching capability, addressable in 4K blocks. FR-4 silk screened PC board with solder mask on both sides! The lowest price TRUE static ram board in its class.

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- True static operation
- Requires only +5 volts
- 450 ns
- Fully buffered

Bareboard \$27.00

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WIRE WRAP & SOLDERTAIL PROTOTYPING BOARDS

your choice \$27

All S-100 signals labeled on-board. All circuitry uncommitted except for 4 multiple regulator pads. High density hole configuration, over 3600 holes. On-board ground bus.

Double sided, plated thru FR-4 PC board. Accepts 14, 16, 18, 24, 28, 40 pin IC's.

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TRS-80 LEVEL III BASIC \$42

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• Single density
• IBM Compatible
\$40 box of 10

Cat No.	Type
1145	32 sector holes.
1146	1 index hole IBM 32, 3740, 3540, 3770, 3790

SHUGART SA-400 MINIFLOPPY DRIVE \$295

Hard and soft sectoring, single density, 35 tracks. Requires power supply. Cat No. 1154

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Character oriented word processing system. Produce mailing lists, business forms, large numbers of original correspondence, camera ready copy for printing...all on your TRS-80. No carriage returns or hyphenations, line formatting is done by the Electric Pencil! Also features right margin justifying, page numbering,

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Everything you need! Installs in minutes, no special tools, no soldering! 250 new. Cat No. 1156

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1041	STAR TREK II	14.95
1036	SCI FI GAME SAMPLER, V/II	5.95
1042	TAROT I/II	5.95
1179	CRIBBAGE I/II	9.95
1192	REAL TIME LUNAR LANDER II	7.95
1195	BRIDGE CHALLENGER II	14.95
1186	AIR RAID I/II	14.95
1187	PILOT I/II	14.95
1047	OTHELLO I/II	5.95
1043	SMALL BUSINESS BOOKKEEPING I/II	14.95
1051	DAILY BIO RHYTHM PROGRAM I/II	5.95
1049	MICRO TEXT EDITOR I/II	9.95
1038	INVENTORY MODULAR I/II	19.95
1153	EDIT-80, text editor II (32K)	39.95

S-100 COMPUTER BOARDS

1601	CCS/M-XVI	16K STATIC RAM MODULE KIT	\$285
1602		as above, a&t	
1603		as above, bareboard	
1500	HUH/S-100	MPA kit	
1503	MH	PROPROM, 8K EPROM BOARD	\$214
1504		6834 EPROMS for above	\$ 10
1505	MH	100,000 OAY CLOCK, a&t	\$219
1506	MH	INTROL, 64 chan remote control a&t	\$329
1507	WMC/QM1	12 SLOT MOTHERBOARD	\$ 39
1508		as above, with connectors	\$ 80
1509	WMC/MEM1	8K STATIC RAM BOARD	\$ 28
1510		parts only for above	\$ 80
1403	SSM/CB1	8080A CPU BOARD KIT	\$134
1408	SSM/SB1	MUSIC SYNTHESIZER KIT	\$ 145
1411	SSM/IO4	2 PARALLEL + 2 SERIAL PORTS KITS	\$139
1414	SSM/IO2	IO UNIVERSAL BOARD KIT	\$ 48
1417	SSM/VB1B	VIDEO INTERFACE KIT	\$129
1425	SSM/MB3	2/4K EPROM BOARD KIT	\$ 54
1420	SSM/MB4	2 MHz STATIC RAM KIT	\$ 89
1427	SSM	ALTAIR IMSAI EXTENDER BOARD	\$ 10
1428		connector for above	\$ 4
1429	SSM/OB1	VECTOR JUMP & PROTOTYPING CARO KIT	\$ 47

CCS = California Computer Systems
WMC = Wameco
IA = Ithaca Audio
SSM = Solid State Music
SDS = SD Systems
SPL = Speechlab
HUH = HUH Electronics
MH = Mountain Hardware
a&t = assembled & tested

1432	SSM/MT1	15 SLOT MOTHERBOARD	\$ 39
1433	SSM/MB8A	16K (2708) EPROM BOARD KIT	\$ 88
1436	SSM/MB9	4K STATIC PROM/RAM BOARD KIT	\$ 64
1438	SSM/VB2	VIDEO BOARD KIT	\$139
1511	IA	2708/2716 EPROM BAREBOARD	\$ 28
1512	IA	Z80 CPU BAREBOARD	\$ 32
1513	IA	8K STATIC RAM BAREBOARD	\$ 28
1514	IA	5-100 WIREWRAP BOARD	\$ 28
1600	CCS	S-100 WIREWRAP BOARD	\$ 29
1516	SOS	VERSALOPPY KIT	\$159
1517-0S0S		EXPANDORAM KIT	\$185
1517-16		as above, with 16K RAM	\$249
1517-32		as above, with 32K RAM	\$330
1517-48		as above, with 48K RAM	\$425
1517-64		as above, with 64K RAM	\$500
1165	NEWTECH	MUSIC BOARD a&t	\$ 57
1518	SPL	32 WORD SPEECHLAB a&t	\$189
1520	SPL	64 WORD SPEECHLAB a&t	\$299
1222	uSOUNDER	SOUND EFFECTS BOARD a&t	\$149

VERBATIM 5 1/4" DISKETTES \$27 box of 10

Cat No.	Type	Use
1147	Soft sector	TRS-80, Apple
1148	Hard, 10 hole	North Star
1149	Hard, 16 hole	Micropolis

SEND FOR FREE SPRING CATALOG FEATURING:

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Pay by check, COD, Visa, or Mastercharge. Order by phone or mail. Please include phone no. USA add \$1.50 for shipping/handling, or \$2.50 for air. Foreign add \$2.00 for surface, \$5.00 for air. COO's add 85c. All items guaranteed satisfaction for 120 days!

19355 BUSINESS CTR DR 686 NORTHRIDGE, CA 91324

7400 TTL

SN7400N	21	SN7410N	29	SN74160N	89
SN7401N	16	SN7411N	35	SN74161N	89
SN7402N	18	SN7412N	35	SN74162N	89
SN7403N	18	SN7413N	35	SN74163N	89
SN7404N	18	SN7414N	35	SN74164N	89
SN7405N	20	SN7415N	35	SN74165N	89
SN7406N	29	SN7416N	35	SN74166N	89
SN7407N	29	SN7417N	35	SN74167N	89
SN7408N	29	SN7418N	35	SN74168N	89
SN7409N	20	SN7419N	35	SN74169N	89
SN7410N	18	SN7420N	35	SN74170N	89
SN7411N	25	SN7421N	35	SN74171N	89
SN7412N	25	SN7422N	35	SN74172N	89
SN7413N	40	SN7423N	35	SN74173N	89
SN7414N	20	SN7424N	35	SN74174N	89
SN7415N	25	SN7425N	35	SN74175N	89
SN7416N	35	SN7426N	35	SN74176N	89
SN7417N	25	SN7427N	35	SN74177N	89
SN7418N	25	SN7428N	35	SN74178N	89
SN7419N	25	SN7429N	35	SN74179N	89
SN7420N	29	SN7430N	35	SN74180N	89
SN7421N	29	SN7431N	35	SN74181N	89
SN7422N	29	SN7432N	35	SN74182N	89
SN7423N	39	SN7433N	35	SN74183N	89
SN7424N	39	SN7434N	35	SN74184N	89
SN7425N	39	SN7435N	35	SN74185N	89
SN7426N	39	SN7436N	35	SN74186N	89
SN7427N	39	SN7437N	35	SN74187N	89
SN7428N	39	SN7438N	35	SN74188N	89
SN7429N	39	SN7439N	35	SN74189N	89
SN7430N	39	SN7440N	35	SN74190N	89
SN7431N	39	SN7441N	35	SN74191N	89
SN7432N	39	SN7442N	35	SN74192N	89
SN7433N	39	SN7443N	35	SN74193N	89
SN7434N	39	SN7444N	35	SN74194N	89
SN7435N	39	SN7445N	35	SN74195N	89
SN7436N	39	SN7446N	35	SN74196N	89
SN7437N	39	SN7447N	35	SN74197N	89
SN7438N	39	SN7448N	35	SN74198N	89
SN7439N	39	SN7449N	35	SN74199N	89
SN7440N	39	SN7450N	35	SN74200N	89

EXCITING NEW KITS!

Regulated Power Supply 5 to 15 VDC

• Full 1.5 amp at 5-10V output - Up to .5 amp at 15V output
• Heavy duty transformer
• 3 terminal I.C. Volt. Reg.
• Heat sink provided for cooling efficiency
• PC Board construction
• 120 VAC input
• Size: 3 1/4" x 5" x 2 1/4"

Digital Thermometer Kit

• Dual sensors - switching control for indoor/outdoor or dual monitoring
• Continuous LED "8" display
• Range: -40°F to 199°F / -40°C to 100°C
• Accuracy: ±1° nominal
• Set for Fahrenheit or Celsius reading
• Slim, wiring harness or well adapter incl.
• Size: 3 1/4" x 6 3/8" x 1 3/8" D

TELEPHONE/KEYBOARD CHIPS

AY-5-0100	Push Button Telephone Dialer	\$14.95
AY-5-0200	Rotary Telephone Dialer	14.95
AY-5-9500	CMOS Clock Generator	4.95
AY-5-9376	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 Strobe/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 8 X 7 ASCII Symbled with Greek	13.50
MCM6574	128 X 8 X 7 Math Symbols & Pictures	13.50
MCM6575	128 X 8 X 7 Alphabetic Control Character Generator	13.50

C/MOS

CD4000	23	CD4070	55
CD4001	23	CD4071	23
CD4002	23	CD4072	49
CD4006	1.19	CD4079	1.19
CD4007	2.25	CD4082	2.25
CD4009	.49	CD4083	2.25
CD4010	.49	CD4084	2.25
CD4011	.23	CD4085	2.25
CD4012	.23	CD4086	2.25
CD4013	.23	CD4087	2.25
CD4014	.23	CD4088	2.25
CD4015	1.19	CD4089	2.25
CD4016	.49	CD4090	2.25
CD4017	.49	CD4091	2.25
CD4018	.49	CD4092	2.25
CD4019	.49	CD4093	2.25
CD4020	.49	CD4094	2.25
CD4021	1.19	CD4095	2.25
CD4022	1.19	CD4096	2.25
CD4023	.23	CD4097	2.25
CD4024	.23	CD4098	2.25
CD4025	.23	CD4099	2.25
CD4026	2.25	CD4100	2.25
CD4027	.65	CD4101	2.25

JE210 5 to 15 VDC \$19.95 JE300 \$39.95

DISCRETE LEDs

XC556A	red	5/81	125° dia.	5/81	
XC556B	green	4/81	XC209R	red	4/81
XC556C	yellow	4/81	XC209G	green	4/81
XC556D	clear	4/81	XC209Y	yellow	4/81

TIME-X T1001 LIQUID CRYSTAL DISPLAY

THREE DIGIT DISPLAYS
4 DIGIT - 5 1/2" CHARACTERS
100° X 120° PACKAGE
INCLUDES CONNECTOR
T1001-Transmissive \$7.95
T1001-Reflective \$8.25

MISCELLANEOUS

TL074CN	Quad Low Noise Bi-Fet Op Amp	2.49
TL494CN	Switching Regulator	4.49
TL496CP	Single Transistor Regulator	1.75
AY-5-0100	Divide 10:1 Prescaler	14.95
95H90	Hi-Speed Divide 10:1 Prescaler	11.95
4N33	Photo-Darlington Opto-Isolator	3.95
MM50240	Top Offset Free Generator	17.50
DS0026CH	5MHz 2 Phase MDS clock driver	17.50
TTL1208	27' red num. display w/imp. logic chip	10.50
MM5320	TV Camera Sync. Generator	14.95
MM5330	4 1/2 Digit DPM Logic Block (Special)	3.95
LD110/111	3 1/2 Digit A/D Converter Set	25.00/set

LITROMIX ISO-LIT 1

Photo Transistor Opto-Isolator
(Same as MCT 2 or 4N25)
2/99¢

SN 78477 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

74C00

74C00	39	74C163	2.49
74C02	39	74C164	2.49
74C04	39	74C171	2.50
74C08	49	74C192	2.49
74C10	39	74C193	2.49
74C14	1.95	74C195	2.49
74C20	39	74C202	2.49
74C24	39	74C203	2.49
74C28	39	74C204	2.49
74C32	39	74C205	2.49
74C36	39	74C206	2.49
74C40	2.49	74C207	2.49
74C44	2.49	74C208	2.49
74C48	2.49	74C209	2.49
74C52	2.49	74C210	2.49
74C56	2.49	74C211	2.49
74C60	2.49	74C212	2.49

LINEAR

LM300A	1.75	LM710N	79
LM106H	99	LM711N	39
LM300B	75	LM723M	2.50
LM300CN	35	LM733M	1.00
LM302H	75	LM739N	1.19
LM303A	1.00	LM741N	1.19
LM303CN	80	LM741-14N	39
LM303CNH	1.00	LM747M	79
LM308M	1.00	LM748M	39
LM309	1.10	LM749M	2.95
LM309K	1.25	LM750M	2.95
LM310CN	1.15	MC1488N	1.00
LM311N	90	MC1489N	1.39
LM312N	1.95	LM1496N	89
LM317K	6.40	LM1558N	1.75
LM318CN	1.50	MC1741SCP	3.00
LM319	1.30	LM211N	1.95
LM320K-5	1.35	LM2901N	2.95
LM320K-12	1.35	LM2903N	1.50
LM320K-15	1.35	LM3055M	4.49
LM320N-10	1.35	NE510A	0.00
LM320N-15	1.35	NE520A	4.95
LM320N-20	1.35	NE531M	3.95
LM320T-5	1.25	NE532M	6.00
LM320T-12	1.25	NE540	0.00
LM320T-15	1.25	NE544N	4.95
LM320T-20	1.25	NE550N	1.30
LM320T-25	1.25	NE555V	39
LM320T-30	1.25	NE555V	39
LM320T-35	1.25	NE560N	5.00
LM320T-40	1.25	NE561B	5.00
LM320T-45	1.25	NE562B	5.00
LM320T-50	1.25	NE563M	1.25
LM320T-55	1.25	NE565CN	89
LM320T-60	1.25	NE570M	99
LM320T-65	1.25	NE577M	99
LM320T-70	1.25	NE579M	99
LM320T-75	1.25	NE580M	99
LM320T-80	1.25	NE581M	99
LM320T-85	1.25	NE582M	99
LM320T-90	1.25	NE583M	99
LM320T-95	1.25	NE584M	99
LM320T-100	1.25	NE585M	99
LM320T-105	1.25	NE586M	99
LM320T-110	1.25	NE587M	99
LM320T-115	1.25	NE588M	99
LM320T-120	1.25	NE589M	99
LM320T-125	1.25	NE590M	99
LM320T-130	1.25	NE591M	99
LM320T-135	1.25	NE592M	99
LM320T-140	1.25	NE593M	99
LM320T-145	1.25	NE594M	99
LM320T-150	1.25	NE595M	99
LM320T-155	1.25	NE596M	99
LM320T-160	1.25	NE597M	99
LM320T-165	1.25	NE598M	99
LM320T-170	1.25	NE599M	99
LM320T-175	1.25	NE600M	99
LM320T-180	1.25	NE601M	99
LM320T-185	1.25	NE602M	99
LM320T-190	1.25	NE603M	99
LM320T-195	1.25	NE604M	99
LM320T-200	1.25	NE605M	99

DISPLAY LEDs

MAN 1	Common Anode-red	270	2.95	MAN 230	Common Anode-red ± 1	560	99
MAN 2	5 x 7 Dot Matrix-red	300	4.95	MAN 670	Common Cathode-red-D.D.	560	99
MAN 3	Common Cathode-red	125	25	MAN 675	Common Cathode-red ± 1	560	99
MAN 4	Common Cathode-red	187	1.95	MAN 676	Common Cathode-red	560	99
MAN 5	Common Cathode-green	300	1.25	MAN 678	Common Cathode-red	560	99
MAN 6	Common Cathode-yellow	300	99	DL121	Common Cathode-red ± 1	300	99
MAN 7	Common Cathode-orange	300	99	DL122	Common Cathode-red	300	99
MAN 8	Common Cathode-red	300	99	DL123	Common Cathode-red	300	99
MAN 9	Common Cathode-red	300	99	DL124	Common Cathode-red	300	99
MAN 10	Common Cathode-red	300	99	DL125	Common Cathode-red	300	99
MAN 11	Common Cathode-red	300	99	DL126	Common Cathode-red	300	99
MAN 12	Common Cathode-red	300	99	DL127	Common Cathode-red	300	99
MAN 13	Common Cathode-red	300	99	DL128	Common Cathode-red	300	99
MAN 14	Common Cathode-red	300	99	DL129	Common Cathode-red	300	99
MAN 15	Common Cathode-red	300	99	DL130	Common Cathode-red	300	99
MAN 16	Common Cathode-red	300	99	DL131	Common Cathode-red	300	99
MAN 17	Common Cathode-red	300	99	DL132	Common Cathode-red	300	99
MAN 18	Common Cathode-red	300	99	DL133	Common Cathode-red	300	99
MAN 19	Common Cathode-red	300	99	DL134	Common Cathode-red	300	99
MAN 20	Common Cathode-red	300	99	DL135	Common Cathode-red	300	99
MAN 21	Common Cathode-red	300	99	DL136	Common Cathode-red	300	99
MAN 22	Common Cathode-red	300	99	DL137	Common Cathode-red	300	99
MAN 23	Common Cathode-red	300	99	DL138	Common Cathode-red	300	99
MAN 24	Common Cathode-red	300	99	DL139	Common Cathode-red	300	99
MAN 25	Common Cathode-red	300	99	DL140	Common Cathode-red	300	99
MAN 26	Common Cathode-red	300	99	DL141	Common Cathode-red	300	99
MAN 27	Common Cathode-red	300	99	DL142	Common Cathode-red	300	99
MAN 28	Common Cathode-red	300	99	DL143	Common Cathode-red	300	99
MAN 29	Common Cathode-red	300	99	DL144	Common Cathode-red	300	99
MAN 30	Common Cathode-red	300	99	DL145	Common Cathode-red	300	99
MAN 31	Common Cathode-red	300	99	DL146	Common Cathode-red	300	99
MAN 32	Common Cathode-red	300	99	DL147	Common Cathode-red	300	99
MAN 33	Common Cathode-red	300	99	DL148	Common Cathode-red	300	99
MAN 34	Common Cathode-red	300	99	DL149	Common Cathode-red	300	99
MAN 35	Common Cathode-red	300	99	DL150	Common Cathode-red	300	99
MAN 36	Common Cathode-red	300	99	DL151	Common Cathode-red	300	99
MAN 37	Common Cathode-red	300	99	DL152	Common Cathode-red	300	99
MAN 38	Common Cathode-red	300	99	DL153	Common Cathode-red	300	99
MAN 39	Common Cathode-red	300	99	DL154	Common Cathode-red	300	99
MAN 40	Common Cathode-red	300	99	DL155	Common Cathode-red	300	99
MAN 41	Common Cathode-red	300	99	DL156	Common Cathode-red	300	99
MAN 42	Common Cathode-red	300	99	DL157	Common Cathode-red	300	99
MAN 43	Common Cathode-red	300	99	DL158	Common Cathode-red	300	99
MAN 44	Common Cathode-red	300	99	DL159	Common Cathode-red	300	99
MAN 45	Common Cathode-red	300	9				

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: 3 3/4" x 5 1/4" x 2 1/4". "C" cell battery not included.

Trans-Check \$29.95 ea.

Custom Cables & Jumpers



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 Rear-Out	— Backstruck Contacts —	Part 254 to .070 P.C. Clearance
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

Solar Cells

2x2cm

- 0.4 volts
 - 100mA
 - 41 MW
- Can be added in series for higher voltage or parallel for higher current.
- #SC 2x2 \$1.95 ea. or 3/\$5.00

the 3rd Hand

MAKES CIRCUIT ASSEMBLY A BREEZE!
Lets you work with both hands. **\$9.95 ea.**
Sturdy Aluminum Construction.



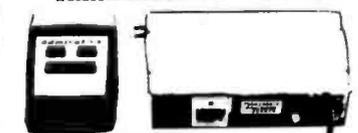
- Clamp "3rd Hand" on edge of bench, table or workboard. Insert circuit board, position components.
- Flip circuit board to flat position for soldering and clipping.

- Bright 300 ht. comm. cathode display
- Uses MM5214 clock chip
- Switches for hours, minutes and hold modes
- Hrs. easily viewable to 20 ft.
- Simulated walnut case
- 115 V AC operation
- 12 or 24 hr. operation
- Incl. all components, case & wall transformer
- Size: 6" x 3-1/8" x 1 3/4"

JE701

6-Digit Clock Kit \$19.95

REMOTE CONTROL TRANSMITTER & RECEIVER



\$19.98

INSTRUMENT/CLOCK CASE

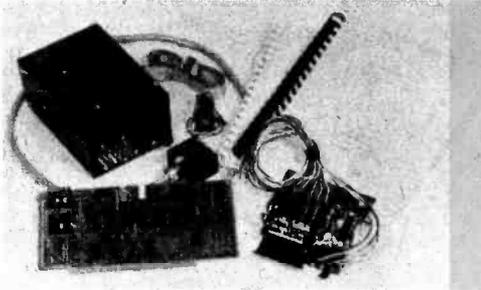
This case is an injection molded unit that is ideal for uses such as DVM, COUNTER, or CLOCK cases. It has dimensions of 4 1/2" in length by 4" in width by 1-9/16" in height. It comes complete with a red bezel.

PART NO: IN-CC \$3.49 each

MICROPROCESSOR COMPONENTS

8080A/8085A SUPPORT DEVICES			MICROPROCESSOR MANUALS		
8080A	CPU	\$ 9.95	M-280	User Manual	\$7.50
8212	8-Bit Input/Output	3.25	M-CDP1802	User Manual	7.50
8214	Priority Interrupt Control	4.95	M-2650	User Manual	5.00
8216	B-Directional Bus Driver	3.49			
8224	Clock Generator/Driver	3.95			
8226	Bus Driver	3.49	2513(2140)	Character Generator(upper case)	9.95
8228	System Controller/Bus Driver	5.95	2513(3021)	Character Generator(lower case)	9.95
8238	System Controller	5.95	2516	Character Generator	10.95
8251	Prog. Comm. I/O (USART)	7.95	MM5230M	2048-Bit Read-Only Memory	1.95
8253	Prog. Interval Timer	14.95			
8255	Prog. Periph. I/O (PPH)	9.95			
8257	Prog. Data Control	19.95	1101	256x1 Static	\$1.49
8259	Prog. Interrupt Control	19.95	1103	1024x1 Dynamic	3.95
			2101(8101)	256x4 Static	3.95
			2102	1024x1 Static	1.75
			2103	1024x1 Static	3.95
			2111(11111)	256x4 Static	1.95
			2112	256x4 Static MOS	4.95
			2114	1024x4 Static 450ms	9.95
			2114L	1024x4 Static 450ms low power	10.95
			2114-3	1024x4 Static 300ms	11.95
			2114-3	1024x4 Static 300ms low power	10.95
			2115	256x4 Static	2.95
			2580/2107	4096x1 Dynamic	4.95
			7489	16x4 Static	1.75
			7491	16x4 Static	1.75
			7492	16x4 Static Tristate	4.95
			7493	256x1 Static	2.95
			7494	256x1 Static	4.95
			7495	256x1 Static	4.95
			7496	256x1 Static	4.95
			7497	256x1 Static	4.95
			7498	256x1 Static	4.95
			7499	256x1 Static	4.95
			7500	256x1 Static	4.95
			7501	256x1 Static	4.95
			7502	256x1 Static	4.95
			7503	256x1 Static	4.95
			7504	256x1 Static	4.95
			7505	256x1 Static	4.95
			7506	256x1 Static	4.95
			7507	256x1 Static	4.95
			7508	256x1 Static	4.95
			7509	256x1 Static	4.95
			7510	256x1 Static	4.95
			7511	256x1 Static	4.95
			7512	256x1 Static	4.95
			7513	256x1 Static	4.95
			7514	256x1 Static	4.95
			7515	256x1 Static	4.95
			7516	256x1 Static	4.95
			7517	256x1 Static	4.95
			7518	256x1 Static	4.95
			7519	256x1 Static	4.95
			7520	256x1 Static	4.95
			7521	256x1 Static	4.95
			7522	256x1 Static	4.95
			7523	256x1 Static	4.95
			7524	256x1 Static	4.95
			7525	256x1 Static	4.95
			7526	256x1 Static	4.95
			7527	256x1 Static	4.95
			7528	256x1 Static	4.95
			7529	256x1 Static	4.95
			7530	256x1 Static	4.95
			7531	256x1 Static	4.95
			7532	256x1 Static	4.95
			7533	256x1 Static	4.95
			7534	256x1 Static	4.95
			7535	256x1 Static	4.95
			7536	256x1 Static	4.95
			7537	256x1 Static	4.95
			7538	256x1 Static	4.95
			7539	256x1 Static	4.95
			7540	256x1 Static	4.95
			7541	256x1 Static	4.95
			7542	256x1 Static	4.95
			7543	256x1 Static	4.95
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Universal Interface Converts IBM Selectric Typewriters



This universal interface unit has been designed for IBM Selectric typewriter conversions. The unit will interface to any RS-232, IEEE-488 or parallel port. A microprocessor is included on the circuit board for data flow control, formatting and character set selection. Installation on the Selectric is easy and does not affect normal typewriter operation. For those who do not want to convert their own typewriter, the company provides factory installation service. Selectric typewriters with conversion systems installed in accordance with factory instructions are still eligible for IBM warranty and service provisions. For further information, contact ESCON Products Inc, 171 Mayhew Way, Suite 204, Pleasant Hill CA 94596.

Circle 581 on inquiry card.

Printerm Model 879 Micro/Mini Printer



The Model 879 Micro/Mini printer is a high speed bidirectional printer which prints 120 characters per second at 75 lines per minute. It has a 9 by 7 or 9 by 9 high density matrix format, and provides up to four copies. The Model 879 has an ASCII 96 character set (upper case, lower case and triple wide expanded) and is operator switch selectable for an 80 or 132 column format. This RS-232 and parallel interface printer is available with roll paper feed, combination pin form and roll feed, or tractor feed. It contains 2 K bytes of memory for full page video dump. The price is \$1395 for the standard model. For further information, contact Printer Terminals Corp, POB 535, Ramona CA 92065.

Circle 582 on inquiry card.

Low Cost Modification to DECwriter Printer Adds Graphics

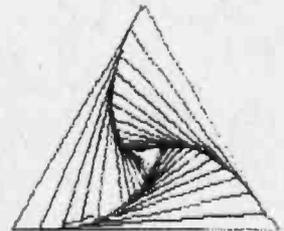
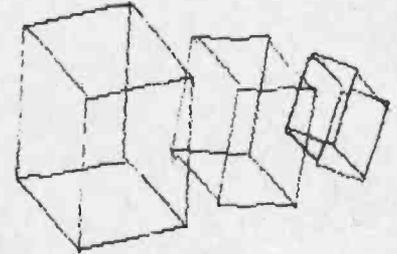
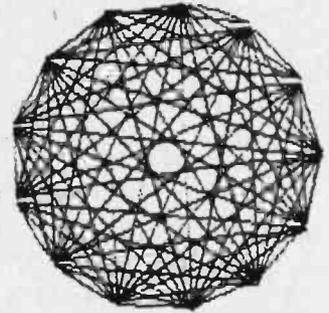
The Graphics II system is a low cost graphics modification for the Digital Equipment DECwriter II printer. It is available to upgrade existing printers, or can be factory installed with a new printer. The Graphics II system consists of a replacement circuit board for the DECwriter II and is plug compatible with internal cables for simple installation. The new circuit board uses the Fairchild F8 microprocessor.

The DECwriter is a dot-matrix printer, and the Graphics II allows printing of a dot anywhere on the page. Bidirectional line feed is introduced, and the Vector Graphics capability allows the printing of a line between any two points on the page by using ASCII characters to specify the end point coordinates. This means that graphics can be generated by using the printer keyboard.

ASCII and APL character sets are standard, and other character sets can be used. Characters can be printed in any of four rotational orientations, and printed normal size, heavy bold face, or expanded width. The printing of bar code is also available.

The average printer speed has been increased to 50 characters per second, and data may be transmitted in bursts of up to 1000 characters at 1200 bps. Other features included as standard are EIA RS-232, 20 mA current loop and TTL interfaces, auto linefeed, top of form, and horizontal and vertical tabs.

The Graphics II system is priced at



\$850 as a field installed circuit card. For further information, contact Selanar Corp, 3054 Lawrence Expressway, Santa Clara CA 95051.

Circle 584 on inquiry card.

High Density Video Programmable Memory Module

The MTX-2064 and MMD-2480 are new members of the Matrox video programmable memory family (VRAM) of TV video controllers. The family provides an interface between any microprocessor and a TV monitor. On the input side the VRAMs look like a 1280 or 4098 by 8 bit static programmable memory with an access time of 500 ns. The output of the MTX-2064 is a video signal providing a flicker free display of 20 lines by 64 upper and lower case characters. The MMD-2480 provides 24 lines of 80 characters and limited graphics capability. No external refresh or memory is required. Any character may be displayed normally, inversely or blinking.

The bus structure permits direct interfacing to most micro and mini-computers. Being part of memory, the full power of the processor instruction set is available for display manipulations. A universal phase lock loop module permits the MMD-2480 to be locked to an external sync source such as a TV camera. Another option



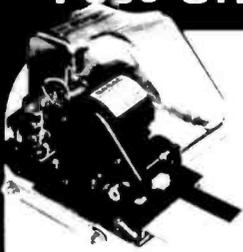
available for both models is a choice of American and European television standard field rates.

The units are completely self-contained and ready to use, including sync generator, programmable memory, read only memory and bus interface. They are housed in pin compatible 4.5 by 6 by 0.5 inch (11.43 by 15.24 by 1.27 cm) modules and draw under 800 mA from a single +5 V power supply. The MTX-2064 is priced at \$295 and the MMD-2480 is \$395. For further information, contact Matrox Electronic Systems Ltd, 2795 Bates Rd, Montreal, Quebec CANADA H3S 1B5.

Circle 583 on inquiry card.

CALIFORNIA DIGITAL

Post Office Box 3097 B • Torrance, California 90503



Sankyo Magnetic Card Reader

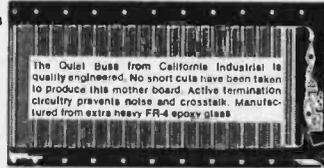
\$59

These Sankyo I/O units are capable of storing and retrieving over 400 characters of data in under two seconds. The flexibility 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

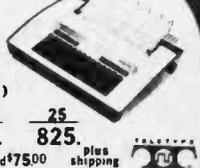
\$2995
8803-18
18 slot
MSAI



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 \$7500 plus shipping

HEXADECIMAL KEYBOARD

Mini-Switch hexadecimal keyboards are designed for microcomputer systems that require 4-bit output in standard hex code.

\$34.95

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. (e. male hd.	10	25	50	100	500	1K
3.45	3.45	2.45	1.15	2.15	1.05	.95
2.85	2.85	1.90	.95	1.60	.85	.73
1.97	1.97	1.37	.73			

Edge Connectors

GOLD 100 PIN MSAI/ALTAIR

msai solder 125x.250	\$3.95	3/6 9.00
msai w/w.125centers	\$4.95	3/613.00
Altair solder tail .140 row	\$5.95	3/615.00

SPECIALS

22/44 Kim socket .156"	\$1.95	3/65.00
25/50 solder tab .156"	\$1.09	3/62.00
36/72 wide post w/w .156"	\$1.95	3/65.00

\$24.88
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. Conforms with documentation

Apple Owners: TEN KEY Data Entry Pad \$79.50

Plugs directly into your 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 \$1024

COLOR • GRAPHICS • SOUND
PLUS SHIPPING \$1195

TEN \$41 for 50+385

Scotch CASSETTES

Certified Digital
Won't drop a BIT!

DISKETTES \$5.50

- 8inch Soft (IBM)
- 8inch 32 sector
- Mini Soft sec.
- Mini 10 sector
- Mini 16 sector

CALIFORNIA INDUSTRIAL is an Authorized Dealer of Scotch Brand Data Products

Shugart Associates
SA800-R Floppy Disk Drive \$449.50

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.

CALIFORNIA DIGITAL
16 BIT 8086 S-100 CPU Board \$650.00

Directly addresses one megabyte. 8 bit unidirectional & 16 bit bidirectional. 4K of static memory is supplied on board.

DigiCast A/V-100 R.F. MODULATOR \$299.50

Broadcast both audio and video on your existing color television. Recommended for the Apple II.

MEMORY
TRS-80 \$65
APPLE II 16k memory (8) 4116's

As you may be aware, publishers require advertisers to submit their ad copy 60 to 90 days prior to "press" date. That much lead time in a volatile market place, such as memory circuits, makes it extremely difficult to project future cost and availability. 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 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 4MHz.	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
IMS 9900 16 bits	49.95	WD 1791 D/D	37.40

EPROMS

1702A	2K	4.95	4.50	4.00
2708	8K	9.95	9.50	9.00
2716 3v	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 strap
- Full Documentation

Digital Cassette Drive COMPUTER CONTROLLED \$79.50

BACK IN STOCK

This precision I/O assembly features remote software controlled search capabilities. Two independent capstan drive motors allow the computer to control direction and speed of the transport. The assembly consists of a Raymond cassette transport, chassis, motherboard and three edge cards: read/write, capstan drive & control card. Current replacement valued at over \$700.00. Schematics and complete documentation included. USED, but in excellent condition.

MINIATURE SWITCHES

your choice

10	50	100 1k
\$.98	\$ 8.81	\$ 81.73 66

SPDT Miniature Toggles

7101 C&K	ON-NONE-ON
7107 J&I	ON-OFF (mnt. ON)
7108 C&K	ON-(moment. ON)
Rocket 1BT	DPST
Rotary	3P-4-Pos.
Rotary	3P-6-Pos.
Push B (M.O.)	\$.39ea. 4/\$1

DIP Switch

10	25	100 1k
\$1.49	\$1.29	\$1.15 .97 .83

specify 4 or 6 pos.

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

SOFT. **KYNAR WIRE WRAP \$98**

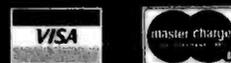
500	1,000	11,000
\$9.	\$15.	\$105.

\$2995 BW 630

OR HOBBY WRAP-30 wire wrap & strip tool \$545

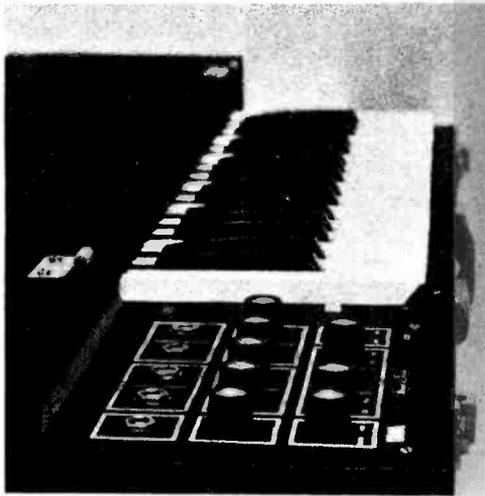
(213)679-9001

All merchandise sold by California Digital is premium grade. Sorry, no COD'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.



Circle 39 on inquiry card.

Polytonic Keyboard System Generates Orchestral Textures



The 1550 Stringz-n-Thingz kit is a polytonic keyboard system from PAIA Electronics, 1020 W Wilshire Blvd, Oklahoma City OK 73116. This multi-purpose instrument is capable of generating orchestral textures consisting of violin, cello, and piano voicings. A separate output also provides piano only, to allow separate processing, amplification, or mixing of the two types of voices. A full complement of operator controls allows switch selectable keyboard split, separate mixers for upper and lower keyboard, variable vibrato and chorusing rate and depth controls to allow reed organ and pipe organ voicings, and variable sustain controls for piano and strings.

A standard gate trigger jack allows the 1550 to be interfaced to any of the commercial synthesizers which feature systems interfacing jacks. This allows capabilities for brass synthesis,

filtered strings, and other polytonic synthesizer effects.

Optional features include foot pedals for volume or sustain time control, foot switches for sustain control, and the 1551 stereo option to convert the mono string output to a true stereo output with two switch selectable modes of stereo operation. Other options include a processor interface to allow memorization of string or piano parts for later reproduction at any tempo and key desired. Also, the processor interface will allow the 1550 keyboard to simultaneously control a modular polyphonic synthesizer system.

The complete Stringz-n-Thingz kit including 84 page, step-by-step assembly and operation manual is available for \$295.

Circle 604 on inquiry card.

Energy Monitor Saves Money

The Energy Monitor is an electronic device with a built-in microcomputer that budgets energy use on a daily basis and converts kW usage to visual dollars and cents. The amount of energy used is continually and automatically displayed in dollar amounts on a lighted digital display. Set a budget, and if usage exceeds the desired budgeted amount, a warning flashes. At the end of the billing period the Energy Monitor automatically resets to zero and starts a new month's computation. In addition to the savings on utility bills, consumers are entitled, under the Energy Tax Bill, to receive an investment tax credit for the purchase of this energy-saving tool.

Installation is simple and inexpensive. A lighted panel displays eight functions: current dollar cost for energy used, projected amount of next bill, amount of last bill, billing date, chosen energy

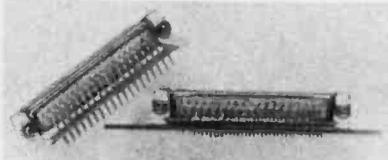


budget, cost per kW hour, date and time of day.

The unit retails for \$295. For further information, contact Dupont Energy Management Corp, 3301 Conflans, Suite 102, Irving TX 75061.

Circle 605 on inquiry card.

Right Angle PC Mount Original D Connectors



An expanded range of right angle, printed circuit mount original D type subminiature connectors has been introduced by Souriau Inc, 7740 Lemona Av, Van Nuys CA 91405. The 831 series has been updated to include a fixed contact strap and a nonmetallic, fully insulated plastic mounting bracket and a new Underwriters Laboratory 94-VO rated thermoplastic insulator with a temperature range of -55°C to $+105^{\circ}\text{C}$ (-67°F to 221°F). The 831 series modifications are available in all layouts from 9, 15, 25, 37 to 50 pin and may be used with units from competitive manufacturers.

A comprehensive 12 page catalog detailing subminiature D, original D, D*M, and Norman/D connectors and accessories is available free upon request.

Circle 606 on inquiry card.

Computer Desk for Cromemco Computers



Cromemco is offering a new computer desk for the System Three and other Cromemco computers. The desk is styled and constructed to fit into any office surroundings or professional environment. The computer is mounted into a special shelf under the desk. This leaves the top free for a terminal, printer, or other unit, or as a work surface, while still providing the operator easy access to the computer for disk loading and unloading. The desk-top is an attractive beige color designed to harmonize with the medium light wood veneer ends. The top surface is a tough, laminated plastic.

The Computer Desk (Model Z3-MDSK) is available for \$695. For additional information, contact Cromemco Inc, 280 Bernardo Av, Mountain View CA 94043.

Circle 607 on inquiry card.

Standard Reference Alignment Cassette

Magnetic Information Systems has announced the introduction of an alignment reference metal cassette for use in the calibrating of digital and word processing equipment. This cassette is pre-recorded at 1600 flux changes per inch (FCI) on an optical alignment recorder which employs precision magnetic heads. The magnetic tape is especially made for the digital reference tape application. These cassettes are priced at \$12.50 and are available in several special configurations. For further information, contact Magnetic Information Systems Inc, 415 Howe Av, Shelton CT 06484.

Circle 608 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
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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 Micro-engine.™ 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 Macro-assembler. 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
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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:

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P.O. Box 91
Ithaca, New York 14850
Phone: 607/257-0190

Personal Computer Software Packages



GRT Corporation's G/2 personal computer software group has introduced 15 program packages containing 26 different programs for education, family entertainment, personal development and household data management. The G/2 line is compatible with the Radio Shack TRS-80, Apple II, Exidy Sorcerer, Processor Technology SOL and Southwest Technical Products 6800 computers.

The first available G/2 System Software includes two BASIC programming language packages by Microsoft. The G/2 Standard BASIC for the Southwest Tech 6800 computer is faster than Southwest Tech's BASIC, and offers 6800 owners a significantly broader selection of application programs. The G/2 Extended BASIC for the Processor Technology SOL is totally compatible with SOL's operating system, and provides features not available in Processor Technology BASICs.

Every G/2 product is produced on a tape cassette and packaged in a sturdy hard cover book style box along with an instruction manual. The application programs include source listings. The price for the G/2 personal computer program packages is \$14.95; \$34.95 for the Southwest Technical Products Standard BASIC; \$49.95 for the SOL Extended BASIC. For further information, contact GRT Corp, 1286 Lawrence Station Rd, Sunnyvale CA 94086.

Circle 575 on inquiry card.

Time Series Analysis and Statistical Software Package for North Star

Potters Programs, 22444 Lakeland, St Clair Shores MI 48081 has announced a comprehensive time series analysis and statistical software package written in BASIC for the North Star floppy disk system. This package allows the user to load data into disk data files, edit the data, analyze it with a series of programs, and output the data in various convenient formats.

The analysis programs include a fast Fourier transform, auto correlation, cross correlation, distribution function, probability function, negative peak, positive peak, average, root mean squared, and various statistical and correlation calculations. The data can be recorded on disk from manual input or from analog to digital converters. It can be scanned and edited to remove obvious noise, and any part of the file can be analyzed by any of the methods. This package is available on North Star disk for \$120.

Circle 576 on inquiry card.

Learn PET BASIC

PET BASIC Compleat consists of twenty lessons of PET BASIC, including all the major BASIC keywords, cursor control, screen editing, and use of the graphic characters. This two cassette tutorial is especially designed for beginning Commodore PET users. The 170 page manual which accompanies the cassettes is indexed for quick reference, three hole punched for easy review, and reproduces all data appearing on the screen (except PET's graphics). Quizzes and exercises add to the fun of learning how to use and program the Commodore PET. The package is priced at \$39.95. For further information, contact ARESCO, POB 43, Audubon PA 19407.

Circle 577 on inquiry card.

Accounting Programs for Small Computers

The *Standard Software Library* is a series of books containing listings or programs written in BASIC with complete documentation. Each volume in the series is devoted to a single application.

The first three volumes deal with accounting programs for small computers. Volume 1 (General Ledger) enables a small business to set up a fully automated general ledger system with a complete chart of accounts. Included are programs for editing, sorting, merging and posting of transactions. A trial balance report is available in either summary or detail at the user's option. Income statement and balance sheet reports may be obtained at the close of each accounting period with

Software for the PET and TRS-80

Speakeasy Software has announced the availability of consumer oriented software for the PET and TRS-80, in addition to the Apple versions. The titles fall into two categories: the Continuing Education Series, which includes financial analysis and transactional analysis; and the Home Entertainment Series with Warlords, Bulls and Bears, Sports-trivia, Microtrivia, and Kidstuff. For further information, contact Speakeasy Software Ltd, POB 1220, Kemptville, Ontario CANADA K0G 1J0.

Circle 578 on inquiry card.

Software and Hardware for Jolt and TIM Owners

Three new products have been announced by The 6502 Program Exchange, 2920 Moana, Reno NV 89509. The JAB (Jolt Adapter Board Kit) is a hardware device designed to interface the Jolt computer to the KIMSI S-100 interface. The \$19 JAB Kit includes a manual and all parts except the Jolt connectors.

A program called ERAC (Editor and Resident Assembler Controller) was developed for users of the read only memory version of the Jolt Resident Assembler. ERAC allows source text and object code to be placed in programmable memory. Residing in 2 K bytes, ERAC is an extension of the RAP. A paper tape is available for \$5 and the manual is \$4.50.

LEDIP (Line Editor Program) is a compact line oriented text editor that readily lends itself to modification or expansion. LEDIP will output source text suitable for usage with the programmable read only memory version of the Jolt Resident Assembler. The paper tape is \$2.75, the manual is priced at \$3.25 and the cross assembly is \$5.

Circle 579 on inquiry card.

both current and year-to-date totals and percentages. Volume 2 (Accounts Receivable) provides a fully automated system for dealing with customer accounts. Volume 3 (Payroll) enables a business to automate all of the normal payroll functions.

All of the programs are written in a level of BASIC which is common to almost all current microprocessors and minicomputers. The modular nature of the programs and the accompanying documentation make it easy to revise the program to meet special user requirements. The price of the Standard Software Library is \$49.95. For further information, contact Creative Computer Consultants Inc, POB 2111, Norwalk CT 06852.

Circle 580 on inquiry card.

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AS \$595**

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Commodore PET Service Kit	\$30.00
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Combo - Petunia and Video Buffer	\$49.95
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Betsi 4-slot S-100 Motherboard	\$160.00
S-100 PET Interface was \$289.00	SALE! \$99.00

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32K - Keyboard C	\$1195
32K - Keyboard B	\$1195
32K - Keyboard N	\$1195

C — calculator keyboard (only version with tape deck)
B — large business keyboard without graphics symbols
N — large keyboard with graphics symbols

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16K Expansion \$299

apple II

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SPECIAL OF THE MONTH

NEW PET TERMINAL OPTION

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- Get a PET & a terminal in one
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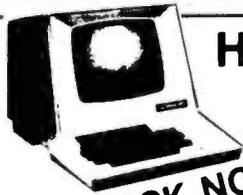
For those of you who already have a PET, you may order an NCE PET Terminal option separately for \$69.

50% OFF CENTRONICS PRINTERS

Refurbished, excellent working condition. 90 day warranty, 10 day return privilege of course. While they last.

Model	Specifications	Centronics List	NCE Price
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CENTRONICS 701	Same as 700, bidirectional	1,815	1,045
CENTRONICS 703	Bidirectional, 180 cps, 132 col, 64 7 x 7 chars tractor feed	2,805	1,695
CENTRONICS 779	60-100 cps, 80-132 col, 64 5 x 7, chars	1,250	625
CENTRONICS 780	60 cps, 80 col, 64 5 x 7 chars	1,905	1,095
CENTRONICS 781	Bidirectional, 60 cps, 80 col, 64 5 x 7 chars tractor feed	1,980	1,125
CENTRONICS 761-1 (KSR)	Keyboard send/receive, bidirectional 60 cps, 132 columns, 64 7 x 7 chars tractor feed, 110-300/1200 baud	1,850	1,025
CENTRONICS 761-5 (RO)	Same as 761-1, receive only	1,750	945
CENTRONICS 101	185 cps, 132 col, 64 5 x 7 chars tractor feed	NCE Reg. Price \$1,500	1,125

Operator's Manual Included. For Technical Manual, add \$15.00



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This is a completely refurbished Teletype KSR-33 terminal ready to attach to your PET's interface to use as a printer.

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List \$279.95 **\$189.95**

S-100 MPA

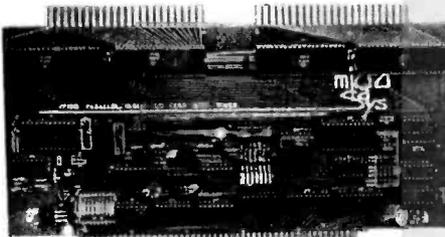
S-100 MPA gives your PET complete control of the S-100 bus (even DMA). Get an assembled unit at kit price.

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SEND FOR FREE TERMINAL FLYER

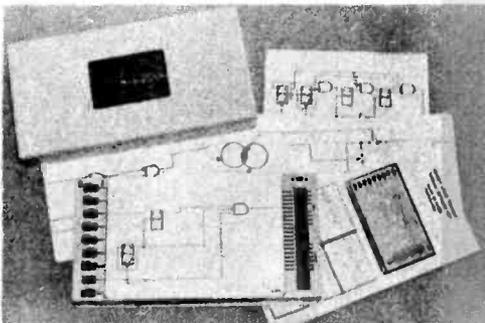
Parallel/Serial I/O Card with Modem



The 8P2SM Parallel/Serial I/O (input/output) card with modem is the latest product from MicroDaSys, POB 36051, Los Angeles CA 90036. It combines eight parallel ports (including full handshaking) with two serial input and output ports. It also enables the user to configure one set of serial ports for full RS-232 operation, and the other as a full duplex answer or originate modem. A complete documentation package is included with the board. The price is \$149 in kit form and \$199 completely assembled and tested.

Circle 598 on inquiry card.

Self-Pace Logic Trainer



The Model 100 Broder Logic Trainer trains students without previous electronic background for digital electronic related assignments. It improves and grades the ability of the user. The Model 100 includes all gates, flip flops, positive and negative edge triggered devices, master-slave clocking, preset and clear functions. Switch circuit and Venn diagram problems as well as BCD and binary counting modes are included.

Physical logic state manipulation and the visual display make for fast and retained learning. In operation, the user manipulates component logic states using the eight logic switches. Solving a problem requires logic switch manipulation to force a logic 1 at the problem card output, which will turn on the designated bar indicator. A manual, 40 digital problems, and a 9 V battery cell are included. The Model 100 requires no wire or integrated circuit manipulation. It is priced at \$69.95 and is available from L J Broder Enterprises Inc, 3192 Darvany Dr, Dallas TX 75220.

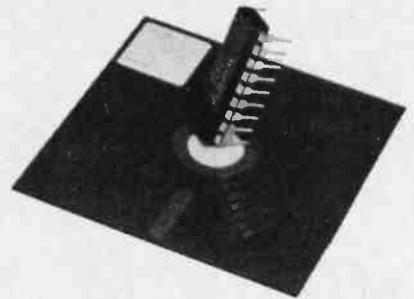
Circle 599 on inquiry card.

Floppy Disk Read Amplifier System From Motorola

Motorola has introduced its MC3470 Floppy Disk Read Amplifier System. Combining both linear and digital functions on one integrated circuit, the MC3470 provides all signal processing from the read head through to the standard logic level digital output.

Contained in the circuit are the required gain stages, an active differentiator-comparator for peak detection and a time domain filter for wave shaping and elimination of false outputs. External connections for the required filter network, active differentiator and timing control components allow the system designer optimum flexibility in meeting overall system performance requirements.

This single monolithic device provides a standard TTL (transistor-transistor logic) digital output which is free



from amplitude and waveform variations present at the read head, with a guaranteed maximum unadjusted peak shift of 5.0%.

The MC3470 Floppy Disk Read Amplifier is available in an 18 pin dual-in-line package at the price of \$5.95 for quantities of 100 and up. For more information, contact Motorola Semiconductors, POB 20912, Phoenix AZ 85036.

Circle 600 on inquiry card.

Apple II Software

The MUSE Co, POB 13365, Baltimore MD 21203 has announced a complete line of software for the Apple II computer. A full feature text editor (\$17.95) allows management of free form text. Multiple space compression and tape I/O (input/output) are used for efficient file storage. U-Draw (\$17.95) is a high resolution programmable graphics editor with tape I/O for storing finished drawings. Documentation includes instructions for linking figures to user programs. The Elec-

tric Crayon (\$17.95) is a graphics editor similar to U-Draw but in low resolution color. The Music Box (\$12.95) gives three octaves of sound with no additional hardware. Type in a song, and the Music Box will play it for you. Notation includes sharps, flats, note time, rests, dotted notes and tempo. It can be retuned easily for special sound effects. The Number Cruncher (\$9.95) is a set of single precision math and ASCII to hexadecimal subroutines. Games which are priced at \$12.95 each are also available.

Circle 601 on inquiry card.

DC Motor Speed Control In a Dual-In-Line Package

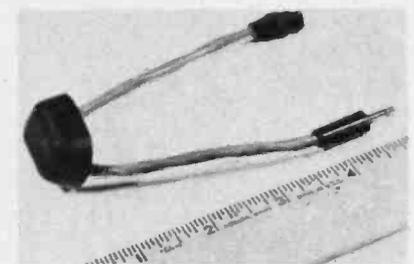
This monolithic integrated circuit DC motor speed control, housed in a 14 pin, low profile plastic dual-in-line package, is available from Cherry Semiconductor Corp, 3600 Sunset Av, Waukegan IL 60085. Designated the CS-175, the motor speed control is designed to provide maximum flexibility at a low cost. Requirements for adjustment and external components in multiple speed applications have been reduced by giving accurate, pin-programmable speed ratios for slow, medium, or fast motor velocities.

While many other applications are possible, the CS-175 is primarily intended for use with AC tachometer signals. The unit is capable of providing such stability that errors are dominated by terms created by the finite loop bandwidth made necessary to ensure stability with the dynamics of the specific motor and load.

The price for the CS-175 is \$1.68; \$.79 in 1,000 piece quantities; and \$.65 in 10,000 quantities.

Circle 602 on inquiry card.

New Module Solves TRS-80 Cassette Drive Hang-Up



The TBUFF module is a simple inexpensive nonrepair shop solution for TRS-80 cassette drive hang-up. The module simply plugs in series with the remote cable between the TRS-80 and the recorder. TBUFF reduces the current passed through the reed relay in the TRS-80. At the same time, TBUFF delivers full power to the recorder, thus maintaining proper tape speed and volume levels. TBUFF sells for \$7.95 (California residents add 6%). For further information, contact Web Associates, POB 60, Monrovia CA 91016.

Circle 603 on inquiry card.

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A PICTURE MAY BE TAKEN BY OUR CAMERA,
STORED IN A COMPUTER IN REAL TIME AND THEN
DISPLAYED ON A CRT AT AN AFFORDABLE PRICE

VIDEO COMPUTER PROCESSING SYSTEM



THIS REMARKABLE VP-1 COMPUTER/INTERFACE KIT HAS THE FOLLOWING:

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OUR VP1 VIDEO SYSTEM CONSISTS OF THE FOLLOWING KITS:

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THIS VIDEO COMPUTER KIT CAN WORK WITH THE GE, REDICON, OR ANY OTHER 128 x 128 SENSOR CAMERA

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POWER SYSTEMS # PS1111
115-230V 50/60 cy. in 5v DC at 35A out.
6" x 16 1/2" x 15 1/2" 26 lbs. shipping weight \$55.00

POWER SYSTEMS # PS1106
115-230V 50/60 cy. in 12v DC at 15A out.
5" x 16 1/2" x 5" 19 lbs. shipping weight. \$49.00
(OV PROTECT)

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4001	-18	4010	-37	4049	-45	74C23	-65
4002	-18	4020	-90	4050	-35	74C74	-45
4006	-95	4021	-90	4051	-85	74C86	-40
4007	-18	4022	-90	4053	-110	74C93	-75
4009	-37	4023	-18	4055	-70	74C151	140
4010	-37	4024	-75	4066	-70	74C160	105
4011	-18	4025	-18	4069	-45	74C161	105
4012	-18	4027	-37	4071	-18	74C174	105
4013	-29	4028	-80	4076	-97	74C175	105
4014	-75	4029	-95	4518	-95	74C192	120
4015	-75	4030	-33	4520	-70	74C193	120
4016	-70	4035	-97	74C00	-22	74C901	48
4017	-105	4042	-65	74C02	-22	74C902	48
4018	-90	4044	-65	74C10	-27	74C914	170

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MINIATURE MULTI-TURN TRIM POTS 100, 1K, 2K, 5K, 10K, 20K, 50K, 200K, 1Mter, 2Meg, \$.75 each 3/52.00

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CCO 201C 100x100 Image Sensor \$96.00
CCO 202C 100x100 Image Sensor \$145.00

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This board is a 1/16" single sided paper epoxy board, 4 1/2" x 6 1/2" DRILLED and ETCHED which will hold up to 21 single 14 pin IC's or 8, 16 or LSI DIP IC's with busses for power supply connector.

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LARGE LED'S, 2" 6/51.00
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MCT-6 OPTO ISOLATOR \$.80
1 WATT ZENERS: 3.3, 4.7, 5.1, 5.6, 9.1, 10, 12, 15, 18, or 22V \$6/51.00
MCM 6571A 7 x 9 character gen. \$10.75

UNIVERSAL 4Kx8 MEMORY BOARD KIT \$69.95
32-2102-1 fully buffered, 16 address lines, on board decoding for any 4 0164 pages, standard 44 pin buss, may be used with F-8 & K1M

Silicon Power Rectifiers

PRV	1A	3A	12A	50A	125A	240A
100	.06	.14	.35	.90	3.70	5.00
200	.07	.20	.40	1.30	4.25	6.50
400	.09	.25	.65	1.50	6.50	9.50
600	11	.30	.80	2.00	8.50	12.50
800	.15	.35	1.00	2.50	10.50	16.50
1000	20	.45	1.25	3.00	12.50	20.00

SAD 1024 a REDICON 1024 stage analog "Bucket Brigade" shift register. \$14.95

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1 of 25V ceramic cap 16/\$1.00, 95/00/100

RS232 DB 25P male \$2.95
CONNECTORS DB 25S female \$3.50
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REGULATORS

323K -5V 3A	\$.575	340K -12, 15	
309K	\$.110	or 24 V	\$.110
723	\$.50	340T -5, 6, 8, 12	
320T		15, 18, or 24V 5, 10	
5, 12, or 15 V		78 MG	\$1.35
	\$.110	79 MG	\$1.35

TRANSISTOR SPECIALS

2N5233 NPN SWITCHING POWER	\$ 1.95
MRF-8004 4 CB RF Transistor NPN	\$.75
2N3772 NPN Si TO-3	\$ 1.00
2N1546 PNP GE TO-3	\$.75
2N4908 PNP Si TO-3	\$ 1.00
2N5086 PNP Si TO-92	4 \$ 1.00
2N3137 NPN SI RF	\$.55
2N3919 NPN Si TO-3 RF	\$ 1.50
2N1420 NPN Si TO B	3/5 \$ 1.00
2N3767 NPN Si TO 66	\$.70
2N2222 NPN Si TO-18	5 \$ 1.00
2N3055 NPN Si TO-3	\$.60
2N3904 NPN Si TO-92	6/5 \$ 1.00
2N3906 PNP Si TO-92	6/5 \$ 1.00
2N5296 NPN Si TO-220	\$.50
2N6109 PNP Si TO-220	\$.55
2N3638 PNP Si TO-5	\$ 1.00
MPS4 13 NPN Si	4/5 \$ 1.00

TTL IC SERIES

7400	-15	7448	-68	74183	-61
7401	-19	7450	-18	74157	-55
7402	-15	7472	-70	74158	-65
7403	-18	7473	-78	74161	-95
7404	-18	7474	-78	74162	-80
7405	-18	7475	-46	74163	-95
7406	-22	7476	-30	74164	-85
7407	-24	7480	-31	74165	-95
7408	-18	7483	-85	74173	120
7409	-18	7485	-87	74174	-25
7410	-15	7488	-78	74175	-85
7411	-18	7489	-125	74176	-75
7412	-18	7490	-42	74177	-75
7413	-36	7491	-58	74180	-65
7414	-60	7492	-43	74181	100
7416	-22	7493	-43	74190	100
7417	-25	7494	-67	74191	-65
7420	-18	7495	-65	74192	-70
7425	-30	7496	-85	74193	-78
7426	-22	74107	-38	74194	-80
7427	-78	74121	-30	74195	-50
7430	-18	74122	-40	74196	-86
7432	-22	74123	-45	74197	-80
7437	-22	74125	-40	74198	-55
7438	-22	74126	-40	74199	-80
7440	-18	74145	-68	74206	-82
7441	-70	74148	-110	74232	120
7442	-48	74151	-100	74232	100
7445	-65	74151	-81	74225	100

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100			1.30
200	.75	1.25	2.00
400	.95	1.50	3.00
600	1.20	1.75	4.00

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8 PIN 1/4 24 PIN .35
14 PIN .20 28 PIN .40
16 PIN .22 40 PIN .60
18 PIN .25

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.47UF 35V 5/51.00	10UF 10V 5/51.00
.68UF 35V 5/51.00	22UF 25V 5/51.00
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2.2UF 20V 4/51.00	33UF 20V 5/51.00
4.7UF 15V 5/51.00	47UF 20V 5/51.00
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74LS SERIES

74LS00	-31	74LS138	-94	LM 101	-75
74LS02	-31	74LS139	-94	LM 301/74H	-25
74LS03	-31	74LS151	-94	LM 307	-30
74LS04	-34	74LS163	-88	LM 308	-75
74LS05	-34	74LS165	-92	LM 311	-75
74LS06	-34	74LS166	-92	LM 318	-120
74LS10	-31	74LS160	-121	LM 370	-160
74LS11	-31	74LS161	-121	LM 339	-110
74LS12	-30	74LS162	-121	LM 358	-70
74LS14	-108	74LS163	-121	LM 377	-115
74LS15	-31	74LS164	-121	LM 374	-160
74LS16	-31	74LS168	-142	LM 380	-95
74LS20	-31	74LS160	-142	LM 382	-125
74LS22	-31	74LS170	100	LM 386	-80
74LS26	-39	74LS172	100	LM 387	-175
74LS27	-39	74LS174	100	LM 537	-250
74LS28	-20	74LS175	100	LM 553	-260
74LS30	-31	74LS181	-207	LM 555	-45
74LS32	-33	74LS180	-148	LM 566	-80
74LS33	-33	74LS191	-148	LM 568	-110
74LS36	-37	74LS192	-119	NE540L	-275
74LS40	-31	74LS193	-148	NE540	-200
74LS42	-39	74LS195	-108	565	-25
74LS43	-34	74LS196	-108	566	-110
74LS44	-34	74LS197	-108	567	-110
74LS47	-47	74LS241	-337	567	-110
74LS48	-87	74LS252	-119	703	-90
74LS49	-87	74LS254	-119	723A	-75
74LS50	-31	74LS258	-119	723B	-75
74LS51	-34	74LS262	-108	709	-25
74LS52	-87	74LS264	-108	710	-35
74LS53	-87	74LS279	-94	711C	-40
74LS54	-87	74LS286	-84	741C v-7	-75
74LS55	-47	74LS293	-88	747	-50
74LS56	-47	74LS297	-81	LM 1310	-250
74LS57	-47	74LS304	-81	1456	-95
74LS58	-47	74LS308	-81	1458	-90
74LS59	-47	74LS315	-81	1468	-40
74LS60	-47	74LS316	-81	8030CC	-300
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PRV	1A	10A	25A	1.5A	6A	35A
100	.40	.70	1.30	.40	.50	1.20
200	.70	1.10	1.75	.80	.90	1.60
400	1.10	1.60	2.60	1.00	1.20	2.20
600	1.70	2.30	3.60	1.50	3.00	

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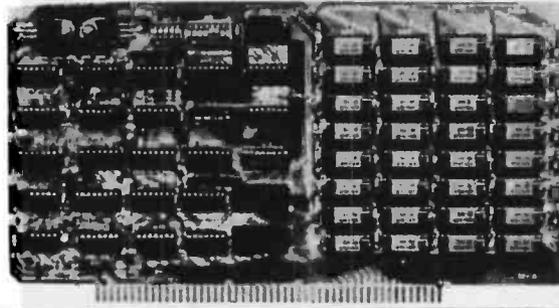
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- Bank Selectable
- Phantom
- Power 8VDC, ± 16VDC, 5 Watts
- Lowest Cost Per Bit
- Uses Popular 4116 RAMS
- PC Board is doubled solder masked and has silk-screen parts layout.

SD EXPANDORAM

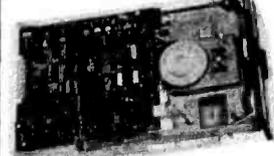
The Ultimate S-100 Memory



- Extensive documentation clearly written
- Complete Kit includes all Sockets for 64K
- Memory access time: 375ns, Cycle time: 500ns.
- No wait states required.
- 16K Boundries and Protection via Dip Switches
- Designed to work with Z-80, 8080, 8085 CPU's.

EXPANDO 64 KIT (4116)	
16K	\$245.00
32K	\$310.00
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Sugart SA400 5 1/4" with attractive metal case

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FEATURES: IBM 3740 Soft Sector Compatible, S-100 BUS Compatible for Z-80 or 8080. Controls up to 4 Drives (single or double sided). Directly controls the following drives:
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 4. MFE 700/750.
 5. CDC 9404/9408.
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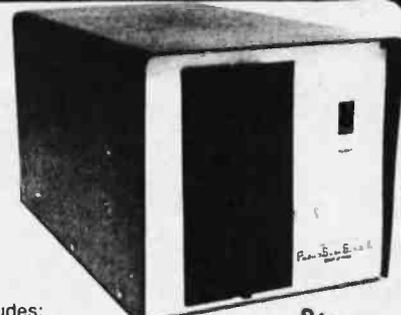
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DM2700S includes Siemens FD120-8" Disk Drive with the following features:

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 - Write Protect
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 - Sugart 800 Series Compatible
- Cabinet includes:
- 110V to 125V 60 Hz power supply
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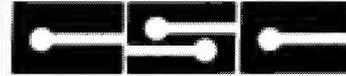
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CSC logic probes are the ultimate tool for breadboard design and testing. These hand-held units provide an instant overview of circuit conditions. Simple to use; just clip power leads to circuit's power supply, set logic family switch to TTL/DTL or CMOS/HTL. Touch probe to test node. Trace logic levels and pulses through digital circuits. Even stretch and latch for easy pulse detection. Instant recognition of high, low or invalid levels, open circuits and nodes. Simple, dual-level detector LEDs tell it quickly, correctly. HI (Logic "1"); LO (Logic "0"). Also incorporates blinking pulse detector, e.g., HI and LO LEDs blink on or off, tracking "1" or "0" states at square wave frequencies up to 1.5 MHz. Pulse LED blinks on for 1/2 second during pulse transition. Choice of three models to meet individual requirements; budget, project and speed of logic circuits.

MODEL LP-1

Hand-held logic probe provides instant reading of logic levels for TTL, DTL, HTL or CMOS. Input Impedance: 100,000 ohms. Minimum Detectable Pulse: 50 ns. Maximum Input Signal (Frequency): 10 MHz. Pulse Detector (LED): High speed train or single event. Pulse Memory: Pulse or level transition detected and stored.

CSC Model LP-1 Logic Probe—Net Each ~~\$49.95~~ \$42.70

Logic Probes and Digital Pulsers



MODEL LP-2

Economy version of Model LP-1. Safer than a voltmeter. More accurate than a scope. Input Impedance: 300,000 ohms. Minimum Detectable Pulse: 300 ns. Maximum Input Signal (Frequency): 1.5 MHz. Pulse Detector (LED): High speed train or single event. Pulse Memory: None.

CSC Model LP-2 Logic Probe—Net Each ~~\$39.95~~ \$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.

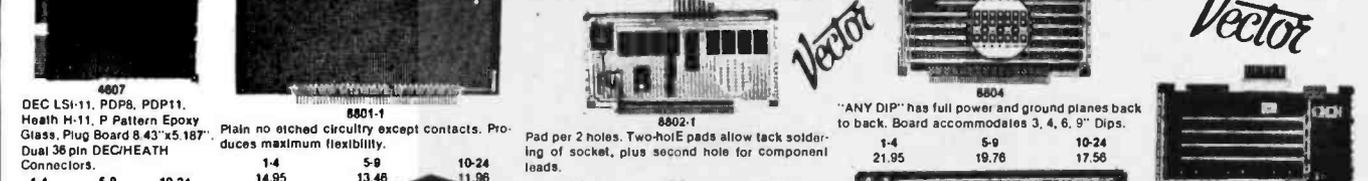
CSC Model LP-3 Logic Probe—Net Each ~~\$99.95~~ \$66.45

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 tab/field 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 ~~\$149.95~~ \$71.20

\$100 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
10.95	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 E 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

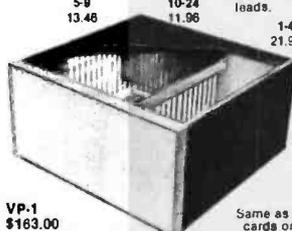
4608
Is form and size compatible with INTEL SBL80 Series and NATIONAL BLC 80 Series microcomputer boards. Power and Ground buses on both sides.

1-4	5-9	10-24
45.00	40.50	36.00

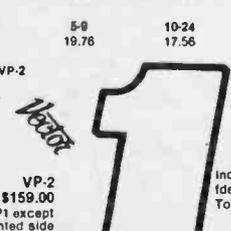
VECTOR-PAK ASSEMBLED MICROCOMPUTER CASES

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.



VP-1 \$163.00
Shipping Weight 25 lbs.

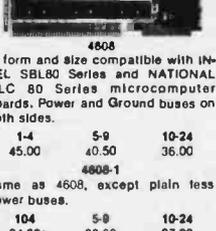


VP-2 \$159.00
Same as VP1 except cards oriented side to side.



8801
Individual tinned square pads surround most holes, ideal for mounting components by "tack soldering". Top of board pad free for mounting I/O connectors.

1-4	5-9	10-24
19.95	17.95	15.95



4608-1
Same as 4608, except plain less power buses.

1-4	5-9	10-24
34.00	30.60	27.20

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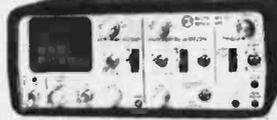
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 - Case size 2 7/8" H x 6 4/8" W x 7 8/16" D, 3 pounds.
 - Parts & Labor guaranteed 1 year
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 - Leather carrying case
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- Cord is super flexible 3 wire grounded; heat resistant.
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- Long life interchangeable tips, iron clad, chrome plated, pre-tinned.
- Designed for use on sensitive components.

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Temperature	Complete Station	Controlled Heater No.
500°F	501S	#76
700°F	501T	#77
800°F	501B	#78

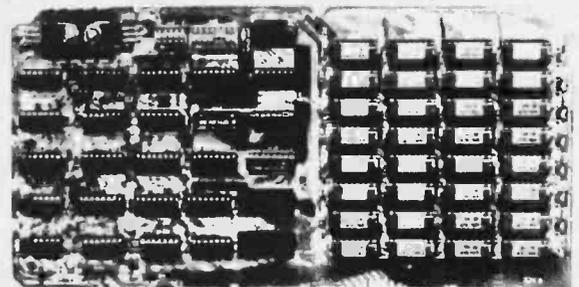
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The Ultimate S-100 Memory



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- Extensive documentation clearly written
- Complete Kit includes all Sockets for 64K
- Memory access time: 375ns, Cycle time: 500ns.
- No wait states required.
- 16K boundaries and Protection via Dip Switches
- Designed to work with Z-80, 8080, 8085 CPU's.

- Bank Selectable
- Phantom
- Power 8VDC, ± 16VDC, 5 Watts
- Lowest Cost Per Bit
- Uses Popular 4116 RAMS
- PC Board is doubled solder masked and has silk-screen parts layout.

EXPANDO 64 KIT (4116)

16K	\$245.00
32K	\$310.00
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64K	\$440.00

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8801-1 Same as 8800V except plain, less Power buses & heat sink

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1/16" BOARD
.042 dia holes on 0.1 spacing for IC's

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2708
8K 450 ns

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FACTORY PRIME
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D2250-1ST	Imsal P10, Intel Multibus	3.70 3.50 3.40
D2040-1SE	Imsal P10, Intel Multibus	3.50 3.30 3.10
D2040-1ST	Imsal P10, Intel Multibus	3.20 3.05 2.90
D2040-1SW	TRS-80	3.00 2.85 2.70
D2040-1WW	TRS-80	3.30 3.15 3.00
D3060-1WW	Intel Multibus	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
D3672-2WW	Vector 4350	1.4 5-9 10-24
D4000-2WW	S-100, Imsal, Vector, Cromenco, Motherboards	5.25 5.00 4.75
S100-WWG	S-100 Wire Wrap	5.95 5.65 5.35
S100-ALT	All	3.50 3.25 3.00
		4.00 3.75 3.40
		4.50 4.25 4.00

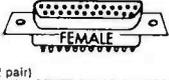
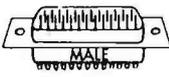
.156 Contact Centers Connectors

PART NO.	TYPICAL APPLICATION	PRICE
D8X-5SE	Pei. NSC CLK Modules	1.4 1.30 1.20
D812-5SE	Pei. NSC CLK Modules	1.60 1.50 1.40
D1224-5SE	Pei	2.40 2.30 2.20
D2224-5ST	Pei	2.30 2.20 2.10
D1530-5ST	Vector Plugboards, GRI Keybrds	2.50 2.40 2.30
D1530-5SW	Vector Plugboards, GRI Keybrds	2.40 2.25 2.05
D1530-5WW	Vector Plugboards, GRI Keybrds	2.60 2.40 2.15
D1838-5SE	Vector, Kim, etc.	3.00 2.80 2.60
D2244-5SE	Vector, Kim, etc.	3.00 2.80 2.60
D2244-5ST	Vector, Kim, etc.	3.00 2.80 2.60
D2244-5SW	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
D3672-5SW	Vector Plugboards	5.60 5.40 5.10
DE4386-5SE	Mot 6800, Intel Multibus, NSC pacer	6.00 5.75 5.25
D4386-5ST	Mot 6800, Intel Multibus, NSC pacer	5.90 5.65 5.15
D4386-5SW	Mot 6800, Intel Multibus, NSC pacer	6.50 6.30 5.90
CG-1	Imsal Style Card Guides	\$1.00 or 100/10.00

RS232 & "D" TYPE CONNECTORS

P = Plug-Male S = Socket-Female C = Cover-Hood

PART NO.	DESCRIPTION	PRICE
DE-8P	9 Pin Male	1.4 1.30 1.20
DE-8S	9 Pin Female	1.50 1.40 1.30
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 2.85
DB51212-1	1 pc. Grey Hood	1.85 1.35 1.20
DB1228-1A	2 pc. Black Hood	1.30 1.00 0.90
DB110963-3	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 4.50
DD50S	50 Pin Female	6.50 6.00 5.75
DD50C	50 Pin Cover	2.50 2.30 2.20
D20416-S	Hardware Set (2 pair)	1.00 .80 .70



Amphenol 57-30360 for back of Centronics 700 Series printers 1-4-\$9.00 5 up-\$7.50

Part #	No. of Pins	PRICE	Part #	No. of Pins	PRICE
P08P02	8	.41 .36 .29	P22P02	22	.75 .67 .63
P14P02	14	.46 .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

Part #	No. of Pins	PRICE	Part #	No. of Pins	PRICE
8STG	8	.24 .21 .18	22STG	22	.70 .63 .57
14STG	14	.35 .32 .29	24STG	24	.70 .63 .57
16STG	16	.38 .35 .32	28STG	28	1.10 1.00 .90
18STG	18	.52 .47 .43	40STG	40	1.75 1.55 1.45
20STG	20	.60 .56 .52			

TIN SOLDERTAIL - LOW PROFILE

Part #	No. of Pins	PRICE	Part #	No. of Pins	PRICE
8CS2	8	.25 .18 .15	22CS2	22	.37 .36 .35
14CS2	14	.25 .18 .16	24CS2	24	.38 .37 .36
16CS2	16	.25 .18 .16	28CS2	28	.45 .44 .43
18CS2	18	.29 .28 .27	40CS2	40	.63 .62 .61
20CS2	20	.34 .32 .30			

3 LEVEL GOLD WIRE WRAP SOCKETS

Sockets purchased in multiples of 50 per type may be combined for best price.

Pin Count	1-9	10-24	25-99	100-249	250-999
8 pin*	.40	.36	.34	.31	.27
14 pin*	.45	.39	.37	.34	.32
16 pin*	.50	.42	.40	.36	.34
18 pin	.70	.60	.55	.50	.45
20 pin	.90	.80	.75	.65	.62
22 pin*	.95	.85	.80	.70	.65
24 pin	.95	.85	.80	.70	.65
28 pin	1.25	1.15	1.00	.95	.90
40 pin	1.65	1.45	1.35	1.20	1.10

All sockets are GOLD 3 level closed entry * End and side stackable. 2 level. Solder Tail. Low Profile, Tin Sockets and Dip Plugs available. CALL FOR QUOTATION

unbeatable GREAT JUMPERS

FLAT RIBBON CABLE ASSEMBLIES AT AFFORDABLE PRICES

- Choice of 3 types of end connectors molded on and factory tested.
- Daisy chain and single-end also available.
- 5 popular sizes to choose from: 20, 26, 34, 40 and 50 contacts, each with line-by-line probe access holes.
- Choice of 2 cable types and 5 lengths.

FLAT RIBBON CABLE
Stranded, 28 AWG with laminated PVC insulation. "Electric Pink" cable has red stripe on one edge for orientation. Used only on double-end and daisy chain assemblies. "Rainbow" cable is coded in standard 10-color sequence on front. Serpentine striping on back aids in identifying wire number and wire group during tear-down separation for discrete wire terminations. Used only on single-end jumpers.

PCB JUMPERS

No. Contacts	DOUBLE END Electric Pink 6"	SINGLE END Rainbow 36"
20	924032 06 R \$3.70	924042 36 R \$2.55
26	924033 06 R \$4.78	924043 36 R \$3.31
34	924034 06 R \$5.95	924044 36 R \$4.13
40	924035 06 H \$4.57	924045 36 R \$4.84
50	924036 06 R \$5.62	924046 36 R \$5.97

CARD-EDGE JUMPERS

No. Contacts	DOUBLE END Electric Pink 6"	SINGLE END Rainbow 36"	DAISY CHAIN 13 connector Electric Pink 6"
20	924052 06 R \$5.69	924062 36 R \$4.11	924092 06 R \$8.42
26	924053 06 R \$6.46	924063 36 R \$4.88	924093 06 R \$9.54
34	924054 06 R \$7.96	924064 36 R \$6.15	924094 06 R \$11.74
40	924055 06 R \$9.29	924065 36 R \$7.20	924095 06 R \$13.70
50	924056 06 R \$10.10	924066 36 R \$8.21	924096 06 R \$14.86

SOCKET JUMPERS

No. Contacts	DOUBLE END JUMPER ASSEMBLIES Electric Pink Cable 6"	18"	36"	SINGLE END Rainbow 36"	DAISY CHAIN 13 connector Electric Pink 6"
20	924002 06 R \$3.70	924002 18 R \$4.16	924002 36 R \$4.85	924012 36 R \$3.12	924072 06 R \$5.44
26	924003 06 R \$4.78	924003 18 R \$5.38	924003 36 R \$6.28	924013 36 R \$4.04	924073 06 R \$7.02
34	924004 06 R \$5.95	924004 18 R \$7.05	924004 36 R \$8.25	924014 36 R \$5.30	924074 06 R \$9.18
40	924005 06 R \$7.33	924005 18 R \$8.27	924005 36 R \$9.68	924015 36 R \$6.22	924075 06 R \$10.76
50	924006 06 R \$9.15	924006 18 R \$10.31	924006 36 R \$12.05	924016 36 R \$7.73	924076 06 R \$13.43

double-row JUMPER HEADERS "GREAT JUMPERS"

- Solder to PC boards for instant plug-in access via socket-connector jumpers
- .025" square posts are molded into plastic header strip on a .10" x .10" matrix
- Choice of straight or right angle configurations

STRAIGHT	No. Posts	Dim. "A"	Dim. "B"	Part Number	Price 2 sets
	20	1.0	0.9	923862 R	\$.98
	26	1.3	1.2	923863 R	\$ 1.28
	34	1.7	1.6	923864 R	\$ 1.64
	40	2.0	1.9	923865 R	\$ 1.94
	50	2.5	2.4	923866 R	\$ 2.36

RIGHT-ANGLE	No. Posts	Dim. "A"	Dim. "B"	Part Number	Price 2 sets
	20	1.0	0.9	923872 R	\$ 1.20
	26	1.3	1.2	923873 R	\$ 1.52
	34	1.7	1.6	923874 R	\$ 1.96
	40	2.0	1.9	923875 R	\$ 2.30
	50	2.5	2.4	923876 R	\$ 2.82

DIP JUMPERS FLAT RIBBON CABLE ASSEMBLIES WITH DIP CONNECTORS

- Available with 14, 16, 24 and 40 contacts.
- Mate with standard IC sockets.
- Fully assembled and tested.
- Integral molded-on strain relief.
- Line-by-line probeability.

A P DIP Jumpers are the low-cost, high-quality solution for jumpering within a PC board; interconnecting between PC boards, backplanes and motherboards; interfacing Input/Output signals; and more.

All assemblies use rainbow cable. Standard lengths are 6, 12, 18, 24 and 36 inches.



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1-800-423-5633



DOUBLE-ENDED DIP JUMPERS

No. Contacts	Length 6"	Length 12"	Length 18"	Length 24"	Length 36"
14	924106 6-R \$2.41	924106 12-R \$2.61	924106 18-R \$2.82	924106 24-R \$3.02	924106 36-R \$3.43
16	924116 6-R \$2.65	924116 12-R \$2.88	924116 18-R \$3.11	924116 24-R \$3.34	924116 36-R \$3.80
24	924126 6-R \$4.15	924126 12-R \$4.50	924126 18-R \$4.85	924126 24-R \$5.20	924126 36-R \$5.90
40	924136 6-R \$6.93	924136 12-R \$7.52	924136 18-R \$8.11	924136 24-R \$8.70	924136 36-R \$9.88

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Prices subject to change without notice. OEM and Institutional We will do our best to maintain prices thru June 1979. Inquiries invited. phone orders welcome (213) 894-8171, (800) 423-5633

We have the Best Prices on 2102's, 2114's, 4116's. We have 5V 2716's in Stock.

We make Custom Ribbon Cable Assemblies while you wait!

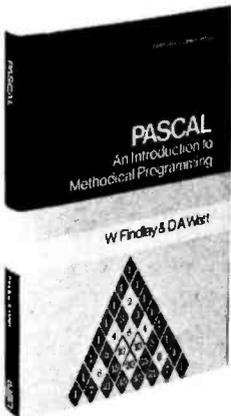
We make Custom Ribbon Cable Assemblies while you wait!

TRS-80 Microcomputer Technical Reference Handbook

Radio Shack has published a technical reference handbook for their TRS-80 microcomputer system. The illustrated 108 page book is intended primarily for technically oriented persons with a good working knowledge of digital logic circuits. Written in a straightforward, informal manner, the *TRS-80 Microcomputer Technical Reference Handbook* includes technical information and schematic diagrams for both Level I and II TRS-80 systems. Topics covered in the book include: Theory of Operation, Adjustments and Troubleshooting, The Outside World (connections to control external devices), parts list and fold-out schematics. The handbook is priced at \$9.95 and is available from Radio Shack stores and dealers. For further information, contact Radio Shack, 1400 One Tandy Center, Fort Worth TX 76102.

Circle 568 on inquiry card.

Pascal: An Introduction to Methodical Programming



This book, intended for use in a first course in programming, is based on the Pascal language. It assumes no prior knowledge of computing and only elementary mathematical skill. It emphasizes programming principles, good style, and a methodical approach to program development. This introduction to Pascal includes a thorough treatment of both the fundamental language features and the few features which are not truly fundamental. The programming technique of incremental refinement is imparted by consistent example throughout the book. In addition, two chapters are devoted exclusively to programming methodology. Each chapter is followed by a number of exercises, answers to some of which are provided. This 306 page book is priced at \$10.95. It is published by Computer Science Press Inc, 9125 Fall River Ln, Potomac MD 20854.

Circle 569 on inquiry card.

Z-80 Instruction Handbook

The *Z80 Instruction Handbook* by Nat Wadsworth is a handy, compact reference providing a clear detailed explanation of the Z-80 microprocessor instruction set. Standard Zilog mnemonics are used throughout and machine codes are presented in both octal and hexadecimal format. An index lists all instructions alphabetically along with machine codes and timing information. This 128 page book is priced at \$4.95. For further information, contact Scelbi Publications, POB 133 PP STN, Milford CT 06460.

Circle 570 on inquiry card.

Connect Your Computer to an Automatic Musical Instrument

Vestal Press has recently announced the release of its 15th catalog. It contains all types of automatic musical instruments including music boxes, carousel organs, orchestrions (mechanical orchestras), reproducing pianos (player pianos that play with full artistic fidelity), violin playing machines, and all sorts of unusual music devices. The catalog is available for \$2 from Vestal Press, Dept B, POB 97, Vestal NY 13850.

Circle 571 on inquiry card.

Free Catalogs from Hayden Book Company

Two new catalogs that include personal computing and professional computing books are available from Hayden Book Co Inc. They feature Hayden's new and forthcoming books on introductory computing, programming, and applications and advanced technology. For free copies of either the personal or the professional computing catalog, write to Hayden Book Co Inc, 50 Essex St, Rochelle Park NJ 07662.

Circle 572 on inquiry card.

TRS-80 Monthly Newsletter

The *TRS-80 Monthly Newsletter* contains articles and programs (with complete program listings and instructions) related to business, personal finance, money management, games, practical applications and gambling. The programs are also available on cassette or floppy disk. A summary of the latest TRS-80 system developments and a list of TRS-80 related software are published in every issue. A one year subscription to this newsletter is \$24. For more information, contact Mathematical Applications Service, POB 149 RS, New City NY 10956.

Circle 573 on inquiry card.

Comprehensive Microprocessor Design Manual Announced by TI



This self-teaching microprocessor design manual, written for both beginners and experts, is available from Texas Instruments Inc, Mail Station 54, POB 225012, Dallas TX 75222. *9900 Family Systems Design and Data Book* offers more than 1,000 pages of educational and applications information that can help users develop a deeper understanding of the complex technology and the potential in microprocessors.

The first chapter discusses the semiconductor technology advances on which today's microprocessors are based. It also provides guidelines for selection and application of microprocessors and microcomputers, and lists general and basic design decisions. The second chapter is a product selection guide, covering the complete TI 9900 family of microprocessors, microcomputers, peripheral support circuits, assembled microcomputer modules, software and development systems. Chapter Three moves step-by-step through a "first encounter" with a 9900, describing basic concepts in an introductory application. Chapters Four, Five, and Six cover hardware and software design, architecture and interfacing techniques, programming methods and the instruction set.

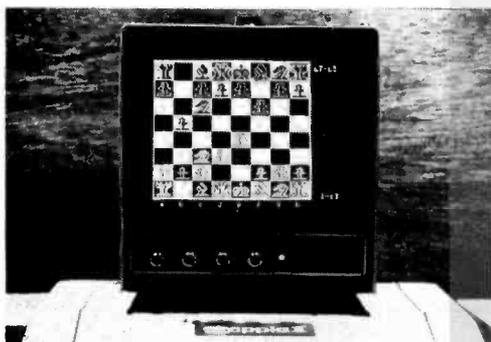
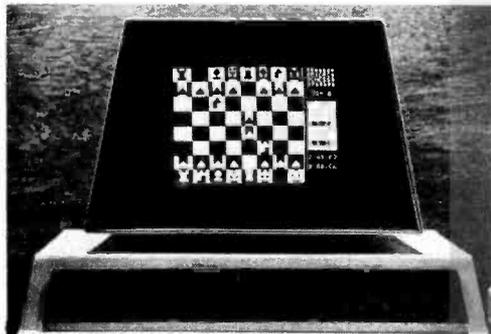
Chapter Seven contains reference materials for development systems used by experienced system designers to develop 9900 software programs, debug, and prototype final systems. It also includes in-depth technical specifications on all currently available products in the 9900 family.

Chapter Nine offers detailed examples of real world uses of TI's 9900 product family in the design of a low cost data terminal, a floppy disk controller, and a simulated industrial control application.

The *9900 Family Systems Design and Data Book* is priced at \$9.95 (soft cover).

Circle 574 on inquiry card.

Microchess for the PET and Apple Computers



Microchess 2.0, developed by Peter Jennings, has been designed for the 8 K PET and the 16 K Apple computers. In 6502 machine language, it offers 8 levels of play to suit everyone from the beginner to the serious player. At its highest level the program plays a good game and will beat most average players and many other chess playing programs. It examines positions by as many as six moves ahead, and includes a chess clock for tournament play. Microchess checks every move for legality, handles castling and en passant pawn captures, and displays the current position on a graphic chessboard. You can play white or black, set up and play from special board positions, or watch the computer play against itself. Microchess 2.0 is available for \$19.95 from Personal Software, POB 136, Cambridge MA 02138.

Circle 609 on inquiry card.

New Publication on Patching and Programming from *Polyphony*

The Source is a compilation of analog music synthesizer patch charts which have appeared in *Polyphony* magazine plus some extras. The magazine and this book adhere to two important concepts: to show the average synthesist how to do it, and to promote and publish information exchange between synthesists. The first of the six chapters in the handbook is spent familiarizing the reader with the standard symbology used to represent various synthesizer modules. Another

On Screen Text Editors for 8080 Systems

Two Daisy text editing programs allow fully interactive visible text editing and advanced word processing and formatting, using a serial video terminal. The editors provide extended file usage, and use dynamic screen imaging to minimize disruptive screen activity so that the editors can be used on a slow (2400 bps) video terminal.

WPDaisy is the word processing version of this system which includes both space and proportional justification. WPDaisy allows calling disk files while formatting, and has 26 in-memory buffers. Also included is a mail merge program which is useful in producing form letters and labels.

The TSA/os version is \$125 for Daisy, and \$300 for WPDaisy. The CP/M version is \$175 for Daisy; \$350 for WPDaisy. For further information, contact TSA Software Inc, 39 Williams Dr, Monroe CT 06468.

Circle 611 on inquiry card.

Multi-Universal Integrated Circuit Plug-In Adapter

This multi-universal integrated circuit plug-in adapter accepts integrated circuit patterns of up to 40 leads, including large scale integration, medium scale integration, and programmable memory devices. The adapter is used for mounting a variety of mixed devices which will then plug into any standard universal integrated circuit packaging panel.

The P/N 640-MUI adapter will accept the following packages: single-in-line, dual-in-line, memory package, interface, and large scale devices. The adapters are fabricated of 0.062 inch (0.157 cm) thick epoxy with electro-tin-plated circuitry. The plug-in contacts are brass, tin plated, with a gold plated beryllium copper four-tine spring socket member.

They are available at prices ranging from \$2 to \$6 per unit. For more information, contact Garry Manufacturing Co, 1010 Jersey Av, New Brunswick NJ 08902.

Circle 612 on inquiry card.

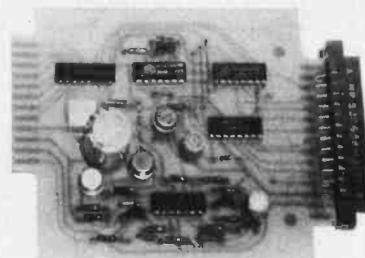
chapter contains patches which are most useful for actually playing tunes. In the techniques chapter is found a multitude of patches which provide insight into how to use modules efficiently and imaginatively. The final chapter on software contains the basis for an understanding of a few of today's newest musical tools. Program listings for computer music are provided. This 124 page book costs \$4 and is available from Polyphony Publishing Co, 1020 W Wilshire Blvd, Oklahoma City OK 73116.

Circle 610 on inquiry card.

New Family of RS-232 Switching Units

A new family of low cost miniature switching units has been introduced by Giltronix Inc, 3156 Avalon, Palo Alto CA 94306. The family, called RS232-X, switches serial RS-232 peripherals between several driving sources. Model RS232-X3 allows three driving sources. By turning the three position switch mounted on the RS232-X3, the user can select the driving device that will exchange data with the peripheral unit. A unique arrangement allows the cascading of two or more RS232-X switches, thereby expanding the selection from three devices to five or more. Model RS232-XF is similar to the RS232-X3 but switches additional signals. Both come with 25 pin female connectors. The price of the RS232-X3 is \$64.95 assembled, and \$47.95 in kit form. The RS232-XF is \$78.95 assembled and \$59.95 in kit form.

Circle 613 on inquiry card.



Analog Interface Card

The ADAK-1 board is a general purpose analog interface for 8 bit microcomputers. It includes a monolithic digital to analog converter, a 5 pole low pass filter for waveform generation, an audio amplifier, an eight channel analog input multiplexer, and a comparator to perform analog to digital conversions by successive approximation routines. This combination permits real time music generation by Fourier synthesis techniques and permits the outputs from up to eight joystick channels, thermometers, light sensors, or other devices to be digitized. A modified version, ADAK-1 PET, plugs directly into Commodore PET computers. The software cassette supplied with this version includes programs for machine language coding, music generation, Fourier waveform synthesis, analog to digital conversion and several paddle input games. Both versions are completely tested and include connectors and instructions. ADAK-1 is priced at \$69.50 and the ADAK-1 PET version is \$99.50. For further information, contact Technical Hardware Inc, POB 3609, Fullerton CA 92634.

Circle 614 on inquiry card.

*MEMORY SALE! have it your way ...

16K \$295.00!! (4MHz) (Reg. \$370.00)

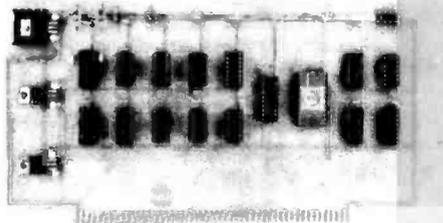
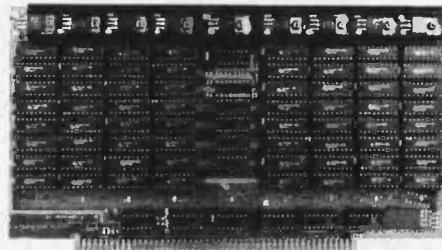
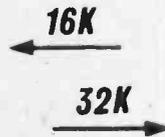
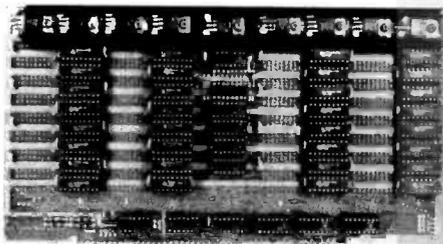
32K \$485.00!! (4MHz) (Reg. \$620.00)

ALL BOARDS ASSEMBLED AND TESTED (KIT PRICING AVAILABLE)

- Extended addressing allows board to exist anywhere in 256K memory on standard S-100 bus
- LOW Power, 1.6 amp per 16K
- 9 Regulators for perfect heat distribution
- Static, of course
- Phantom line
- Each 4K block locateable anywhere
- Fully tested and burned in for 48 hours

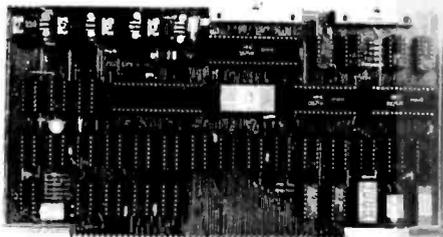
ADD-ON MEMORY CHIPS — \$4.95 EACH!! (TMS 4044 or MM 5257) — 8 Chips — Minimum Order

*Sale extended one last month



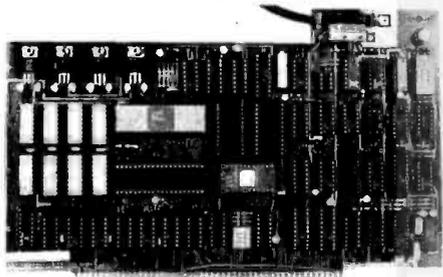
Z-80 CPU (one serial chip set, less eprom) \$195.00 (Reg. \$280.00)

- 2 Parallel + 2 Serial Port
- 2 MHz or 4 MHz Switch Selectable
- Baud Rates 150-9600
- Power on Jump to On/Board Eprom (2708 or 2716)
- Memory Management on A16 and A17



VIDEO TERMINAL SIMULATOR \$295.00 (Reg. \$400.00)

- Plugs into S-100 Bus and simulates all functions of a Soroc or other RS-232 type terminal. A simple video monitor such as a Sanyo or Sony TV will perform as a smart terminal by writing into an IO Port.
- 2K Eprom, 4K Ram (2 video pages on 16 x 64)
- Lower Case Descenders (16 x 64 or 24 x 80)
- Tabs, protected fields, home/load cursor, blink, reverse video, underline, page erase, etc. (Intel 8275 CRT controller)



DOUBLE DENSITY DISC CONTROLLER \$385.00

- CPM* Compatible, TARBELL Pin-out compatible
- On/Board Boot
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- 8 inch Single or Double sided (5.25 inch available)
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*CPM is a trademark of Digital Research, Inc.

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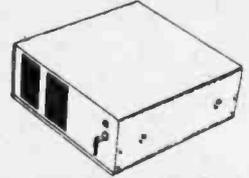
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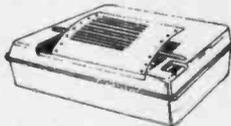
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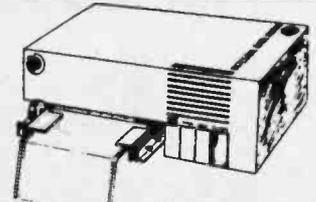
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 - Parallel TTL Interface (factory wired on req.)
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- \$799



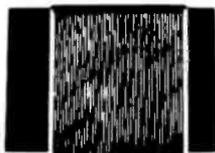
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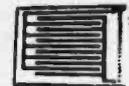
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with full documentation

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programs will need the second cassette drive offered by Commodore.

The package offered by the PET-PILOT project contains both programs, a sample PILOT program, a teacher's manual, a quick reference card, and licenses to run the programs on a single PET. A tutorial course of 4 one hour lessons in effective use of PILOT is also available. The basic package costs \$12, and the tutorial is an extra \$8. Both products can be ordered by specifying the PET serial number to be licensed. For further information contact Dave Gomberg, 7 Gateview Ct, San Francisco CA 94116.

Circle 620 on inquiry card.

KIM-1 Control System

PCROS is a Process Control Real-time Operating System for the KIM-1 microcomputer board. The operating system is designed to function in the 1 K byte KIM-1 programmable memory. PCROS can control up to twelve switches and is driven by a real time clock routine that makes use of the KIM-1 timer and interrupt circuitry.

A process control language interpreter has been included as an integral part of PCROS. The interpreter utilizes the on board KIM-1 keyboard and display. The process control language interpreter provides nine commands for application program development: set switches, hold full-second current settings (up to 255), hold quarter-second current settings (up to 255), repeat command sequence, reset repeat loop, go to subroutine, return from subroutine, load and execute next program (from cassette tape), and halt. Application programs can contain up to 56 commands.

PCROS on KIM format cassettes with users manual is priced at \$14.95. The assembly listing is available for \$24.95. For further information contact H Geller Computer Systems, POB 350, New York NY 10040.

Circle 622 on inquiry card.

FORTRAN Compiler for 6800 Produces Relocatable Object Code

A FORTRAN compiler for 6800 microprocessors, which produces relocatable object code in a Motorola compatible format, has been introduced by Smoke Signal Broadcasting, 31336 Via Colinas, Westlake Village CA 91361. Programs are compiled to run under the company's DOS-68 disk operating system for scientific applications, number crunching and multidimensional array processing. The compiler is also comple-

mented by Smoke Signal's Linking Loader for loading the object listing into any portion of memory specified.

Requiring 24 K bytes of user programmable memory, the compiler has a data initialization capability, features arithmetic and logical IF statements, and handles sequential access files so that up to four files can be opened at any one time. FORTRAN library subroutines can also be built.

The 6800 FORTRAN compiler is priced at \$99.

Circle 621 on inquiry card.



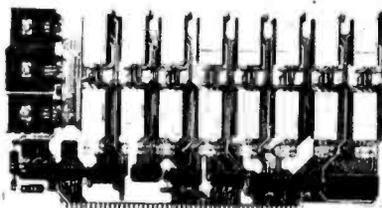
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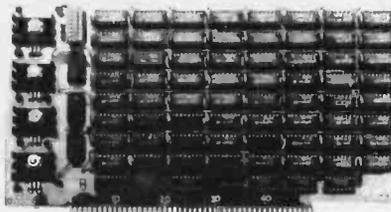
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STATIC, AT
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We feel the 2114 will be the next Industry Standard RAM chip (like the 2102 was). This means price, availability, and quality will all be good! Next, the 2114 is FULLY STATIC! We feel 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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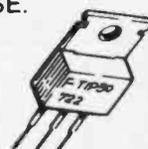
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- Full Screen Editing
- Operating system will support multiple Languages (BASIC resident)
- Machine Language Monitor
- 8K ROM Expansion Sockets
- 9" CRT



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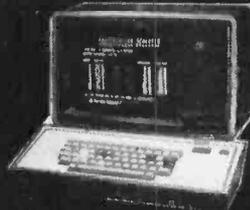
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COMPUCOLOR II Disk-Based Model 3 Advanced hardware and software technology gives you:

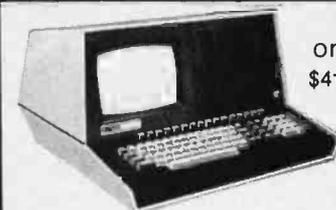
- 13" Color Display
- Advanced Color Graphics
- 51K Disk Built-In
- 16K ROM Operating System
- 8K RAM User Memory
- 4K RAM Refresh
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Print out a "flow chart" of the basic program

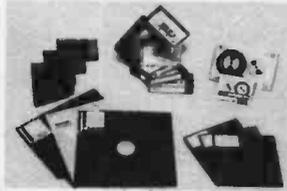
This package is essential for examining and modifying basic programs. It is provided on a North Star Diskette for \$15.00.

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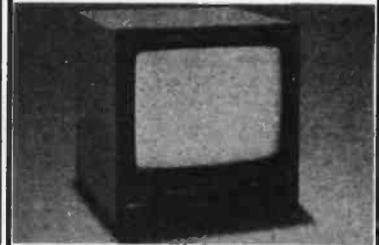
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Any routine you'll ever need, involving arrays, matrix algebra or simultaneous equations, can be found in this comprehensive collection of subroutines, compatible with any version of BASIC having subscripted variables.

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- Requires +5, -12 VDC
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- No coils, only low cost components
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- Connect 8 Ω speaker and crystal mic. directly to board
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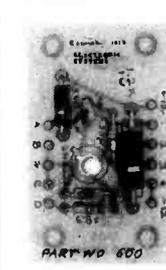
RS-232/ TTL** INTERFACE

- Converts TTL to RS-232, and converts RS-232 to TTL
- Two separate circuits
- Requires -12 and +12 volts
- All connections go to a 10 pin gold plated edge connector
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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
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- Jumper selectable address
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- 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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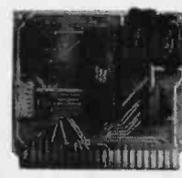
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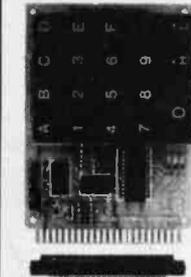
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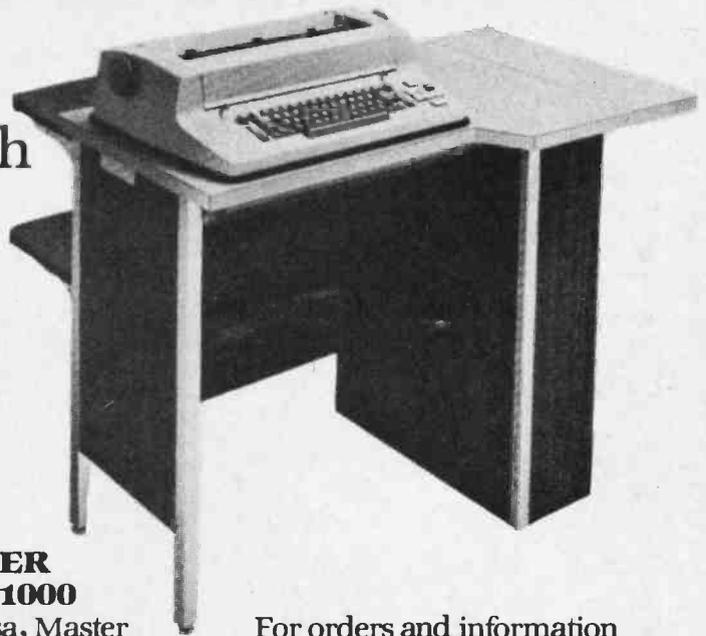
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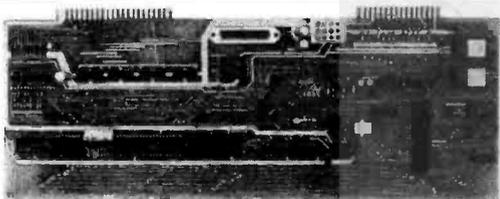
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ASCII KEYBOARD Mounted to DECWRITER Panel
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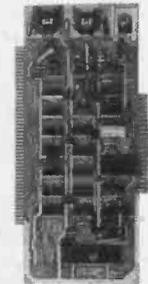
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This bidirectional board is a direct replacement for the board inside the Trendata 1000 terminal. The on board connector provides RS-232 serial in and out. Sold only as an assembled and tested unit for \$330.00. Part No. TA 1000C



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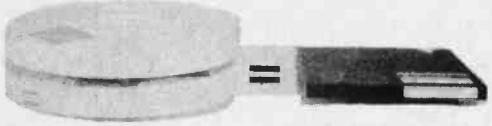
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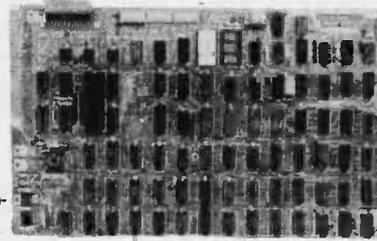
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SP-1 Synthesizer Board S-100 PCB \$42.95 KIT \$135.95



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FDC-1 FLOPPY CONTROLLER BOARD will drive shugart, peritek, remic 5" & 8" drives up to 8 drives, on board PROM with power boot up, will operate with CPM (not included). PCB \$42.95
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 8212 2.49 2114 (250 NS) low pwr. 7.99
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RCA Cosmac Super Elf Computer \$106.95

Compare features before you decide to buy any other computer. There is no other computer on the market today that has all the desirable benefits of the Super Elf for so little money. The Super Elf is a small single board computer that does many big things. It is an excellent computer for training and for learning programming with its machine language and yet it is easily expanded with additional memory. Tiny Basic, ASCII Keyboards, video character generation, etc.

The Super Elf includes a ROM monitor for program loading, editing and execution with SINGLE STEP for program debugging which is not included in others at the same price. With SINGLE STEP you can see the microprocessor chip operating with the unique Quest address and data bus displays before, during and after executing instructions. Also, CPU mode and instruction cycle are decoded and displayed on eight LED indicator lamps.

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 pro-

tect, 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 labeled 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

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. (retocatable 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.

Cassette Interface \$89.95

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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Video computer with games and graphics. Fully assem. and test. \$249.00

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Converts digital clocks from AC line frequency to crystal time base. Outstanding accuracy. Kit includes: PC board, IC, crystal, resistors, capacitors and trimmer.

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Beautiful woodgrain case w/ bezel \$11.75

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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.

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7400TL	17	LM375M	5.00
7400N	17	LM380N	1.00
7401N	19	LM331A	1.60
7409A	23	LM382	1.60
7410N	17	LM703H	1.60
7414N	39	LM703M	1.60
7420N	17	LM723M	1.60
7427N	39	LM733M	1.60
7450N	20	LM741CH	1.60
7452N	60	LM741N	1.60
7455N	69	LM745N	1.60
7467N	60	LM745N	1.60
7468N	69	LM745N	1.60
7469N	17	LM754	1.10
7472N	19	LM1305	1.27
7475N	49	LM1307	2.00
7485N	26	LM1310	2.75
7488N	2.00	LM1455	4.17
7490N	43	LM1800	1.75
7492N	43	LM1812	3.00
7493A	43	LM1889	3.00
7495N	69	LM2111	1.75
7497N	30	LM2002	1.30
74107N	29	LM3900N	1.40
74121N	34	LM3905	1.75
74123N	59	LM3909H	2.11
74125N	39	MC1455V	5.80
74126N	69	NE555V	2.51
74150N	98	NE555V	4.63
74151N	69	NE556A	7.79
74152N	1.00	NE556A	1.00
74153N	1.00	NE556V	1.00
74161N	87	NE567V	1.20
74162N	87	NE567V	1.20
74172N	87	NE570B	5.00
74173N	87	NE570B	5.00
74174N	96	78L05	1.00
74175N	96	78L05	1.00
74190N	1.15	78L05	1.15
74192N	87	78M05	1.15
74193N	85	79L05	1.15
74221N	1.55	75491CN	2.50
74292N	1.85	75492CN	2.50
74293N	1.85	75492CN	2.50
74366N	95	8038	1.69
74367N	95	8038	1.69

74LS00	25	74LS00	1.25
74LS01	25	74LS01	1.25
74LS02	25	74LS02	1.25
74LS04	25	74LS04	1.25
74LS08	25	74LS08	1.25
74LS16	25	74LS16	1.25
74LS20	25	74LS20	1.25
74LS23	25	74LS23	1.25
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74LS30	25	74LS30	1.25
74LS32	25	74LS32	1.25
74LS37	25	74LS37	1.25
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74LS100	1.15	74LS100	1.15

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74LS197	1.15	74LS197	1.15
74LS198	1.15	74LS198	1.15
74LS199	1.15	74LS199	1.15
74LS200	1.15	74LS20	

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Includes: CPU/Keyboard, Power Supply, Video Monitor, Cassette Recorder, Manual, and Game Cassette.

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(kit)	\$ 98.00
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3	\$ 12.00
10	\$ 37.00
Maxell Diskettes ea.	\$ 7.50
3	\$ 21.00
10	\$ 60.00
C-10 Cassettes	5 \$ 4.50
	25 \$ 18.75
C-30 Cassettes	12 \$ 23.95
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EDGE CARD CONNECTORS: GOLD PLATED. (Not Gold Flash)
BODY: Non brittle. Solvent res.. G.E. Valox.
CONTACTS: Bifurcated; Phos/Bronze: Gold over Nickel.
ABBREVIATIONS: S/T Solder Tail; S/E Sold. Eyelet;
W/W Wire Wrap 3; SW/W Short W/Wrap;

PART #	Description	Row Sp.	1-4	5-9	10-24
5010	50/100 S/T ALTAIR	.140	3.75	3.50	3.30
5020	50/100 S/T IMSAI	.250	3.95	3.75	3.50
5030	50/100 W/W IMSAI	.250	4.10	3.90	3.70
5040	50/100 S/E ALT/IMSAI	.140	5.00	4.50	4.25
5050	50/100 S/T CROMEMCO	.250	6.25	6.00	5.75
1450	IMSAI CARD GUIDES		0.16	0.14	0.12
100" Contact Center Connectors.					
1020	13/26 S/E Imsai MIO:	.140	2.10	1.85	1.75
1040	25/50 S/E	.140	2.95	2.75	2.50
1050	25/50 S/T	.140	3.00	2.80	2.60
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
1080	40/80 S/T PET	.140	4.90	4.60	4.25
1085	43/85 S/E Cos.ELF	.140	5.00	4.75	4.50
1090	43/86 S/T Cos.ELF	.140	5.10	4.85	4.60
1093	43/86 S/T Cos.ELF	.200	4.95	4.70	4.45
1095	43/86 W/W Cos.ELF	.200	5.50	5.20	4.90
POLARIZING KEYS: For Above					
156" Contact Center Connectors.					
1550	6/1 S/E PET Etc	.140	1.30	1.10	0.90
1560	6/12 S/T PET.NSC.	.140	1.35	1.15	0.95
1575	12/24 S/E PET	.140	2.15	1.95	1.75
1580	12/24 S/T PET	.140	2.10	1.90	1.70
1590	15/30 S/E GRI Keybd.	.140	2.25	2.05	1.85
1620	18/36 S/E	.140	2.40	2.20	2.00
1650	22/44 S/E KIM,VECTOR	.140	2.20	2.00	1.80
1660	22/44 S/T KIM,VECTOR	.140	2.00	1.80	1.70
1670	22/44 W/W KIM,VECTOR	.200	2.40	2.20	2.00
1690	36/72 W/W	.200	3.90	3.75	3.50
1710	36/72 S/E	.140	3.50	3.30	3.10
1720	36/72 S/T	.200	3.30	3.10	2.90
1730	43/86 S/T Mot. 6800	.140	4.40	4.15	3.90
1740	43/86 S/T Mot. 6800	.200	4.35	4.10	3.85
1750	43/86 W/W Mot. 6800	.200	4.45	4.25	4.10
POLARIZING KEYS: For Above					

RS232 & 'D' TYPE SUBMINIATURE CONNECTORS:

QUANTITY	1-4	5-9	10-24
DE9P Male	1.45	1.35	1.25
DE9S Female	1.93	1.80	1.70
DE110963-1	2pc. Grey Hood	1.20	1.10
DA15P Male	1.95	1.80	1.70
DA15S Female	2.80	2.60	2.40
DA51211-1	1pc. Grey Hood	1.25	1.15
DA110963-2	2pc. Grey Hood	1.22	1.10
DB25P Male	2.20	2.10	1.90
DB25S Female	3.20	3.00	2.70
DB51212-1	1pc. Grey Hood	1.30	1.20
DB51226-1A	2pc. Black Hood	1.40	1.30
DB110963-3	2pc. Grey Hood	1.35	1.25
DC37P Male	3.70	3.50	3.35
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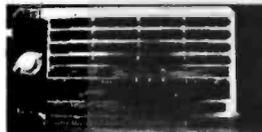
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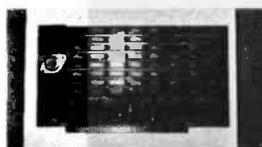
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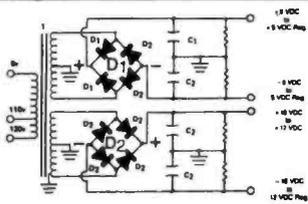
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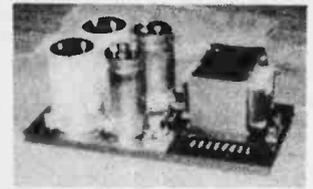
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FOR SALE: IMSAI 4 K static, \$80. MITS 4 K dynamic, \$50. Tarbell cassette board, \$90. MITS ACR, \$70. MITS disk drive with BASIC and FORTRAN, \$1,300. MITS-Okidata printer with controller, \$1,500. All boards fully socketed and factory checked out. Make offer. For trade: 8080 FORTRAN MITS disk version for 8080 COBOL or MITS timesharing BASIC. Manuals available. K R Roberts, 10560 Main St, Suite 515, Fairfax VA, 22030, (703) 591-6008 or 378-7266.

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FOR SALE: AMD9511 arithmetic integrated circuit on S-100 card with BASIC-E. Calculate SIN (X) in 2.8 ms in BASIC. \$250. G Lyons, 280 Henderson St, Jersey City NJ 07302, (201) 451-2905.

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FOR SALE: Two MITS Altair 4 K memory boards, model 88-4MCD, assembled and in service now, no bad bits. Includes original documentation. I need the slots. Price \$75 each, postpaid and insured. Money order or certified check, or allow three weeks for personal check to clear. Lewis Mosley Jr, 2576 Glendale Ct NE, Conyers GA 30208.

FOR SALE: IMSAI microcomputer with 28 K programmable memory, read only memory board, Tarbell cassette interface, poly video board, keyboard, monitor, and cassette tape recorder. All documented and working, \$1300. Leo Breiman, 905 Centinela Av, Santa Monica CA 90403, (213) 828-2840 or 829-7411.

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FOR SALE: One Processor Technology VDM-1 board kit, \$130; one Processor Technology 8 K programmable memory board kit, \$170. Both kits in original factory package — never opened. Best offer. Joe Haran, 607 Painters Xing, Chadds Ford PA 19317, (215) 358-3346.

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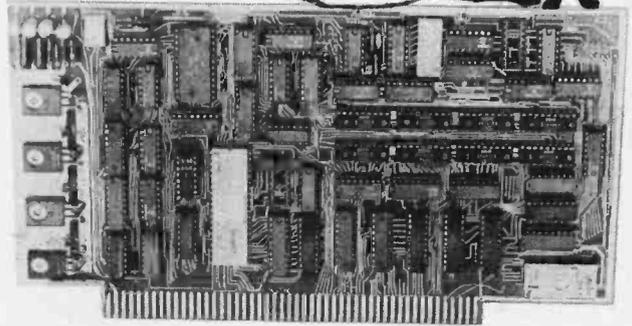
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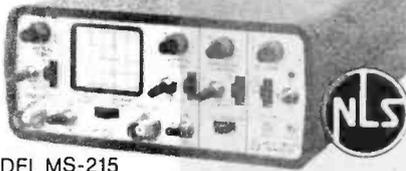
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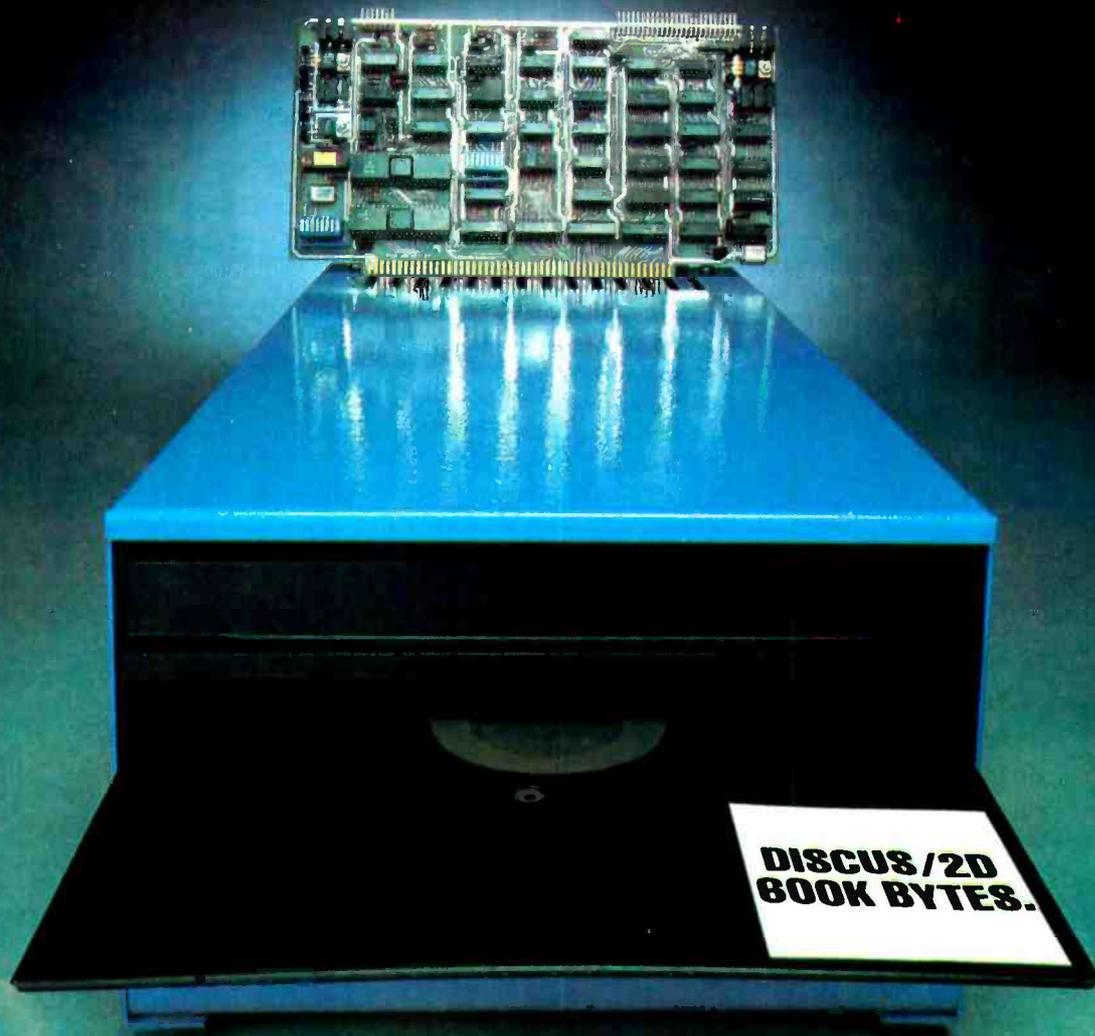
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March BOMB Results

In the voting for the March 1979 BYTE, first prize and a \$100 bonus check go to Ira Rampil for his article, "Preview of the Z-8000." Two articles shared second place, and will receive bonus checks of \$50 each. These were the third installment of Joel Boney and Terry Ritter's article on the design and implementation of the Motorola 6809 processor, "A Microprocessor for the Revolution," and the second part of Andrew Filo's article, "Designing a Robot from Nature." Remember, it is your votes which determine whether an author will receive this bonus each month, so be sure to send in the BOMB evaluations. ■

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