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Everything you need to know to create sophisticated music, sprites, and detailed bitmapped screens on your Commodore 64 -with both the convenience of BASIC and the speed of machine language.

Craig Chamberlain


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Craig Chamberlain

## COMPUTEE" Publications,Inc.abc

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## Foreword

Bitmap graphics...music and sound...sprites-these are some of the most powerful features of your Commodore 64. You know what the computer can do if you've seen high-quality commercial software. The 64 can paint any picture, play almost any kind of music, animate an endless variety of shapes. Using those same techniques in your own programs, however, isn't that simple. If you know machine language, you can do it a bit more easily. That still may not solve the problem though, for BASIC is often the language of convenience. And if you know only BASIC, what can you do?

All About the Commodore 64, Volume Two is the answer. It contains three major machine language utilities which add new BASIC commands for bitmap graphics creation, allow you to play the most involved music, and give you control over almost every aspect of sprites. Each utility is supported by an editor, as well as other secondary programs. Examples show you precisely what can be done and how to do it.

With bitmapped graphics you can draw, fill, and color on the bitmap screen. With shape tables, you can draw detailed shapes. By saving them to tape or disk, you can call them instantly to the screen. "Shapedit," a shape editor, makes it a snap to produce shapes. You can quickly change or copy anything you draw.
"Sidplayer" and its accompanying Editor allow you to create music of your own, or type sheet music into your 64. This editor is one of the most sophisticated available: You can use the keyboard or joystick to add or delete notes, specify the key, select the tempo, control volume, and number measures. Advanced features allow you to repeat sections of a musical piece, filter sound, and use the 64's SID chip's synchronization and ring modulation. Almost anything that can be played, from a symphony to a pop tune, can be reproduced on your 64. And though there are detailed explanations, you don't even need to know how to read music to use this versatile tool.

Sprites, those shapes you can sculpt and move across the screen, can be easily controlled with the Sprite Control System. With the complete package, including a sprite editor, you'll quickly design and create countless sprites, then move
them on the screen at incredible speeds. The computer will move them for you, or you can control them with the joystick. In a matter of minutes you can have sprites bouncing, disappearing, reappearing, crawling, and flying through your own programs. Even though you may know how to program just in BASIC, you can create impressive arcade-quality games with the Control System.

Each of these utilities can be used separately, or in any combination. They let you control, through your own BASIC programs, some of the most advanced features available on any home computer.

There's even more information in All About the Commodore 64, Volume Two. An entire section is devoted to advanced BASIC programming techniques. It picks up where Volume One left off. You'll learn about advanced functions, file input/output, and the little-known, but powerful, WAIT statement.

All the programs in Volume Two are ready to type in. Error-checking programs make typing them in easy.

If you prefer, you can purchase all the programs from Parts 2,3, and 4 on disk for $\$ 12.95$ plus shipping by calling toll free 1-800-334-0868.

With the information and utilities included in this book, you can turn your 64 into the computer you've always hoped it would become. Powerful features become convenient enough to use. Everything is clearly documented and illustrated, from the simplest technique to the most advanced. With All About the Commodore 64, Volume Two, you can have a new computer. It may look like your old 64, but it's not. It's a machine that's opened up hundreds of new doors into personal computing.

## Introduction

Welcome to the second volume of COMPUTE! Books' comprehensive series, All About the Commodore 64. The first volume showed you everything you needed to write BASIC programs on your 64. But there's more built into your computer than just BASIC. There's a dedicated graphics chip which features superior bitmapped graphics and eight sprites, as well as a sound chip with capabilities comparable to those in many commercial synthesizers. No other computer on the market gives you such graphics and sound for such a low price.

Unfortunately, these features are not easily accessible from BASIC. Commodore 64 BASIC does not offer commands for high-resolution plotting, for playing music, or for animating sprites. These have to be done with POKE statements, but POKEs can be unwieldy and slow. In fact, BASIC programs which use POKEs just do not run fast enough to play three voices simultaneously or to control eight sprites at the same time.

One solution is to write the programs in machine language (ML), the "native" language of the Commodore 64. Machine language is so fast that it can clear the bitmap screen in a fraction of a second; it can even move sprites faster than the screen can display them. But to use ML you must first learn how to write it. Learning a new language can be time-consuming.

All About the Commodore 64, Volume Two offers an alternative. It describes three major utilities, written in machine language, which can be merged with your BASIC programs to do fast drawing, play music, or animate sprites. You can keep the convenience of BASIC while adding the speed of ML-all without having to plug a special cartridge into your computer.

This book is divided into four parts. Part 1 explains advanced features of BASIC; the remaining three each cover one utility, showing how to use it and suggesting some practical applications. The concise, but clear, approach of Volume One, including the use of summaries at the end of each section in Part 1, has been retained for this book. These two books supplement each other. What you didn't find in Volume One, you'll find here. Although you don't need Volume One to
understand this book, both are necessary to completely explore the capabilities of your computer.

## Advanced BASIC

Part 1 picks up where All About the Commodore 64, Volume One left off. The advanced features of BASIC are explored, defined, and illustrated.

Chapters 1 and 2 cover subjects such as user-defined functions and how to simplify IF-THEN statements. Chapter 3 discusses peripherals, such as printers and modems. The advanced topic of tape and disk files is presented with numerous examples. A simple terminal program is even included for those of you who have a modem. Finally, Chapter 4 covers several miscellaneous items (how to call machine language from a BASIC program, for instance).

Since the topics in this section are somewhat advanced and may not be immediately applicable, you might want to skip over these chapters and move to the graphics and sound utilities first. However, there is a wealth of information included in this section-it's nice to know that it's there when you need it.

## Bitmapped Graphics

This collection of machine language routines lets you work with high-resolution and multicolor graphics. To make them as accessible as possible, they're written in the form of statements which can be added to BASIC. Even more important, the routines don't take up a single byte of BASIC's free memory.

New BASIC statements like GRAPHICS and DRAW are used to clear the bitmap screen and do high-resolution plotting, while others let you quickly draw lines and fill in areas. The SHAPE statement lets you draw a complete object at any place on the screen. There's even a program-"Shapedit"that helps you create a library of shapes.

## Sidplayer

The SID (Sound Interface Device) chip built into your 64 is a rather complex integrated circuit. However, "Sidplayer," the music editing program included here, has been carefully designed so that everyone can use it. No particular musical knowledge is required; in fact, it's so easy to use that you can
enter a song without knowing how to read sheet music.
As well as detailing Sidplayer's advanced features, this section offers a discussion of the fundamentals of music theory.

Sidplayer is capable of emulating a wide variety of instruments, and any music you create with it can be merged with other BASIC programs. The music will play while the program is doing something else. Several demonstration tunes are even provided.

## Sprite Control System

How would you like to see eight sprites go whizzing across the screen, each with a different direction, speed, shape, size, and color? What if you could control them with one or even two joysticks? And how about if they changed shape whenever they changed direction?

All of these things are possible with the Sprite Control System-and you don't need a single POKE statement! Even better, the animation takes place independently of BASIC. This means that sprites can move and change shape while a BASIC program is displaying a score or generating sound effects.

You'll find this utility especially useful for your own projects, such as action games. Programs include a Sprite Editor and plenty of demonstrations.

Each of these three utilities-Bitmapped Graphics, Sidplayer, and the Sprite Control System-can make your Commodore 64 do impressive things. That's not all, though-you'll also see ways to use all three together to create even more impressive results with your computer.

## You Paid for It

All About the Commodore 64, Volume Two has something for everyone. You'll finally be able to make use of all the special features within your machine. They've always been there; it's just that they haven't been easy to get to. You paid for themisn't it about time you used them?

Part 1
Advanced
BASIC

## Numbers and Mathematics

## Numerical Values for Conditions

In All About the Commodore 64, Volume One, you saw how the AND and OR operators work on true/false values and on numbers. Actually, these operators work only on numbers; true and false have corresponding numerical values. Consider the following statement:
PRINT $5=5$
Surprisingly enough, this BASIC statement will make your computer print a minus one (-1). Another (and somewhat clearer) way of writing this is:
PRINT (5=5)
Note that the equal sign is not assigning anything. Rather, it's being used as a relational operator, just like the greater than $(>)$ and less than ( $<$ ) symbols. The values to the equal sign's left and right are compared for equality. If the two values are equal-if the relation is true-BASIC associates a - 1 with this condition.

However, if the values are not equal-if the relation is false-zero is associated with such a condition. For example, the following statement will print a zero:
PRINT 5=4
The next example shows both uses of the equal sign. The first equal sign is being used to assign the variable $A$, as in a LET statement. The second is comparing variables $B$ and $C$ for equality.
$\mathrm{A}=\mathrm{B}=\mathrm{C}$
When this statement is executed, $B$ and $C$ will be compared first, and the result ( 0 or -1 ) will then be assigned to A. Variables $B$ and $C$ will not be changed.

The fact that true and false have numerical values can sometimes be used to simplify IF-THEN statements. These statements work by performing a comparison, and then using the result to decide whether to execute the commands after the THEN or to skip to the next line.
IF $5=5$ THEN PRINT "TRUE"

The condition $5=5$ is evaluated. Since both values are equal, the result is -1 , and the instruction after THEN is executed. But look at this line:

## IF $5=4$ THEN PRINT "TRUE"

This time the result is 0 , and the part after THEN does not execute.

Actually, the instructions following THEN will be executed whenever the result is any nonzero value, not just -1 . In the first line 310 below, the PRINT statement after the THEN will execute if $C$ has a value other than 0 . Execution will skip to the next line only when $C$ equals 0 .

```
31\emptyset IF C THEN PRINT "C HAS NONZERO VALUE"
```

This line is just a shortened form of:

```
31\varnothing IF C<>\varnothing THEN PRINT "C HAS NONZERO VALUE"
```

Thus, whenever a conditional statement checks to see if a value does not equal zero, the $<>0$ portion can be eliminated.

This has a number of applications. For instance, here are two ways of checking for a sprite collision. (Variable SN is the number of the sprite being checked.)

## IF (PEEK(53278)AND2个SN)<>0 THEN PRINT "COLLIDED!" IF PEEK(53278)AND2 $\uparrow$ SN THEN PRINT "COLLIDED!"

Both lines produce the same results, but the second is a little shorter.

Not only can lines be shortened because conditions have numerical values, but they can be eliminated altogether. Consider a program which has to keep incrementing a color number. When the color reaches 16 , it has to be set back to 1 .

```
260 C=C+1 : IF C=16 THEN C=1
270 POKE 53280,C
```

Every time these lines are executed, C is incremented. The conditional statement insures that the value of C is always kept in the range from 1 to 15 .

Lines 260 and 270 could be combined if it wasn't for the IF-THEN statement at the end of 260 . This statement makes it
impossible to add other instructions to the end of the line, because they may not always be executed. However, the lines could be combined if the IF-THEN was eliminated. The following shows how it can be done, not in two lines as above, but in only one line.
$260 \mathrm{C}=\mathrm{C}+1: \mathrm{C}=\mathrm{C}+15$ * $(\mathrm{C}=16)$ : POKE 53280, C
The logic may be hard to follow, so let's run through a short explanation. Whenever $C$ has a value from 1 to 15 , the statement $C=C+15^{*}(C=16)$ does not change the variable's value. For all these values, $(C=16)$ is false, or 0 . Since 15 times 0 is still 0 , the statement effectively becomes $C=C+0$; the value of $C$ is left unchanged. But when $C$ is 16 , $(C=16)$ is true, or -1 . Multiplying 15 by -1 , however, gives -15 , which when added to the value of $C$ (16) yields 1 . Notice that an addition operation has to be used because the value being added is negative. But the end result is subtraction. The process is outlined below.
$C$ has the value 16
$C=C+15^{*}(\mathrm{C}=16)$
$\mathrm{C}=\mathrm{C}+15^{*}(-1)$
$\mathrm{C}=\mathrm{C}+(-15)$
$\mathrm{C}=\mathrm{C}-15$
$\mathrm{C}=16-15$
$\mathrm{C}=1$
The example could be compacted even more by combining the $\mathrm{C}=\mathrm{C}+1$ with the $\mathrm{C}=\mathrm{C}+15^{*}(\mathrm{C}=16)$. The following line produces the same result as the previous two examples.

## $260 \mathrm{C}=\mathrm{C}+1+15 *(\mathrm{C}=15):$ POKE 53280, C

This statement behaves just like $\mathrm{C}=\mathrm{C}+1$ when C ranges from 1 to 14 . When C is 15 , however, adding 1 to it would make it 16 , so the 15 is subtracted instead.

Here's a slight variation on this technique; it's taken from the "Shapedit" program found later in the book. The variable $X$ represents a coordinate that must be kept in the range $0-39$. If $X$ is larger than 39, it must be set back to 0 . If it's less than 0 , it must wrap around to 39 .

```
24\varnothing IF X<\varnothing THEN X=39
250 IF X>39 THEN X=\varnothing
```

Instead, one line was saved by writing the code this way:

```
24\varnothing IF X<\varnothing OR X>39 THEN X=-39*(X<\varnothing)
```

If $X$ is less than 0 , the value $-39^{*}(X<0)$ is 39 , and the variable is assigned the number 39. When $X$ is greater than 39 , the value $-39^{*}(\mathrm{X}<0)$ is 0 , and the variable is set to 0 .

One other application of this number technique is to use it with the ON-GOTO statement. Consider the following program segment, which waits until the joystick is pushed, and then jumps to line 300.

```
32ø JS=PEEK(5632\emptyset)ANDI5:IF JS=15 GOTO 320
```

$33 \varnothing$ GOTO 3øø

Having a GOTO on a line all by itself seems wasteful. Line 330 is necessary, but anything put on the same line, after the GOTO, would never be executed. By taking advantage of the number trick, you can revise the lines and end up with:

## 32ø JS=PEEK (5632ø)AND15:ON (JS=15)+2 GOTO 32ø,3øø

The possible values of $(\mathrm{JS}=15)$ are -1 and 0 , which when added to 2 give the values 1 and 2 , just right for using ON-GOTO. Here is another way of writing the line so that the numbers after GOTO can be transposed:
$32 \varnothing$ JS=PEEK (5632ø) AND15:ON 1-(JS=15) GOTO 3øø,32ø
Subtracting the numbers -1 and 0 (possible values of $(\mathrm{JS}=15)$ ) from 1 gives 2 and 1, respectively.

These tricks and techniques with numerical values for conditions are not necessarily faster, because they often require the use of multiplication, a slow operation. They may also seem to be rather complicated. However, they can be used to reduce excessive IF-THEN and GOTO statements, which contribute to confusing program logic. It's up to you whether you want to use these techniques in your own programs, but at least you'll be able to recognize them in other programs.

## Summary

- The values true and false have corresponding numerical values, -1 and 0 .
- The statement PRINT A=5 will print a -1 if A equals 5 , a 0 if A does not equal 5 .
- In the statement PRINT $A=5$, the equal sign is used as a relational operator. The variable A is not being assigned and will keep its previous value.
- BASIC uses the numerical values in determining whether to execute instructions after THEN in an IF-THEN statement.
- In the statement IF A=5 THEN PRINT "TRUE", BASIC will execute instructions after THEN if the value of $(\mathrm{A}=5)$ is -1 , and will skip to the next line if the value is 0 .
- Actually, BASIC will execute instructions after THEN if the part between IF and THEN is any nonzero value. The statement IF A THEN PRINT means "IF A is not zero THEN PRINT" and will print a message if A has any value other than 0.
- The statement IF A THEN PRINT is identical to IF A<>0 THEN PRINT. Whenever $<>0$ appears in a condition, it can be removed to shorten the line without affecting the logic.
- One disadvantage in using IF-THEN statements is that two lines cannot be combined when the first one contains such a statement. To do so would affect the program's logic. However, the fact that the values true and false have numerical values can be used to get around this problem.
- The statement $\mathrm{C}=\mathrm{C}+1+15^{*}(\mathrm{C}=15)$ will increment the variable $C$ and reset it to 1 if its new value would be 16 . The end result is that $C$ will always have a value from 1 to 15 . This statement is comparable to $\mathrm{C}=\mathrm{C}+1$ :IF $\mathrm{C}=16$ THEN $\mathrm{C}=1$, but is shorter and can be followed by more statements.
- When a GOTO statement is found on a line by itself, it can usually be combined with the previous line.
- If a GOTO cannot be combined because the previous statement is an IF-THEN, the ON-GOTO statement can be used instead. Each of the three following examples accomplishes the same thing.

```
350 JS=PEEK(56320)ANDl5:IF JS=15 GOTO 350
360 GOTO 3øØ
350 JS=PEEK(5632ø)AND15:ON (JS=15)+2 GOTO 35ø,3ø\emptyset
350 JS=PEEK(56320)AND15:ON l-(JS=15) GOTO 30ø,350
```

- The number techniques introduced in this section are mainly used to shorten a program. They do not necessarily make the program any simpler.


## Precision and Scientific Notation

Your Commodore 64 always performs mathematical calculations with a high degree of accuracy. If it tries to tell you that $2+2$ is not 4 , something is wrong with your computer. But there's a limit to how precise an answer can be. Commodore 64 BASIC uses a maximum of nine digits in representing numbers. If an answer needs more than nine, the least significant digits are dropped.

Here's an example.
PRINT $1234567+0.9876543$
The answer should be 1234567.9876543, but that takes 14 digits. The most significant digits are the ones to the left, so only the first 9 are used. BASIC responds with the answer 1234567.99. Notice that the ninth digit is rounded up because the tenth digit would have been 7 . Numbers are rounded up if the missing digit is greater than or equal to 5 ; otherwise they're rounded down.

Because BASIC can manage only nine digits, there are some numbers that BASIC can only approximate. The fraction $1 / 7$ is an example. The decimal representation of $1 / 7$ contains a sequence of digits which repeat forever.

## $1 / 7=0.142857142857142857 . .$.

But if you PRINT this fraction, you'll get only the first nine digits, the last a 3 , rounded up from ... 28.

## PRINT 1/7

. 142857143
This inability to exactly represent some numbers doesn't apply just to numbers with too many digits. The following program looks simple enough, but it will not work as you might expect.

```
1\varnothing FOR K=1 TO l\varnothing STEP Ø.\emptyset1
2ø PRINT K
30 NEXT K
```

The program starts printing the numbers correctly (1, $1.01,1.02$, and so on), but after 1.22 things begin to get
strange. The number 1.22999999 appears for 1.23. This continues for the rest of the program. To see why, enter the following statement.

## PRINT 1.01 - 1

You'll see .0100000002 . The number 0.01 is another of those values that BASIC cannot precisely represent. This can lead to some really frustrating problems if you're not aware of the limitations. For instance, enter this next line.
PRINT 1.01 - . 01
BASIC prints 1. But the printed number may sometimes be slightly different from the machine's internal representation of the number. In the next example, the part after the THEN will not be executed.

## IF $1.01-.01=1$ THEN PRINT "YES"

Because of the problems in computing .01, 1.01-. 01 may print as 1 but yet not exactly equal 1 .

Sometimes you can use programming and a little mathematics to get around these problems. The example that stepped in 0.01 increments could be rewritten like this:

```
1\varnothing FOR K=1\varnothing\varnothing TO 1\varnothingØ\emptyset
20 PRINT K/10\emptyset
30 NEXT K
```

Other problems may not be as easy to solve, and will require more creative solutions. The IF-THEN statement above needs to be rewritten so that it's something like this:

## $\mathrm{N}=1.01$ - . 01 : IF INT(N*100)=100 THEN PRINT "YES"

One other possibility must be considered. If BASIC can handle a maximum of only nine digits, what happens when it comes across a number which has more than nine digits to one side of the decimal? Can BASIC process numbers such as 1,234,567,890 ( 1.23456789 billion)? Yes, but it has to display them using a form of representation known as scientific notation.

## PRINT 1234567890

$1.23456789 \mathrm{E}+09$
Any number can be represented as a number (the mantissa) times 10 raised to a power (the exponent). The $E$ means times

10 to the ..., so $1.23456789 E+09$ means 1.23456789 times 10 to the ninth power. This is commonly written as:

## $1.23456789 \times 10^{9}$

For practical purposes, $E+09$ means move the decimal point nine places to the right to get the correct value. If 1.23456789 is adjusted, 1234567890 results. (Sometimes it's necessary to add one or more zero digits to move the decimal point completely.)

Scientific notation is convenient when representing numbers with a lot of digits, especially those which contain several zeros. The numbers 10000000000 and 1000000000 look very much the same (especially without the normal comma notation), but there's a difference of 9000000000 between them. Representing the numbers as $1 \mathrm{E}+10$ and $1 \mathrm{E}+09$ eliminates the need to count the zeros, and reduces the chance of error.

The use of scientific notation is not confined to the displaying of numbers, as in the following:
PRINT 1E8,1E9
$100000000 \quad 1 \mathrm{E}+09$
You can also express numbers in scientific notation in response to INPUT statements, include them as values in DATA statements, and use them in most other places where numbers are used. The absolute maximum value that BASIC can represent is $1.70141183 \mathrm{E}+38$. If a number exceeds this limit, BASIC will stop and print the OVERFLOW error.

Scientific notation works in the other direction as well. Values less than 0.01 are always represented using scientific notation.
PRINT 0.00001089
1.089E-05

The minus sign means that the decimal point should be moved the designated number of places to the left. It does not mean that the number is negative.

There is no underflow error. Numbers less than $2.93873588 \mathrm{E}-39$ are converted to zero.
PRINT 3.14E-40
0

## Summary

- Commodore 64 BASIC uses a maximum of nine digits to represent any number. If a number is made up of more than that, the nine most significant digits (leftmost digits) are used. The remaining digits are dropped.
- When digits have to be dropped, the nine-digit number is rounded up or down (depending on the tenth digit). If the tenth digit is 5 or more, the number is rounded up; otherwise, it's rounded down.
- Values need not have more than nine digits for the computer to have trouble representing them. Examples showed how the 64 has difficulty handling the number 0.01 .
- The computer's internal representation of a number may be slightly different from the printed form. The result of 1.01 .01 prints as 1 , but is not equal to 1 in IF-THEN comparisons.
- Sometimes it's possible to rewrite a line or lines to reduce the problems associated with precision.
- Scientific notation can be used to represent numbers with more than nine digits to one side of the decimal point. Any number can be represented as a number from 0 to 9 times 10 raised to a power. The number 1234567890 is represented as $1.23456789 \mathrm{E}+09$ in scientific notation. The 1.23456789 is called the mantissa, the $E$ means times 10 to the ..., and the +09 is called the exponent.
- In practical terms, $E+n$, where $n$ is a number, means that the decimal point should be moved $n$ places to the right, with zeros added if necessary.
- Scientific notation makes it easier to read numbers with lots of digits and reduces the chance of error.
- If a value exceeds $1.70141183 \mathrm{E}+38$, BASIC will stop with an OVERFLOW error.
- All numbers of magnitude less than 0.01 are represented in scientific notation. The number 0.00123 becomes $1.23 \mathrm{E}-03$, with $E-03$ meaning that the decimal point should be moved to the left three places.
- Numbers less than $2.93873588 \mathrm{E}-39$ are converted to 0 . No error occurs when this happens.


## Integer Variables

In All About the Commodore 64, Volume One, the concept of type was introduced. The variable type helps describe what
kind of information is being expressed by the variable. The types described in Volume One were numbers and character strings. The TYPE MISMATCH error occurred whenever these were improperly mixed, as in LET A="CHRIS".

There's a third type of variable that's not often used. An integer variable is denoted by a percent symbol (\%) after the variable name, just as a string variable is indicated by a dollar sign (\$). Integer variables are treated like other types of variables, so they can be used with such statements as PRINT, INPUT, READ, and so on. The difference lies in their possible values.

The numeric variables that have been used up until now are also known as floating-point variables. They can have fractional values, which are written in decimal form with digits to the right of the decimal. Integer variables cannot.

Integer numbers include the counting numbers (1, 2, 3, and so on), their negative counterparts ( $-1,-2,-3, \ldots$ ), and 0 . Fractional values cannot be represented by integers.

Integer variables can have integer values ranging from -32768 to +32767 . Values outside this range cause an ILLEGAL QUANTITY error.

```
LET A%=5:PRINT A% 5
N%=-3:PRINT N% -3
Q%=100000 ILLEGAL QUANTITY
```

If you try to assign a decimal value to an integer variable, the value is converted to an integer before it's assigned.

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
\text { A\%=5.5:PRINT A\% } & \mathbf{5} \\
\text { N\%=6.9:PRINT N\% } & 6
\end{array}
$$

This conversion uses the same process as that used by the integer function (INT(X)). The INT function takes a decimal value and returns the largest integer that's less than or equal to the argument (the value within parentheses). For positive numbers, this has the effect of dropping all digits to the right of the decimal point. But for negative numbers, it works a little differently.
PRINT INT(-5) -5
PRINT INT(-5.4) -6
In the first example, the argument is already an integer, so no conversion is necessary. The second example returns -6 instead of -5 , because -5 is actually larger than -5.4 . You can more easily see this on a number line, as shown by Figure
$1-1$. Notice that the largest integer less than -5.4 is not -5 , but -6 .

Figure 1-1. A Number Line


Here's another example:
A\%=-3: PRINT A\% -3
$\mathrm{N} \%=-3.427$ : PRINT N\% $\quad-4$
Integer and floating-point variables can be used together, since the variable named A\% is completely different from the variable named A. Floating-point variable A does not change when integer variable A\% is assigned, and vice versa. Integer variables can even take the values previously assigned to floating-point variables, although the values are converted into integer form. The process can be reversed as well. The next few lines illustrate all these points. Notice that the last line (IF $N=N \%$ THEN PRINT...) shows that $N$ and $N \%$ are not equal.
$\mathbf{Q}=3.14159:$ PI\% = Q : PRINT PI\% 3
$\mathbf{R} \%=32: \mathbf{S}=\mathbf{R} \%$ : PRINT S 32
$\mathbf{N}=\mathbf{2}: \mathbf{N} \%=3$ : IF N=N\% THEN PRINT "YES" (nothing printed)
The only exception to using integer and floating-point variables together is that the former can't be used as counting variables in FOR-NEXT loops. For some strange reason, Commodore 64 BASIC stops and displays a SYNTAX ERROR if you try to use an integer variable in this way.
FOR K\%=1 TO 10 : REM WRONG
In most computer languages, integer variables are available because they take less memory and can be processed faster. This isn't true, however, of integer variables in Commodore 64 BASIC. All math operations are computed using floating-point numbers, so if an integer variable is used in a math operation, $i$ its first converted to floating point (the machine's internal representation for integer and floating-point numbers is different). Then the operation is performed, and
the result converted back to integer form. Look at the following example; three conversions have to be done.
LET C $\%=\mathbf{A} \%+\mathbf{B} \%$

1. Convert $\mathrm{A} \%$ to floating point
2. Convert $\mathrm{B} \%$ to floating point

Perform the operation
3. Convert result to integer

Conversions take time. This means that integer variables actually compute slower than floating-point variables. Also, because each floating-point and integer variable take up seven bytes of free memory, using integer variables does not save memory.

All of this leads to a very good question. If integer variables have a limited range, cannot have decimal values, compute slower than floating-point variables, and take just as much memory, when would you ever want to use them? The answer is never, unless they're being used as an array. Each entry in an integer array takes only two bytes, compared with five bytes per entry in a floating-point array.

```
DIM A(100) \(\quad 101\) entries * \(5+7\)-byte array overhead \(=512\) bytes
```

DIM A\%(100) $\quad 101$ entries * $2+7$-byte array overhead $=209$ bytes
If your program is using several very large arrays and free memory is a concern, it may be worthwhile to use integer arrays. Or, if you want to use a certain variable name (such as $X$ ), but the name is already in use for a floating-point variable, you can still use the name with an integer variable ( $X \%$ ). With these exceptions, you might as well not bother to use integer variables.

## Summary

- Numeric variables used up to now are more accurately called floating-point variables.
- Type describes what kind of information is being conveyed by a variable. The two types of variables used thus far have been floating-point and string variables.
- Integer numbers include the counting numbers $1,2,3, \ldots$, their negative counterparts, and 0 . A fraction cannot be expressed by an integer.
- Integer variables are a third type of variable. They're distinguished from floating-point variables by a percent sign (\%) after their name.
- Integer variables can have integer values from -32768 to +32767 . If an integer variable is assigned a value outside this range, the ILLEGAL QUANTITY error will occur.
- When an integer variable is assigned a decimal value, the value is first converted to an integer using the same procedure as that used by the INT function. For positive numbers, this has the effect of dropping all digits to the right of the decimal point.
- Integer and floating-point variable names are completely separate. N and $\mathrm{N} \%$ are two different variables, and what happens to one will not affect the other.
- Integer variables can be used wherever floating-point variables can be used, except that they cannot be used as counting variables of FOR-NEXT loops. A SYNTAX ERROR would result.
- Integer variables take just as much memory as floating-point variables and actually compute slower.
- The only practical application of the integer variable type is for an array, the one time when integers take less memory than floating-point numbers. Each entry in an integer array takes two bytes, as opposed to five bytes per entry in a floating-point array.


## Random Number Seeding and Sequencing

The random function was introduced in Volume One as a means of adding a certain amount of unpredictability to a program. RND $(0)$ returns a decimal number between 0 and 1, and returns a different number each time it's called. By multiplying the value by 10 and taking the integer, a random number from 0 to 9 can be obtained. This is useful in such applications as games. There are some applications of random numbers, though, where you will not want to use RND(0). Although this function returns numbers between 0 and 1 , it will return only selected values. After a number of calls, RND(0) will repeat some values, yet not return others, no matter how many times the function is used. The following program line graphically demonstrates this.

```
1Ø Z=RND(Ø)*1Ø\emptyset\emptyset:POKE 55296+Z,15:POKE 1024+Z,160:G
    OTO 10
```

The plotting appears random at first, but it soon begins to form a pattern of diagonal lines. Since not all of the screen is covered, you can easily tell that the numbers generated by RND(0) are not very dense. In other words, there are plenty of values missing.

Fortunately, there's a solution to this. Change the argument of the RND function from 0 to 1 , clear the screen, and run the program again. This time the plotting does not form any discernable pattern, and if you let the program run long enough, the whole screen is eventually filled.

Commodore 64 BASIC actually supports two kinds of random functions. If the argument is 0 , the computer PEEKs some constantly changing hardware locations to construct the random number. This would be acceptable, except that the contents of the hardware locations do not change enough. One is a clock/timer that normally isn't even running!

Using the RND function with a nonzero argument calculates a value based on a repeating series. This process forms a very dense set of numbers, yet it's not without flaws either. RND(1) will return the same sequence of numbers every time you turn the computer on. Try it by first turning your computer off and back on. Then enter this line:

## PRINT RND(1);RND(1);RND(1)

Note the three values returned. Now turn the computer off again, then back on, and retype the line. After pressing RETURN, you'll see the same three values as before.

Using arguments such as 8 or 1.5 in place of 1 doesn't make any difference. The numbers may be dense, but they will always occur in the same order. This certainly limits the usefulness of the RND function for applications like games.

To get a dense set of numbers that will be different every time you turn on the computer, you have to "seed" the random number generator. This is usually done at the beginning of a program by calling the random function with a negative argument. For every negative argument, a different sequence is selected. For example, every time you enter the following line, you'll get the same results.

## N=RND(-1):PRINT RND(1);RND(1);RND(1)

Try changing the seed value to -2 . Though a different set of numbers will be printed, they'll still be the same each time. You can imagine that the computer holds a very long sequence
of numbers, and each seed starts the random function at a different point in the sequence.

To get truly random numbers, you need to randomly seed the random function. Sound confusing? It's not. Instead of using a constant negative number for the seed value at the beginning of the program, just use a changing value, such as:

## $1 \varnothing \varnothing \mathrm{~N}=\mathrm{RND}(-\mathrm{TI})$

Do this only once, when the program initializes, and then use $\operatorname{RND}(1)$ to get the random numbers.

This should be the perfect solution. You get a dense set of numbers, and the set is different every time. Random numbers produced by this technique are suitable for both games and statistical applications.

## Summary

- The random function, RND, returns a random decimal number between 0 and 1.
- When RND is called with an argument of 0 , the value returned is based on a hardware timer. However, only a few of the possible numbers are ever returned. In other words, the numbers are not very dense.
- Calling RND with an argument greater than 0 , such as 1 , makes the function return a value based on a repeating series. Values returned by $\operatorname{RND}(1)$ are dense. The only problem with $\operatorname{RND}(1)$ is that it returns values in the same order every time the computer is turned on.
- The random number generator can be "seeded" by calling RND with a negative argument. For each negative number, or seed, the values returned by $\operatorname{RND}(1)$ start at a different place in the series.
- To get truly random numbers (dense and different each time the computer is turned on), the random number generator should be seeded with a random value as part of a program's initialization. Using RND(-TI) should be satisfactory.


## More Functions

## Print Formatting Functions

The screen on the Commodore 64 is divided into 25 rows of 40 columns each. These rows are more specifically called physical lines. Another type of row is known as a logical line. You may have noticed while editing a line in BASIC, that when the typing wraps around to the left edge of the screen, the rows below scroll down. This makes room for typing on a second row. Together, the two rows form one logical line.

One logical line can be up to two physical lines long, which is why BASIC lines on the 64 cannot exceed 80 characters. If the typing wraps around to a third row, a new logical line is used.

Logical lines control the cursor movement when the RETURN key is pressed. Hitting RETURN moves the cursor to the beginning of the next logical line. This means that the cursor may move down one or two physical lines. Normally, the cursor just moves to the next row; if it's on the first row of a two-row logical line, however, it skips the second and goes to the first row of the next logical line.

Logical lines also affect screen scrolling. The screen may scroll by one or two rows. The number of rows in the logical line currently scrolling off the screen determines how far the screen scrolls.

The POS function returns the current horizontal position of the cursor within a logical line. POS indicates this position with a column number from 0 to 79 . Values $0-39$ correspond to the 40 columns of the first row, while those from 40 to 79 indicate that the cursor is on the second row of a logical line.

POS requires an argument. It's a dummy argument (it doesn't affect the value returned) and is usually set to 0 .

## PRINT POS(0)

PRINT "GRAPHICS" POS(0) "SOUND"
In the first example, BASIC printed a zero-that's because the cursor moved to column 0 when the RETURN key was pressed to enter the line. Eight was returned in the second example because the cursor was in column 8 after printing the word GRAPHICS.

Once in a while you'll find a situation in which POS may come in handy, but generally it's a relatively useless function.

Two functions which can be used more often are TAB and SPC. Actually, they are not true functions. They do not return values, and they can be used only in PRINT statements. TAB and SPC are used to change the position of the cursor. Here's an example:

## PRINT TAB(20) "HOWDY"

The only thing that was printed was the word HOWDY, but its first letter was in column 20. TAB is like a special instruction to the PRINT statement which makes the cursor move to a certain column. Commas in PRINT statements allow only very limited formatting of displayed information, because you have no choice about where the first character appears. With TAB, however, you can select your own columns. Program 2-1, "Parts," shows a simple example of how you can use TAB to format a screen display.

## Program 2-1. Parts

For error-free program entry, be sure to use "The Automatic Proofreader," Appendix D.


TAB works by comparing the number in parentheses with the current position (the value returned by POS). If the cursor has to be moved to the right, the necessary number of spaces are printed. TAB cannot move the cursor to the left, which would cause overwriting of something already on the screen. In fact, if you try to use $\operatorname{TAB}(12)$ when the cursor is at column 20, the cursor won't move. You can see this for yourself by entering this PRINT statement:

## PRINT TAB(20) 6 TAB(12) 4

Another use of TAB is to center or right justify text lines. These lines center each word printed.

```
1\varnothing READ S$:IF S$<>"END" THEN PRINT TAB(20-LEN(S$)/
    2) S$:GOTO 1\varnothing
2ø DATA BITMAPPED,GRAPHICS,MUSIC,SYNTHESIS,SPRITE
    {SPACE}ANIMATION, END
```

By changing the expression for the TAB value from $20-\operatorname{LEN}(\mathrm{S} \$) / 2$ to $39-\operatorname{LEN}(\mathrm{S} \$)$ the words will be right justified instead.

TAB is used to absolutely position the cursor. Regardless of where the cursor is, TAB moves it to the requested column, as long as it's not trying to move to the left. The SPC function works a little differently. It moves the cursor the designated number of spaces to the right from its current position. It allows relative positioning of the cursor. If the cursor is at column 8, for instance, $\operatorname{SPC}(10)$ moves it to column 18. If it's at column 12, SPC(10) moves it to column 22. This is useful when you want to print several leading spaces. A statement starting with PRINT SPC(6) is easier to read than PRINT ", where it can be hard to count the number of spaces. SPC can also be used to print patterns, as the example below illustrates.

```
10 FOR K=1 TO 9:PRINT SPC(K) MID$("COMMODORE",K,l) :NEXT K
```

Remember, TAB and SPC are not true functions, and can be used only with the PRINT statement. That means, though it would be handy, you cannot do something like this:

```
1\varnothing BL$=SPC(1|) : REM WRONG
```


## Summary

- A physical line is one of the 25 rows on the screen.
- A logical line can consist of one or two contiguous rows. A logical line becomes two rows long when typing at the right edge of the screen wraps around to the next row at the left edge.
- BASIC program lines are one logical line long, which is why they cannot be longer than 80 characters.
- When RETURN is pressed, the cursor moves to the beginning of the next logical line.
- Logical lines also affect screen scrolling.
- The POS function returns the current position (columns $0-79$ ) of the cursor within a logical line. Columns 40-79 indicate the second row of a logical line. Unfortunately, POS has few applications.
- TAB and SPC are special kinds of functions which can be used only in a PRINT statement. They control cursor
positioning, more like commas and semicolons in PRINT statements than like true functions. TAB and SPC do not return values.
- TAB advances the cursor to a designated column, as long as this does not require moving the cursor leftward. TAB allows absolute positioning of the cursor. Its applications include columnar printing and the centering and right justification of text.
- SPC moves the cursor to the right a designated number of spaces. Thus, SPC allows relative positioning of the cursor. SPC is used to print leading spaces and patterns.


## Transcendental Functions

This section presents a group of functions that are used mainly in mathematics-oriented applications.

The SQR function returns the square root of its argument. The square root of number $N$ is the number that, when multiplied by itself, produces $N$. Thus, the square root of 9 is 3 , because $3^{*} 3$ is 9 ; the square root of 16 is 4 . The square root of 12 is somewhere between 3 and 4, but the decimal representation for this number continues indefinitely. With nine digits the value can be approximated as 3.46410162 . Square roots of negative numbers are undefined, so using a negative argument with SQR causes an ILLEGAL QUANTITY error.

Finding the square root of a number is the same as raising the number to the power of $1 / 2$. Square roots can also be calculated by using the exponentiation operator-the up-arrow key on your Commodore $64(\uparrow)$-with the value 0.5 . That's why both the following lines produce the same result.

## PRINT SQR(12)

PRINT $12 \uparrow .5$
The only advantages to using SQR instead of the exponentiation operator are that SQR is easier to read, and it executes just a little faster.

It might be a good idea to take a moment and see how complex nathematical formulas are converted into BASIC expressions. BASIC, of course, uses a slightly dif ferent notation than nomal mathematics

A common formula that uses the SOR function is the solution to the quadratic equation $a x^{2}+b x+c=0$. The solution is wititen as:

$$
x=-b-1=\sqrt{b^{2}-4 a c}
$$

The first difficulty is the 1 operation, which is not available in BASIC. The equation has to be written twice, once using t and once using .

The long horizontal bar represents division, and means that the entine top part is to be divided by the bot tom part. To keep the precedence correct parentheses have to be used. Here's how the equations might be writ ten in BASIC.

```
X=(-B+SOR(Bt2-4*A*C)/2*A
X=(-B/SOR(Bt2-4*A*C))/2*A
```

These expressions, however, are wrong. A common mistake is to forget about precedence in the denominator. The quantity 2 A should be placed in paren theses so that the top part is divided by the value of $2 *$ A. As the above expressions are writen, the top part is first divided by 2 and then nulitiplied by A. That will give an incorrect result. This is the right way to note the formula:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& X=\left(B+S Q R\left(B 12-4^{*} A \cdot C\right) /(2 A)\right. \\
& X=\left(-B=S Q R\left(B+2=4^{*} A \cdot C\right) /(2 A)\right.
\end{aligned}
$$

These expressions are correct, but inefficient, The exponentiation operator executes vexy slowly. When possible, use multiplication instead. In this example, the

```
computer can calculate B*B almost seven times faster than
B12. Change the expressions to read:
X=(-B+SQR(B*B-4*A*C))/(2*A)
x=(-B-SQR(B*B-4*A*C))/(2*A)
```

For further optimization, the part $S Q R\left(B+B=4^{*} A^{*} C\right)$, called the discriminant, should be calculated only once, like this.

```
\(D=S O R\left(B+B-4^{*} A^{*} C\right)\)
\(X=(-B+D) /\left(2^{*} A\right)\)
\(X=(-B-D) /\left(2^{*} A\right)\)
```

One more thing can be done to simplify the second expression above. Replace ( $-\mathrm{B}+\mathrm{D}$ ) with the equivalent ( $\mathrm{D}-\mathrm{B}$ )

Converting formulas into BASIC expressions is ac tually quite easy Just remember the rules of prece dence and look for ways to optimize the code.

EXP and LOG are two more functions based on exponents. EXP takes the natural number $e$, a constant equal to 2.71828183, and raises it to the power specified by the argument. This power cannot exceed 88.0296919, or the OVERFLOW error occurs. Arguments less than -88.0296919 return 0.

Like the square root of $12, \mathrm{e}$ is an irrational number (it cannot be written as a fraction) and can only be approximated. The nine-digit approximation of $e$ is 2.71828183 , which is produced by EXP(1). This means that EXP can also be done using exponentiation. Both the following statements produce the same result.

## PRINT EXP(8)

PRINT E $\uparrow 8$ (assuming E equals 2.71828183)
Again, EXP is a little easier to work with than exponentiation, but in this case it's also much faster; it can be almost twice as fast as raising e to a power.

The LOG function is the inverse of EXP. Again, both of the next two statements return the same value, in this case 8.

## PRINT LOG(EXP(8)) <br> PRINT EXP(LOG(8))

Note that LOG computes natural logarithms, logarithms to the base $e$, instead of the base 10 often found on pocket
calculators. Also, due to the nature of logarithms, the argument must be greater than zero, or the ILLEGAL QUANTITY error occurs.

The remaining functions have to do with trigonometry. SIN and COS are used to calculate the sine and cosine of an angle specified in radians. Radians are often specified in terms of the irrational number pi, written $\pi$, which is approximately equal to 3.14159265 . Since this value is frequently used, it's available as a special keyboard character. Type SHIFT-up-arrow to get the $\pi$ symbol.

## PRINT $\pi$

If you prefer working with degrees instead of radians, you can convert one to the other. To convert $n$ degrees to radians, multiply $n$ by $\pi / 180$. To convert $n$ radians to degrees, multiply $n$ by $180 / \pi$.

The SIN and COS functions take the argument in radians, subtract any extra multiples of $2^{*} \pi$ (or 360 degrees), calculate the sine or cosine value, and return a decimal number from -1 to 1 .

The TAN function calculates the tangent of an angle given in radians. The tangent of an angle is equal to the sine of the angle divided by the cosine. Thus, TAN is not really necessary, but it is more convenient. However, because it is a fraction with COS in the denominator, some restrictions must be placed on TAN's argument. The function is undefined for the angles $\pi / 2,3^{*} \pi / 2$, and all equivalent angles. These angles have a cosine of zero, and since tangent is sine/cosine, this would lead to division by zero (undefined in normal mathematics). You'll see the DIVISION BY ZERO error when TAN is given an illegal angle.

The last function is ATN (arctangent), the inverse of TAN. ATN returns the angle in radians which has the given tangent as the argument. Where $\operatorname{TAN}(\pi / 4)$ is $1, \operatorname{ATN}(1)$ is $\pi / 4$, or 0.785398163 . ATN will always return values from $-\pi / 2$ to $\pi / 2$.

Other trigonometric functions can be calculated using the transcendental functions already described. See Appendix H of the Commodore 64 User's Guide (the manual that came with your computer) for a listing of these derived mathematical functions.

## Summary

- The SQR function returns the square root of its argument. The argument must be greater than or equal to zero, or an ILLEGAL QUANTITY error occurs. The function is used instead of raising a number to the power 0.5 because it's easier to read and executes slightly faster.
- The EXP function raises the natural number $e$, approximately equal to 2.71828183 , to the power indicated by its argument. If the power is greater than 88.0296919 , the OVERFLOW error occurs. If the power is less than -88.0296919, EXP will return 0 . EXP is used instead of exponentiation because it's easier to read and it executes significantly faster than raising e to a power.
- The function LOG returns the natural logarithm, the log to the base e, of its argument. The argument must be greater than zero to prevent the ILLEGAL QUANTITY error.
- The $\pi$ symbol can be used to represent the value 3.14159265 , an approximation of the mathematical constant pi.
- The SIN and COS functions return the sine and cosine, respectively, of the angle specified (in radians) as the argument. Extra multiples of $2^{*} \pi$ ( 360 degrees) are removed from the angle. The value returned is a decimal number from -1 to 1 .
- It's possible to convert radians to degrees, and vice versa. To convert $n$ degrees to radians, multiply $n$ by $\pi / 180$. To convert $n$ radians to degrees, multiply $n$ by $180 / \pi$.
- The TAN function returns the tangent of the angle (expressed in radians) given by the argument. TAN is not defined for the angles $\pi / 2,3^{*} \pi / 2$, and equivalent angles. Using any of these causes the DIVISION BY ZERO error.
- The ATN function is used to calculate the arctangent (inverse tangent). It returns the angle in radians which has the tangent specified as the argument. ATN will always return values from $-\pi / 2$ to $\pi / 2$.
- Formulas can be used to obtain other trigonometric functions, such as the remaining inverses and the hyperbolics.


## User-Defined Functions with the DEF Statement

Sometimes when writing a program, you may find yourself typing the same expression again and again. Consider a program that's working with dollar and cent values which has to
round numbers to the nearest cent several times. The process of rounding is done by the following expression:
INT(N* $\left.{ }^{*} 100+.5\right) / \mathbf{1 0 0}$
Given a number $N$, this formula will preserve all digits to the left of the decimal point (dollars) and the first two digits to the right of the decimal point (cents). The remaining digits will be dropped because they represent a value less than one cent. However, if what's dropped is half a cent or more, the number is rounded up. Try the short program below to check that the formula really does work.

```
10 INPUT N:PRINT INT(N*1\varnothing\emptyset+.5)/lø\emptyset
20 GOTO 10
```

The value 1.234 becomes 1.23 , but 1.235 will become 1.24 .
Other computers may have a rounding process included in their BASIC. It's usually implemented in the form of a function, so that rounding a number can be as easy as saying PRINT ROUND(N). Since Commodore 64 BASIC has no rounding function, the formula will have to be placed in a program wherever a number has to be rounded. If rounding was necessary in several parts of the program, this could take a fair amount of typing. The formula is somewhat complicated, and every time you enter it, you increase the chance of error. One solution is to use a subroutine instead, something like the program segment which follows.

```
1\varnothing INPUT N:GOSUB 6\emptyset:PRINT A
20 GOTO 10
6\varnothing A=INT(N*1\varnothing\emptyset+.5)/1\varnothing\varnothing:RETURN
```

For every place where a number has to be rounded, the statement GOSUB 60 can be used. This may be a little easier to type, and the risk of mistyping the formula is reduced because it's entered only once. But this method is still awkward to use.

The ideal solution would be to add the rounding process to BASIC as one of the standard functions. That's where the DEF statement comes in. DEF lets you create your own functions, which include arguments and are called like any other function. The availability of user-defined functions is one of the best features of Commodore 64 BASIC.

The syntax of the DEF statement consists of several parts:

The keyword DEF, the function name prefix FN, the function name, parentheses containing a variable, an equal sign, and finally an expression. The restrictions which apply to variable names apply to function names (only the first two characters are significant, the first character must be alphabetic, and the remaining characters are optional and must be alphanumeric). The expression should be defined in terms of the variable in the parentheses. This is rather complicated, so here's an example.

```
1\varnothing DEF FNR(N)=INT(N*1\varnothing\varnothing+.5)/1\varnothing\emptyset:REM DEFINES FUNCTI
    ON 'R'
```

To call the newly defined function, the function name prefix FN should be followed by the function name R, with parentheses containing an argument.

```
2Ø INPUT N:PRINT FNR(N):GOTO 2\emptyset:REM CALLS FUNCTION
    'R'
```

When $\operatorname{FNR}(\mathrm{N})$ is executed, the value of argument $N$ is substituted for every $N$ in the definition. PRINT FNR(3) means PRINT INT $\left(3^{*} 100+.5\right) / 100$. When you run the two-line program (lines 10 and 20 above), it gives the same results as the previous demonstrations. But the defined function is much more convenient.

There are several interesting things concerning the variable used in the function definition which you should know. First of all, the variable in the function call does not have to match the variable in the function definition. Line 20 could have been written as:
$2 \varnothing$ INPUT Q:PRINT FNR(Q):GOTO $2 \varnothing$
You don't even have to use a variable. Make sure the two-line program from above (with either version of line 20) is loaded and run, hit the RUN/STOP-RESTORE key combination, then type this line in immediate mode (without a line number).

## PRINT FNR(5.118)

You'll see 5.12 returned as the result.
The purpose of the variable in the definition is to show the relationship between the argument and the expression. The statement $\operatorname{DEF} \operatorname{FNR}(\mathrm{N})=\operatorname{INT}\left(\mathrm{N}^{*} 100+.5\right) / 100$ really
means define a function $R$ which will take the argument, multiply it by 100, add 0.5, take the integer portion, divide by 100, and return the result as the value of the function. The variable N has nothing to do with the definition, other than to show where the argument is in the expression. This is necessary in case more than one variable name appears.

```
1\varnothing DEF FNR(N)=INT(N*T+.5)/T
20 T=1\varnothing\emptyset
30 INPUT N:PRINT FNR(N):GOTO 30
```

The definition uses variable T, which has the value 100, to make the function execute a little faster. When executing function R, BASIC knows that the argument should be substituted for every N in the definition, because N , not T , appears as the argument.

Using a variable in a DEF statement, such as N , is a very unusual application. Variables are not used like this in any other aspect of BASIC. To illustrate the fact that N is independent of the defined function, here are two things you should know:

1. The value of $N$ is not affected by the definition or call of a function defined in terms of N .
2. The value of N has no effect on the definition or call of a function defined in terms of N .

To demonstrate the first point, take a look at the next short routine. It shows how the value of N is preserved through a function definition and call.

```
10 N=193 : REM ARBITRARY CHOICE
2\emptyset DEF FNR(N)=INT(N*1\varnothing\varnothing+.5)/lø\emptyset
30 PRINT FNR(2.639)
40 PRINT N : REM WILL PRINT 193
```

To illustrate the second point, just try different values for N in line 10. You'll see that function R always returns the same value for the argument 2.639, regardless of the value of N .

You can even define a function that doesn't use its argument. This line defines function G which returns a random integer from 1 to 10.
$1 \varnothing \operatorname{DEF} \operatorname{FNG}(X)=\operatorname{INT}(\operatorname{RND}(1) * 1 \varnothing)+1$
The argument, indicated by $X$, is not used in the
expression. This means that whenever function $G$ is called, the argument will not have any effect on the value returned by the function.

You can go further and use a dummy argument, such as 0 , just to satisfy the function's syntax.

## $2 \varnothing$ PRINT FNG(Ø)

Another possibility is to use two arguments in a function. Since the DEF statement syntax supports only one, variables will have to be used to pass the two values. The defined function in the following program ignores the argument from the function call and accepts the variables A and B instead. The function is named MN because it is a minimum function; it returns the smaller of the two arguments.

```
1\varnothing DEF FNMN(N)=-A*(A<B)-B*(A>=B)
2ø A=3:B=4
3ø PRINT FNMN(ø)
```

When you run this, the number 3 prints. Change A so that it's equal to or greater than $B$, and the number 4 will print instead.

## A=5:PRINT FNMN(0)

This program demonstrates the definition for a maximum function, one that returns the larger of the two arguments. Notice the three values that display. In each, the larger argument appears.

```
1\varnothing DEF FNMX(N)=-A* (A>B)-B* (A< B B)
2\emptyset A=3:B=4:PRINT FNMX(\varnothing)
30 A=5:PRINT FNMX(\varnothing)
4ø B=-7:PRINT FNMX(0)
```

As you can see, using function calls can prevent repeated typings of an expression.

One application of user-defined functions is to calculate low and high bytes of memory addresses. A common method of storing data, from note information for a song to a sprite shape definition, is to place a sequence of bytes in memory locations. Whatever the information is, its first location is the address of the data. Locations can range from 0 to 65535; so can addresses.

This, however, presents a problem-there will be many
times when you'll have to store an address in a memory location. Locations hold values (bytes) which have a range only of $0-255$. Since there's no way to convert an address (0-65535) into a byte (0-255), it's necessary to express the address in the form of two bytes. The high byte indicates the number of multiples of 256 , and the low byte specifies the remainder. All memory locations can be expressed with this two-byte format. The table below shows some examples.

| Address | $\mathbf{H i}$ | Lo |
| :---: | ---: | ---: |
| 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 1 | 0 | 1 |
| 2 | 0 | 2 |
| 254 | 0 | 254 |
| 255 | 0 | 255 |
| 256 | 1 | 0 |
| 257 | 1 | 1 |
| 511 | 1 | 255 |
| 512 | 2 | 0 |
| 513 | 2 | 1 |
| 1024 | 4 | 0 |
| 49152 | 192 | 0 |
| 49487 | 193 | 79 |
| 65535 | 255 | 255 |

To break any address into its two equivalent bytes, two functions are needed.

```
10 DEF FNH(N)=INT(N/256):DEF FNL(N)=N-256*INT(N/25
    6)
2ø INPUT A:PRINT FNH(A);FNL(A):GOTO 2Ø
```

Function H calculates the high byte and function L calculates the low byte. Check the values in the chart by running the program, and then enter a few of your own.

You'll find these two functions used quite often in programs in other parts of this book. Usually the low and high bytes will be POKEd into two consecutive memory locations, such as in:

## POKE 251,FNL(BA):POKE 252,FNH(BA)

By convention, the low byte is always POKEd into the first location, and the high byte into the second. This format is important to remember.

A third function used in later programs is one that reconstructs an address stored in low byte/high byte form.

## $10 \operatorname{DEF} \operatorname{FNDP}(\mathrm{~A})=\operatorname{PEEK}(\mathrm{A})+256 * \operatorname{PEEK}(\mathrm{~A}+1)$

The "double PEEK" function PEEKs the two locations and returns the address they contain. If you type in and run the line above, then enter $\operatorname{PRINT} \operatorname{FNDP}(n)$, where $n$ is the low byte location, the function will calculate the address and display it.

You may have noticed that part of the definition for function $L$ is the same as that for function $H$. Can one defined function call another? Certainly. Take a look at this line.
$1 \varnothing \operatorname{DEF} \operatorname{FNH}(\mathrm{~N})=\operatorname{INT}(\mathrm{N} / 256): \operatorname{DEF} \operatorname{FNL}(\mathrm{N})=\mathrm{N}-256 * \operatorname{FNH}(\mathrm{~N})$
The only thing you don't want a function definition to do is call itself. BASIC won't know how to deal with that and indicates its confusion by printing the OUT OF MEMORY error if the function is called.

## $10 \operatorname{DEF} \operatorname{FNB}(X)=3+\mathrm{FNB}(X)$ : REM WRONG

If there are any SYNTAX ERRORs in the expression for the function definition, they won't be detected until the function is actually called. It's also possible for an error to occur within a defined function, such as ILLEGAL QUANTITY, DIVISION BY ZERO, or OVERFLOW. In all these cases, when BASIC stops and prints the error, the line number indicated is the line of the function call, not the definition.

Another error associated with user-defined functions is UNDEF'D FUNCTION. This happens whenever a program tries to call a function not yet defined. The most common causes are either forgetting to define the function or using different names for the function definition and call.

Once a function has been defined, it doesn't have to keep that definition. If a function name is already in use, but placed in another DEF statement, the old definition will be replaced with the new. This also means that it's okay for the same DEF statement to be executed more than once. No error will occur.

Defined functions are erased by the CLR statement.
The argument in a DEF statement must be a floating-point variable. Using a string variable or an integer variable leads to a SYNTAX ERROR.

Finally, like the GET and INPUT statements, the DEF statement can be executed only in a program. Attempting to define a function in the immediate mode only causes the ILLEGAL DIRECT error.

## Summary

- Sometimes you'll find yourself entering the same expression again and again. Often the expression performs some process on a value. Repeatedly typing the same expression should be avoided, not only to eliminate extra work, but also to lessen the chance of error.
- The ideal way to handle such an expression is to implement it as a function. The value used by the expression could be the argument, and the number produced by the expression could be the value returned by the function.
- One of the best features of Commodore 64 BASIC is that it lets you create new functions through the DEF statement. Functions defined with DEF behave just like standard BASIC functions. They have a name, take an argument, and return a value.
- The syntax for the DEF statement is: DEF, the function name prefix FN, the function name, parentheses containing a floating-point variable for an argument, an equal sign, and an expression.
- Function names follow the same syntax rules as variable and array names. The first character must be alphabetic and the remaining characters, which are optional, must be alphanumeric. Only the first two characters are significant.
- The variable in parentheses is called the argument variable. The expression is defined in terms of this argument variable. Every occurrence of the argument variable name in the expression is used to represent the value passed as the argument.
- The argument variable is used only as a place holder, to show the relationship of the argument to the expression. Any variable name can be used, even one that does not appear elsewhere in the program.
- The DEF statement can be used only in program mode.
- To call a defined function, use the prefix FN followed by the function name, then parentheses containing an argument that is passed to the function.
- When the function is called, BASIC refers to the expression in the definition and substitutes the argument passed for every occurrence of the argument variable. BASIC then evaluates the expression and returns the result as the function value.
- The value of the variable used to represent the argument is not changed when DEF is executed or when the function is called; the definition and call of a function are not affected by the value of the variable.
- The argument of a call to a defined function can be a number, a variable, or an expression. It does not have to be a variable matching the argument variable in the corresponding DEF statement.
- The expression in the DEF statement does not have to contain the variable for the argument. The function can ignore the argument, and the argument will have no effect on the value returned. It will be a dummy argument.
- To pass more than one argument to a defined function, variables have to be used. A function can ignore the normal argument and return a value based on one or more variables. An example here was a minimum function which took two arguments and returned the lesser value. The definition for this function expected the two arguments to always be in the variables A and B.
- The expression for a definition can contain other variables, functions, or even other defined functions.
- The only thing that a function definition may not contain is a call to itself. That is a form of recursion, which BASIC cannot handle, and is reflected by an OUT OF MEMORY error.
- When a call is made to a function that has not yet been defined, the UNDEF'D FUNCTION error occurs. Other errors, such as SYNTAX and ILLEGAL QUANTITY, can also occur while a function is being called. Whenever such an error occurs, the line number displayed is the line of the call, not of the definition.
- A function can be redefined without an error. This means that the definition associated with a function name can be changed while the program is running, or the same DEF statement can be executed more than once.
- All defined functions are erased when CLR is performed.
- The first memory location for a sequence of bytes is called the address of the data. An address can range from 0 to 65535. An address can be expressed in a two-byte format, each byte in the range $0-255$. The high byte indicates multiples of 256 , the low byte the remainder, of the address.
- Being able to express an address in this form makes it possible to POKE the address into memory locations.
- When the low and high bytes of an address are POKEd into memory locations, two very important rules must be followed: First, the locations must be contiguous. Second, the low byte is always POKEd into the first location, and the high byte is always POKEd into the second location.
- An address can be reconstructed after it has been broken down into low and high bytes and POKEd into locations. To get the original value, PEEK the second location, multiply it by 256 , and add the result to the value found in the first location.
- A common application of defined functions is to calculate low and high bytes, and to reconstruct addresses. In this book, functions L and H are always used to take an address and return the low and high byte, respectively. Function DP will always take a location number, PEEK the location and the one that follows, and return a reconstructed address.


## File Input/Output

## Introduction to $\mathrm{I} / \mathrm{O}$

A computer is a communications device-it moves information from one place to another. The most common example is when the computer accepts information from a user through the keyboard, and presents information by displaying it on a screen. This process of communicating is referred to as input/output, and is often abbreviated as I/O.

The keyboard and screen are not the only parts of a computer system that can be involved in input/output. Other peripherals, such as a printer, tape recorder, disk drive, or modem, can also be used to transfer information. With a printer, you can get a permanent copy of a program listing or program results on paper. The Datassette recorder and the disk drive can be used to load and save programs and other kinds of information. By using a modem and a telephone, you can connect your computer to other similarly equipped computers.

Collectively, the keyboard, screen, printer, Datassette, disk drive, and modem are called devices. The transfer of information takes place between the computer and one of these devices. An important aspect of this information exchange is the direction in which the information is traveling. The direction describes whether information is being sent or being received, and is always described from the point of view of the computer. If the computer is receiving information from a device, the term input is used. When the computer is sending information to a device, it's termed output. Sometimes the terms reading and writing are used to mean receiving and sending.

With some devices, only one direction is possible. For example, the keyboard can be used only to input information. The keyboard is not capable of displaying information, and it would be ridiculous to try to make the computer send information to the keyboard. On the other hand, the printer is an output-only device. Information cannot be entered into the computer through the printer. Devices such as the Datassette, disk drive, and modem, however, support both input and output.

The purpose of this chapter is to show you how BASIC can be used to make the computer communicate with other
devices. BASIC's input statements are GET and INPUT, and its output statement is PRINT. With a few modifications, these same statements can be used with all the devices, not just the keyboard and screen. The next section introduces a new way to access the keyboard and screen, while the later sections show how these methods can be applied to the other devices.

## Summary

- The process of the computer communicating is called input/output, abbreviated $I / O$. A typical example is when the computer receives information from the keyboard and transmits information to the screen.
- Those parts of the computer system which can be used for input or output-the keyboard, screen, printer, Datassette, disk drive, and modem-are called devices. The transfer of information takes place between the computer and a device.
- The direction of the transfer is described from the point of view of the computer. When the computer accepts information from a device, the term input is used. Output applies to information sent from the computer to a device.
- Some devices are capable of communicating in only one direction. The keyboard can be used only to input information, for instance, and the printer can be used only to output information. Other devices, including the Datassette, disk drive, and modem, can communicate in both directions.
- The rest of this chapter will show how to use variations of GET, INPUT, and PRINT to communicate with all devices, not just the keyboard and screen.


## The OPEN and CLOSE Statements

To formally initiate communication with a device, you must create a file which is used for the actual input/output. Creating a file informs the computer that I/O is going to be performed. The file then acts as a sort of intermediary:
Information to be sent to the device is first sent to the file; information coming from the device is first brought into the file to be retrieved by BASIC. Like a program, a file is more of a concept than a tangible reality.

For now, all that matters is that you realize a file is necessary in order to communicate with a device, and that the communication is done through the file. The details of how a
file works will become clearer as you explore its function and use.

A file is created by the OPEN statement, which has the following syntax:

## OPEN file number, device number, command number, filename

The file number, sometimes also called the logical file number, can range from 1 to 255 . Numbers greater than 127 may have special significance and normally should not be used. The actual value is chosen by the programmer, but the most common is 1 . The file number will later be used by the GET, INPUT, and PRINT statements.

Since it's possible for several devices to be active at the same time, the file number is needed to distinguish one currently active file from another. For example, a program could print a prompt on the screen, wait for a response on the keyboard, print a status message on the printer, and read in some information from the disk. For each device that's used, a new file must be created with a different file number. In the example above, the screen might have been opened as file 1 , the keyboard as file 2 , the printer as file 3 , and the disk as file 4.

The device number is needed to specify which device is associated with the file. Each device is identified by its own number.

| Number | Device |
| :--- | :--- |
| 0 | Keyboard |
| 1 | Datassette |
| 2 | RS-232 (modem) |
| 3 | Screen |
| 4 | Printer |
| $5,6,7$ | Other devices |
| 8 | Disk drive |

As long as the file is open, the device indicated by the device number will correspond with the file. All references to the file will be directed to the specified device.

The command number is also called the secondary address. It's not needed when using the keyboard or screen, and will be discussed in a later section.

The filename is needed when working with devices such as tape or disk drive. Like the command number, the filename will be dealt with later.

This leaves us with the simplest form of the OPEN statement:
OPEN file number, device number
Here's an example of how the statement would look in a program.

## $1 \varnothing$ OPEN $1, \varnothing$

This creates a file, designated as file 1 , which uses device 0 , the keyboard. To input information from file 1, the INPUT statement can now be used. However, since there might be several files open, to various devices, the computer will need to know from which file the input is expected. That's why the file number must be included as part of the INPUT statement, as shown by the next line.

## INPUT\# file number, variable list

In our example program, the INPUT statement would look like:

## 20 INPUT\#1,N

The \# symbol is considered a part of the keyword, so no space is allowed between the word INPUT and the symbol. A comma must be used after the file number. Using a semicolon causes a SYNTAX ERROR.

Add these two lines to lines 10 and 20 above, and run the short program to see how this special form of INPUT works.

```
30 PRINT
40 PRINT "YOU TYPED" N
```

Notice that there's no question mark printed as a prompt. The cursor just blinks, waiting for you to enter a number. When you type a number and press RETURN, the program echoes it back, as you'd expect. Now run it again, but this time enter some letters instead of a number. Instead of getting the REDO FROM START message, the program stops with a FILE DATA error. If you run the program once more and type two numbers separated by a comma, you'll not get the EXTRA IGNORED message-instead, just the first number appears. Also, if you examine the syntax for the new INPUT, you'll discover that no optional prompt message is allowed. As you can
see, INPUT used with a file is different from the INPUT with which you're already familiar.

The explanation of these differences is that the plain INPUT is a special form of INPUT\#. Because INPUT is always used with the keyboard, features like prompt messages and error handling are helpful. However, since INPUT\# may be used to fetch information from a device other than the keyboard, such as a data file on tape, features like prompt messages would not be appropriate or even desirable.

Let's try using the screen for output. Erase the old program by typing NEW, and enter this one.

```
10 OPEN 1,3 : REM 3 IS FOR SCREEN
20 PRINT#1,34
3\emptyset PRINT#1,"HAPPY BIRTHDAY"
4Ø PRINT#1,64,46
```

The \# symbol is a part of the keyword, so this is one instance where the abbreviation for PRINT (?) cannot be usedyou must type the full word PRINT\#. As with INPUT\#, a comma is needed after the file number. This first comma does not affect spacing. Run the program to see for yourself.

There's no difference between using PRINT and PRINT\# when the file has been opened to the screen. If a program is going to be printing information only to this device, there's no sense in using PRINT\# when the normal PRINT works just as well. The advantage in using the file method is that by changing the device number in the OPEN statement, all printing will be directed to a different device. By simply changing the 3 in the OPEN statement to 4 , the messages will be printed on the printer instead of the screen (assuming a printer is connected). Use of the printer is discussed in greater detail in the next section.

Now let's consider using two open files at the same time. The next program uses file 1 for keyboard input, and file 2 for screen output.

```
1\varnothing OPEN 1,\emptyset : REM KEYBOARD
2\emptyset OPEN 2,3 : REM SCREEN
3\emptyset PRINT#2,"WHAT IS YOUR NAME?";
40 INPUT#1,N$
5\emptyset PRINT#2
6\emptyset FOR K=1 TO l\emptyset
7\varnothing PRINT#2,N$
8\emptyset NEXT K
```

Because two files are open simultaneously, different file numbers must be used. If the second OPEN statement also used file 1, a FILE OPEN error would occur. Use this new line 20 with the program you just ran.
$2 \emptyset$ OPEN 1,3 : REM SCREEN
The error indicates that file 1 is already in use. A number (such as 1) cannot be used in another OPEN statement until the file currently using that number is finished with all input/output. At that time, the file should be closed with the CLOSE statement, which has a very simple syntax.

## CLOSE file number

The CLOSE statement formally terminates an input/output session with a device. The file created by the earlier OPEN no longer exists after CLOSE is executed, and the file number is free to use in opening another file. The following program shows how CLOSE is used.

```
10 OPEN 1,3 : REM SCREEN
2Ø PRINT#1,"WHAT IS YOUR NAME?";
30 CLOSE 1
4Ø OPEN 1,\emptyset : REM KEYBOARD
50 INPUT#1,N$
60 CLOSE 1
70 OPEN 1,3 : REM SCREEN
8Ø PRINT#1
90 FOR K=1 TO 10:PRINT#l,N$:NEXT K
```

If you run this, you'll not see a FILE OPEN error. That's because the CLOSE statement closed file 1 after it was used.

At this point you may be wondering why it's even necessary to bother with a file at all. Instead of a file number after PRINT\# and INPUT\#, why not just use the device number? The answer lies in the fact that with some devices, other information besides a device number is needed. Input/output with the disk or cassette requires that a filename be specified.
Entering the filename in an OPEN statement once, and then using the corresponding file number in each subsequent PRINT\# or INPUT\# statement is a lot easier than typing the filename every time those statements are used.

Another reason is that some devices (such as the disk drive) permit more than one file to be open at the same time. The computer could input information from two different disk
files. Since the device number for both these files would be 8 , just using a device number in an INPUT statement would not be enough-the computer couldn't tell them apart. File structure using OPEN and CLOSE provides an organized means of communicating with all types of devices, and has proven to be a good method for general input/output.

There are a few other errors which can appear when using file input/output. You've already seen the FILE OPEN error when you tried to open an already opened file. The FILE NOT OPEN error occurs when you try to access a file that has not been opened. You'll see this error when you run this next program.

```
10 OPEN 1,3
2\emptyset PRINT#3 : REM FILE 3 NOT OPENED YET
```

The NOT OUTPUT FILE error happens when an attempt is made to output information to a device which can only handle input, such as the keyboard. Likewise, the NOT INPUT FILE error occurs when a program requests input from a device which is not capable of outputting information.

These kinds of errors can occur only when there is something wrong with a program's logic. They should not happen when the normal OPEN and CLOSE procedure is followed. The only two errors which denote some other type of problem are FILE DATA and DEVICE NOT PRESENT. The FILE DATA error (described as BAD DATA in Commodore literature) occurs when INPUT\# is expecting a numeric value, but a string value is received instead. In some cases it's best to always use string variables with INPUT\#, and the VAL function to determine if the value was a number. This prevents the program from crashing due to the FILE DATA error.

A DEVICE NOT PRESENT error appears when either the device is not connected to the computer or it's not turned on. A program has no way of preventing this type of error, so you just have to make sure that all peripherals are properly hooked up and have power before running a program that may use them.

A few more comments should be made about the CLOSE statement. It's good practice for a program to use CLOSE when it's finished sending or receiving information. This promotes good style and frees up a file for use later in the
program. When using tape or disk files, it's absolutely necessary to use CLOSE to terminate I/O.

A CLOSE of all files is performed as part of a CLR. Since CLR is part of the RUN, NEW, and LOAD commands, and also happens automatically when a program line is changed, any of these actions will close all open files.

## Summary

- The OPEN statement is used to create a file through which input/output will be done. A file is the programming link between the computer and a device.
- The full syntax for the OPEN statement is the keyword OPEN, a file number, a comma, a device number, another comma, a command number, one more comma, and then a filename.
- The file number, also called the logical file number, is used to distinguish one active file from another. It's necessary because there may be several different files open at the same time.
- The file number is chosen by the programmer and may range from 1 to 255 . File numbers greater than 127 are reserved for special purposes. File numbering usually starts at 1.
- The file number will later be used in the PRINT\#, GET\#, and INPUT\# statements.
- The device number is used to identify the device associated with a file.
- A file can use only one device.
- The command number, also called the secondary address, and the filename are optional, and are covered in a later section.
- To make the INPUT statement read from a file instead of the keyboard, use INPUT\#, the file number, a comma, and then a variable list, as in INPUT\#1,N. No space is allowed between INPUT and the \# symbol.
- The INPUT statement is actually a special form of INPUT\# which is always set for keyboard input.
- Features like REDO FROM START and EXTRA IGNORED warning messages are not available with INPUT\#. If INPUT\# is expecting a numeric variable and gets characters, BASIC stops with a FILE DATA error. There's no warning if extra information is available. Also, INPUT\# does not support an optional prompt string.
- These features are useful only when input is coming from the keyboard. Since INPUT\# may get data from another device, it does not support these features.
- To make PRINT send output to a device other than the screen, use PRINT\# followed by a file number, a comma, and then the information that is to be sent. No space is allowed between PRINT and \#, and the ? abbreviation cannot be used.
- PRINT\# to a file which has been opened to the screen is no different from using PRINT.
- Attempting to communicate with a file that's not been created by an OPEN causes the FILE NOT OPEN error. Attempting to open a file using a file number that is already in use causes the FILE OPEN error.
- When the computer is finished communicating with a device and the file is no longer needed, use the CLOSE statement to terminate the file. The syntax for this statement is the keyword CLOSE, followed by the file number.
- Once a file has been closed, it can be opened again for use with a different device.
- All files are automatically closed as part of CLR.
- The NOT OUTPUT FILE error occurs when you try to use PRINT\# with a device that cannot handle output, such as the keyboard. The NOT INPUT FILE error occurs when you try to use INPUT\# with a device that's not capable of generating input, such as the printer.
- The DEVICE NOT PRESENT error occurs when the computer tries to communicate with a peripheral that's either not hooked up or not turned on.


## The Printer and the CMD Statement

A printer is an important part of a complete computer system because it can give you a permanent copy of information.
Sending program output to a printer is as easy as using two statements.

```
1\varnothing OPEN l,4 : REM PRINTER
2ø PRINT#l,"MUSIC FILE LISTING"
```

All information being output by PRINT\#1 will be sent to the printer. Of course, just plain PRINT will still print to the screen.

```
l\emptyset PRINT "TURN ON THE PRINTER"
20 PRINT "AND HIT ANY KEY"
30 GET K$:IF K$="" GOTO 30
40 OPEN 1,4 : REM PRINTER
50 PRINT#1,"MUSIC FILE LISTING"
6\emptyset PRINT "PRINTER IS WORKING"
```

You can also use a variable for the device number in the OPEN statement and let the person running the program decide where the information will be sent. This technique is demonstrated by the next program.

```
10 INPUT "OUTPUT DEVICE NUMBER";DN
20 OPEN l,DN
30 PRINT#l,"MUSIC FILE LISTING"
```

The program user could enter either 4 for printer output or 3 for the screen. Using the OPEN statement like this means that you don't have to worry about where the printing will be sent. You can write the program just like any other, and as long as you use PRINT\# wherever you would normally use PRINT, it will have the ability to send output to the printer, screen, or any other device.

There are just a few minor differences between printing on the screen and printing on paper. One obvious difference is that the printer will not know what to do with special CHR\$ codes which move the cursor, change the current character color, or clear the screen. Printers usually do not have backspacing capability and cannot erase anything that's already been printed.

A more subtle difference has to do with the print formatting functions, POS and TAB. Both of these depend on the current location of the screen cursor. The POS function returns that value, and TAB uses it to determine how many spaces the cursor should be moved to the right. Since the screen cursor does not move when information is sent to the printer, these functions will not work correctly with printer output. This is not a major inconvenience, though, because the SPC function will still work and can be used to simulate TAB. The comma used for far spacing and printing in columns will also work differently for printer output.

The combination of OPEN and PRINT\# can be very powerful. Nevertheless, there are some instances when it would be nice to send output to the printer which is not
program-generated. For example, it would be handy to be able to send a program listing to the printer. A program is much easier to read and debug when you can see it on paper, rather than just a screen at a time. For situations like this, the CMD statement is available.

## CMD file number

The CMD statement causes all output normally sent to the screen to be sent to the designated file. This includes output from normal PRINT statements, INPUT prompt messages, disk and tape SEARCHING and LOADING messages, program listings, and even the READY. prompt. The file must, of course, be open when CMD is executed, or a FILE NOT OPEN error will occur. By using CMD, you can list a program on the printer by entering only three lines in immediate mode.
OPEN 1,4
CMD 1
LIST
This could also be used to print a disk directory. (Remember to load the directory before opening the file because LOAD closes all open files.) Any printing that defaults to the screen will now be sent to the file.

The syntax for CMD allows an optional comma and string to be placed after the file number. The string will be the first thing sent to the file when the CMD statement is executed. This is useful for such things as titling program listings.

## LOAD "POEM"

## OPEN 1,4:CMD 1,"POEM":LIST

CMD does not have to be used with just the printer. It can be used to send normal screen output to any device, such as the modem. Remember, CMD sends the output to a file; the device to which the information is sent depends on how the file was opened.

CMD stays in effect until the file is closed or an error occurs, in which case printing reverts back to the screen.

It's recommended that you send an empty print line before closing a CMD file, to help the computer terminate the I/O.

## OPEN 1,4:CMD 1:REM START CMD PRINT\#1:CLOSE 1:REM STOP CMD

When CMD is used in a program, in effect it changes every PRINT into a PRINT\#. This is useful when you have a
program which uses PRINT statements, but you want the output to be sent to a device different from the screen.

You might wonder why PRINT\# has to be used at all if CMD is available. As it turns out, there are some reasons why it's better to use PRINT\#. The major reason applies when you want your program to communicate with more than one device. If you use CMD to send output to one device and then switch to another, output may in some cases end up going to both. Also, CMD can sometimes turn itself off even when the file has not been closed.

PRINT\# is more reliable and is usually the better choice. CMD is best used in the immediate mode when you want to do something that can't be done with PRINT\#, such as listing a program to the printer. When using CMD in a program, make sure the program is sending output to only one device.

The remaining topics concerning the printer have to do with special modes of operation.

The file number in OPEN should normally be in the range 1-127. File numbers greater than 127 have a special meaning when used with the printer, because they instruct the computer to send a linefeed character after every carriage return. The linefeed character makes the printer advance the paper one line. Most printers do this automatically when they receive a carriage return. A printer which does not have this feature will keep printing on the same line. If your printer doesn't have the automatic linefeed feature, or if it does and you want the printer to use double-spacing, use a file number from 128 to 255.

If you're using a Commodore printer, the third parameter of the OPEN statement, the command number, can be used to select a character set. When no command is specified, the printer assumes that the command number is 0 , which means that the uppercase and graphics character set will be used.

## OPEN 1,4: REM UPPERCASE/GRAPHICS

or
OPEN 1,4,0 : REM UPPERCASE/GRAPHICS
If you want the printer to use the uppercase/lowercase set, use 7 as the command number.

## OPEN $1,4,7$ : REM UPPERCASE/LOWERCASE

Remember, this applies only to Commodore printers.

Some printers support special operations modes. These may allow double-width printing, underlining, bold print, different type styles, dot graphics, and other features. They're invoked after a file has been opened by sending control codes to it. Control codes are sent as ASCII characters. For example, the statement PRINT\#1,CHR\$(14) makes a Commodore printer select the double-width mode, which means that characters are expanded to twice their normal width. Printing CHR $\$(15)$ turns the mode off. Other printers may use different numbers, so consult your manual for more information.

Sometimes printers require an escape character, abbreviated ESC, to be sent before the control code. The ESC code is character 27, so you would have to use PRINT\#1,CHR\$(27); CHR\$(control code) to select the desired mode.

## Summary

- To send program output to the printer, open a file to device 4 and use PRINT\#.
- When sending output to the printer, the formatting functions POS and TAB, and comma spacing, will not work correctly.
- To send computer-generated output (such as a program listing) to the printer, open a file to device 4 and use the CMD statement. The statement's syntax is the keyword CMD, the file number, and an optional comma and string.
- The file must already be open, or the FILE NOT OPEN error will occur.
- If a string is included with the CMD statement, it will be sent to the file. A typical use of this feature is to title a program listing.
- When executed, CMD redirects all output that normally defaults to the screen to go to the file instead. This includes output from PRINT, as well as messages generated by the computer, such as the READY. prompt.
- CMD has no effect on printing sent to a file by PRINT\#, even if the device associated with the file is the screen.
- When CMD is being used with a device other than the keyboard or screen, it's a good practice to send an empty print line to the file before closing it.
- CMD stays in effect until the file is closed or an error occurs. In either case, printing reverts back to the screen.
- It's best to use CMD only in situations where PRINT\#
cannot be used, for it's not always reliable. This is especially true when the program uses multiple devices.
- File numbers greater than 127 make the computer send a linefeed after every carriage return. This is necessary if your printer does not automatically advance the paper. If your printer does, use a file number from 128 to 255 for doublespacing.
- When using a Commodore printer, the third parameter of the OPEN statement, the command number, can be used to select a character set. Use 0 for the uppercase/graphics set, which is the default set. Use 7 to switch to the uppercase/ lowercase character set.
- Some printers support special modes of operation, such as double-width printing. These modes are enabled by sending control codes to the printer, either by printing a string or by using the CHR\$ function. Sometimes a control code may have to be preceded by the ESC (escape) character, CHR\$(27).


## Files on Tape

Thus far you've probably used the Datassette only for storing and retrieving programs. This storage and retrieval is necessary because the computer can hold only one program in memory at a time-anything in memory is erased when the computer is turned off. It's much easier to load a program than it is to retype it every time you want to use it!

When a program is saved to tape, it's stored as a file consisting of program lines. That doesn't mean tape files can contain only program lines. They can contain other information, such as numbers and character strings, just as easily. Just as a program is lost when the computer is turned off, so is the data maintained by that program. You may want a program to save this data to tape for future reference.

An example is a word processing program which saves a document on tape for later changes and reprinting. Or a game might maintain a high-score file that would have to be periodically updated. A mailing list program is of little value if it can't save the names and addresses on tape or disk. A long and complex adventure game may have an option to stop play and continue later, in which case the current character status would have to be saved. These are all excellent applications of data files on tape.

The Datassette differs from other devices such as the keyboard and printer, since it can be used for both input and output. However, the Datassette can handle only one direction at a time, because the user controls the pressing of the RECORD button. So the direction has to be specified by the program when the file is opened. Another aspect of tape I/O is that filenames can be used. Both of these things can be handled by the OPEN statement.
OPEN file number, device number, command number, filename
This is the complete syntax of OPEN. The file number can range from 1 to 127 . The device number for the Datassette is 1 , which is the default value if none is specified. The command number tells the direction.

## Number Command

$0 \quad$ Input (read from Datassette)
1 Output (write to Datassette)
If no command number is given, the computer opens the file for input.

Finally, a filename, up to 16 characters long, can be specified. As when saving a program, a filename does not have to be specified. However, if none is given when opening a file for output, none can be specified when the file is later opened for input.

Here's an example of a file being opened for tape output.

## OPEN 1,1,1,"TAPE FILE"

The file can later be opened for input by the following statement.

## OPEN 1,1,0,"TAPE FILE"

Let's examine just how the information is stored and retrieved. The following program creates a tape file containing two items of information.

```
10 REM GAME HI SCORE DEMONSTRATION
2\emptyset N$="CHRIS":SC=12345
30 OPEN l,l,l,"HI SCORE":REM TAPE OUTPUT
40 PRINT#1,N$:REM NAME
50 PRINT#1,SC:REM SCORE
60 CLOSE 1
70 END
```

When this program ends, a new file exists on tape. You can't load it as a program, but its contents can be retrieved by a program like this:

```
10 REM GAME HI SCORE DEMONSTRATION
2\emptyset OPEN l,l,\emptyset,"HI SCORE":REM TAPE INPUT
3ø INPUT#l,N$,SC:REM NAME AND SCORE
40 CLOSE 1
50 PRINT N$ " HAD A HIGH SCORE OF" SC
60 END
```

This is a rather simple example, but even so, it demonstrates a couple of important things. First, notice that the program which created the tape file used two PRINT\# statements, instead of only one followed by a variable list. To understand why, let's consider exactly what's stored on the tape when PRINT\# is used.

The first PRINT\# writes the character string "CHRIS" to the file. Then, because there is no comma or semicolon at the end of the statement, a carriage return is written to the file. A carriage return is character 13 , or CHR\$(13). The second PRINT\# writes the number 12345 to the file. Because BASIC prints positive numbers with one leading space and one trailing space, a total of seven characters will be written. The CHR\$(13) for the second PRINT\# would be the last character. The resulting file could be represented like this:
CHRISCHR\$(13)(space)12345(space)CHR\$(13)
Think of what happens when you use PRINT to print two values. The statement PRINT N\$,SC will print the name CHRIS, then print a few spaces because of the comma, print the number 12345, and finally print the ending CHR\$(13). Only one carriage return has been printed, but a lot of extra spaces have been inserted. This kind of file could be represented as follows:
CHRIS(several spaces)(another space)12345(space)CHR\$(13)
Now think of what happens when INPUT is used to get two values. The statement INPUT N\$,SC waits for the characters to be entered, then waits for either a comma or a carriage return, and finally waits for a number. (Remember that if you type only one value and press RETURN, the computer will print a ?? prompt and wait for the second value.) The same is true for PRINT\# and INPUT\#. The statement INPUT\#1,N\$,SC
expects either a comma or a $\operatorname{CHR} \$(13)$ between the two values. The problem is that when the two values are printed with PRINT\#1,N $\$, S C$ there won't be a comma or carriage return between the two values, just a whole lot of spaces. Here's what will happen:

1. INPUT\#1,N $\$, S C$ will read all the characters up to the first CHR\$(13) or comma. This means that $\mathrm{N} \$$ would be assigned the value "CHRIS 12345."
2. INPUT\#1,N $\$, S C$ will then try to read a number to assign to SC. But since there's nothing more in the file, BASIC will stop with an error.
The description of the problem may be long, but the solution is simple. Either avoid using a variable list after PRINT\# or put a CHR $\$(13)$ between each item. Each of the examples below sends the same characters to the file.
PRINT\#1,N\$:PRINT\#1,SC (original example)
PRINT\#1,N\$;CHR\$(13);SC
or

## PRINT\#1,N\$ CHR\$(13) SC

If you have a long list, it may be easier to assign the CHR\$(13) to a string and use the string between each item, like this:

## CR\$=CHR\$(13):PRINT\#1,N\$ CR\$ SC CR\$ A\$ CR\$ B\$ CR\$ C

These values can be retrieved by INPUT\#1,N\$,SC,A\$,B\$,C without any trouble.

The preceding examples have illustrated one other important point. The program reading the file must know how many values are to be read. An error such as STRING TOO LONG will occur when a program tries to read more data than is contained in a file. Furthermore, the program must know the order in which the values were written. If the first program had written the values with PRINT\#1,SC:PRINT\#1,N\$ and the second program read them with INPUT\#1,N\$,SC (the variables are switched), there would definitely be a problem. The INPUT\# would read the digits and assign " 12345 " to N\$, and then stop with a FILE DATA error when it tried to read a number for SC and found characters instead.

In some cases, such as a game which keeps track of the top ten scores, the number of items never changes. However,
other files, like those maintained by a telephone directory program, may change size. How to know when to stop requesting input will be dealt with first.

There are three methods you can use to avoid running off the end of a file. One is to have the first item in the file, a number, indicate how many values follow. The example programs below use this technique. The first writes the names and scores to tape, while the second reads them from tape and displays them on the screen. Type in the first and run it; then enter the second and run it. (You need to rewind the tape to the beginning of the first file before pressing PLAY.)

```
1ø\emptyset OPEN 1,1,1,"HI SCORES"
11\varnothing PRINT#1,3:REM ITEM COUNT
12ø PRINT#1,"BOB" CHR$(13) 140Ø\emptyset
13\emptyset PRINT#l,"KEVIN" CHR$(13) 12Øø\emptyset
140 PRINT#1,"ERIC" CHR$(13) 11Øøø
15\emptyset CLOSE 1
160 END
løø OPEN l,l,ø,"HI SCORES"
11\varnothing INPUT#1,N:REM ITEM COUNT
12\emptyset FOR K=1 TO N
130 INPUT#l,N$,SC
140 PRINT N$,SC
15\emptyset NEXT K
160 CLOSE 1
170 END
```

(These programs only demonstrate the method, and are not intended to be practical applications.)

In some cases, a program may not know how many values will eventually be printed when the file is opened. Since no length number can be printed at the beginning of the file, the program must have another way to detect the file's end. This is similar to the problem of indicating the end of values read from DATA statements. You can use the same trick here as you would with READ and DATA-a flag. This write-andread example uses END as a flag. Enter the first and run it; then type in and run the second.

```
1Ø\emptyset OPEN 1,1,1,"HI SCORES"
11Ø PRINT#1,"MARK" CHR$(13) 5Ø4
120 PRINT#1,"JEAN" CHR$(13) 915
130 PRINT#1,"MARYBETH" CHR$(13) 412
140 PRINT#1,"KEN" CHR$(13) 755
15\emptyset PRINT#1,"END" CHR$(13) \varnothing
160 CLOSE 1
170 END
10\varnothing OPEN 1,1,\emptyset,"HI SCORES"
110 INPUT#l,N$,SC
L20 IF N$<> "END" THEN PRINT N$,SC:GOTO 110
130 CLOSE 1
1.40 END
```

The third method is to have the program monitor the value of ST, a reserved variable which holds status information. ST usually holds zero, but may contain another value when an error occurs or something important has happened. Bit 6 of ST will be set when the end of a file has been reached. The value associated with bit 6 is 64 , so when a program sees that ST has the value 64 (or any nonzero value), it can stop requesting input. Take a look at this example for the technique's application. Enter and run these short programs as you did with the previous write/read samples.

```
1øø OPEN 1,1,1,"HI SCORES"
110 PRINT#1,"MATTHEW" CHR$(13) 9
120 PRINT#1,"ANDREA" CHR$(13) 10
130 PRINT#1,"TODD" CHR$(13) 9
140 PRINT#1,"JEFFREY" CHR$(13) 8
150 CLOSE 1
160 END
1øØ OPEN 1,l,\emptyset,"HI SCORES"
11\varnothing INPUT#1,N$,SC
12\varnothing PRINT N$,SC
13\emptyset IF ST=\varnothing GOTO ll\emptyset
140 CLOSE 1
150 END
```

Notice that the end-of-file check was done before the printing in the previous method, but is done after the printing here.

Getting the correct values into the correct variables is simply a matter of taking care when writing the program.

Make sure that the variables in the PRINT\# and INPUT\# statements line up. The only thing that can cause trouble is when a null string is printed by PRINT\#. The INPUT\# statement will skip past a null string and read the next value instead.

For instance, the second program stops with an error at line 130 .

```
1\varnothing\varnothing N1$="GAIL":N3$="MAX":REM MISSING N2$
110 OPEN 1,1,1,"TAPE FILE"
120 PRINT#1,N1$
130 PRINT#l,N2$
140 PRINT#l,N3$
150 CLOSE 1
160 END
1Ø\emptyset OPEN 1,1,\varnothing,"TAPE FILE"
110 INPUT#l,Nl$:PRINT Nl$
120 INPUT#l,N2$:PRINT N2$
13\emptyset INPUT#1,N3$:PRINT N3$
140 CLOSE 1
150 END
```

The program stopped because the null string was ig-nored-thus, N2\$ was assigned the value intended for N3\$. When INPUT\# went looking for N3\$, the file was empty. To avoid this potential pitfall, never print a null string. If you want INPUT\# to retrieve a null string, have PRINT\# print a space. INPUT\# will not ignore the space, but when assigning the string variable, it will skip past all leading spaces. The effect is that the variable is assigned a null string.

An advanced feature of tape files is to use a command number of 2 in the OPEN statement. This has the same effect as using command 1, and prepares the file for output. The difference is that when the file is closed, it will be specially marked to indicate that it's the last file on the tape. This guarantees that when searching for a tape file, the computer will not look past the last file. Instead, the computer stops with a DEVICE NOT PRESENT error, which is equivalent to FILE NOT FOUND on the disk drive.

The direction of a tape file cannot be changed as long as it's open. If a tape file is opened for input and PRINT\# is used, the NOT OUTPUT FILE error occurs. Likewise, the NOT

INPUT FILE error appears when INPUT\# is used with a file that has been opened for output.

Before ending this section, it would be a good idea to stress the importance of using CLOSE. This statement is not so important when working with the keyboard or screen, but it's required when using tape or disk files. The Datassette can read only one file at a time. If a tape file opened for input is not closed, no other files can be opened until CLOSE is executed.

Much worse is when a CLOSE is accidentally omitted for a tape file that has been used for output. It's possible that some of the data will not be sent if the CLOSE is not performed. The file will be incomplete and the data lost-a program which later opens the file for input will be able to read only the first part, and may even crash because of an error.

In other words, a program should always perform CLOSE when communication with a tape file is completed.

## Summary

- A tape file is not limited to storing only the lines of a program. Tape files can also contain data, in the form of numbers and strings, which can be used by a program.
- The Datassette can be used for both input and output, but can handle only one direction at a time. The direction (input or output) must be specified when the file is opened.
- Opening a tape file uses the full syntax of the OPEN statement: OPEN file number, device number, command number, filename.
- The device number for the Datassette is 1 .
- A command number of 0 opens the file for input; 1 opens the file for output. Using 2 also opens the file for output, but marks the file as the last on the tape when it's closed. The command number is optional-by default, the file will be opened for input.
- A filename is optional but recommended. If none is specified when the file is created, none can later be used when the file is opened for reading.
- It's a good idea not to use a variable list after PRINT\#. Commas in PRINT statements are used to format the screen display into columns, which is not necessary with tape files. Instead, output the items one at a time so that a carriage return will be printed after each. If you do use a variable list, print a CHR\$(13) between each item.
- It is acceptable to use a variable list with INPUT\#.
- A program should input variables in the same order they were written.
- The FILE DATA error occurs when a program tries to read character data into a numeric variable.
- If a program is expecting a string variable and a number is read instead, the string representation of the number, like that produced by the STR\$ function, will be assigned to the variable.
- An error such as STRING TOO LONG appears when a program tries to read more information from a file than was written in the first place.
- There are three methods to avoid reading more data than exists in a file. One way is to use the first number to indicate how many items are in the file. This number can then be used to control a loop which reads the data.
- The other two methods work by detecting the end of the file while it's read. One way, often used with READ and DATA statements, is to use a flag, such as the word END or the number -999, as the last item written to the file.
- The third method is to stop when bit 6 of the status variable (ST) is set. ST has a value of 64 when the end of the file is reached, and has other nonzero values when I/O errors occur.
- INPUT\# ignores null strings. If it reads a null string, it goes to the next item. To print a string so that it will be read as a null, print a single space.
- It's very important that CLOSE be executed when the computer is finished communicating with a tape file. An output file may not be written completely if this is not done.
- Only one file can be opened to the Datassette at a time. Once a file has been opened, its direction (input or output) cannot be changed.
- If a file is opened for input and PRINT\# is used, the NOT OUTPUT FILE error occurs. If a file is opened for output and INPUT\# is used, the NOT INPUT FILE error will occur.


## Disk Files

The type of file just described for cassette is often referred to as a sequential file, one in which the information can be read back only in the order it was written. It's not possible to reread just one item in the file; you have to use OPEN again
and start at the beginning. With a sequential file it's also not possible to skip some items to read one later on. If a file has just been opened and you want to read only its last item, you have to read past all the other items first.

Sequential files are the simplest and most commonly used type of file. They are well-suited to the Datassette, because the computer cannot control the REWIND and F.FWD buttons.
The nature of tape means that the Datassette can handle only sequential files.

But sequential files can also be used with the disk drive. There are a couple of differences in the OPEN statement, but otherwise the procedure is the same.
OPEN file number, device number, secondary address, string
Any file number from 1 to 127 is acceptable. The device number for the disk drive is usually 8 , although it can be changed to 9 when a second drive is used. The command number, also called the secondary address, serves a different purpose when using disk files. It will be explained in a moment. For now, just use 2. The string is required, and indicates the filename, type of file, and direction. The filename can be up to 16 characters, and is sometimes followed by the type of file (indicated by an $S$ representing sequential) and perhaps a letter $R$ or $W$, reading or writing. Commas are necessary to separate the filename, the type, and the direction. You must specify the type of file if you're writing to the disk-if you're only reading the file, you can omit the $S$ designation. If no direction is indicated, the computer will open the file for reading. Here are some examples.

## OPEN 1,8,2,"DOODLE,R" : REM READING, NO TYPE NEEDED OPEN 1,8,2,"POEM,S,W" : REM WRITING, TYPE SPECIFIED OPEN 1,8,2,"GAME" : REM READING ASSUMED

With minor changes, the high-score demonstration from the "Files on Tape" section can be used with a disk file. Type in both programs below. Load and run the first (make sure there's a disk in the drive). This creates a sequential file on disk. Now load and run the second. It reads the file from disk and displays the items on the screen.

```
10\emptyset OPEN 1,8,2,"HI SCORES,S,W"
ll\emptyset PRINT#l,"KEVIN" CHR$(13) 8\emptyset
12\varnothing PRINT#1,"CHRISTINE" CHR$(13) 90
130 PRINT#1,"ALISDAIR" CHR$(13) 91
```

```
14Ø PRINT#l,"LISA" CHR$(13) 87
150 CLOSE 1
16Ø END
```

1øø OPEN 1,8,2,"HI SCORES"
$11 \varnothing$ INPUT\#1,N\$,SC
$12 \emptyset$ PRINT NS,SC
$13 \varnothing$ IF ST=Ø GOTO $11 \varnothing$
140 CLOSE 1
150 END

Examine the directory of the disk you just used. You'll notice that beside the filename HI SCORES is a three-letter code, normally PRG for a program file, but now SEQ. This is to remind you that it's a sequential file, contains data, and should not be loaded as a program.

The method of reading and writing a sequential file is pretty much the same for both tape and disk. A major difference between these two devices, though, is in the number of files that can be open at one time. While the Datassette can read or write only one file at a time, the disk drive can handle several files simultaneously. Files 1 and 2 could be open for reading, while file 3 would be open for writing. The only restriction when using multiple disk files is that each file must have a different secondary address. Secondary address numbers can range from 2 to 14.

```
1Ø\emptyset REM PAYROLL PROGRAM
11\emptyset OPEN 1,8,2,"EMPLOYEES,R"
12\emptyset OPEN 2,8,3,"HOURS,R"
130 OPEN 3,8,4,"PAYCHECKS,S,W"
```

This program might read an employee's name and Social Security number from the first file, get the hours and wage information from the second, do whatever processing is necessary, and then send the results to the third. This last file would be used later to print paychecks. The example may not be practical, but it does illustrate how several disk files can be managed. Most applications don't require as many files open at the same time.

Another capability of the disk drive is that it can allow two open files to read from the same disk file.
(later in the program, when file 1 may still be open)
65ø OPEN 2,8,3,"WEATHER DATA"
This will not work when a disk file is written. Once a disk file has been opened for output, it cannot be opened by a different file number for either input or output until it's closed.

A complication when using multiple files is that the status variable (ST) must serve for all files. ST always reflects the status of the most recently accessed file. This means that if a program reads from file 1, then from file 2, ST indicates the status of file 2-file 1's status information is lost. The solution is to assign ST to a temporary variable before accessing file 2 . This variable can then be used to determine the first file's status. This next program illustrates the procedure.

```
1Ø\emptyset REM READ ONE FILE TO ANOTHER
110 OPEN 1,8,2,"SOURCE,R"
12\emptyset OPEN 2,8,3,"DESTINATION,S,W"
13Ø INPUT#1,S$
140 A=ST
150 PRINT#2,S$
16\emptyset IF A=\emptyset GOTO 13Ø:REM BASED ON FILE l STATUS
170 CLOSE 1
180 CLOSE }
190 END
```

There's another problem that you'll encounter when a disk file must be periodically updated. A file which maintains high scores, for instance, may be read when a game is finished to compare the current score against the high score. If the player did well and the high score file has to be modified, the old file has to be erased and a new one written using the same filename. This poses no problem with tape files since the tape can be positioned to start at the beginning of the old file. The disk drive, however, won't let you write a file with a filename already in use. A different solution must be found.

Secondary addresses from 2 to 14 are available for normal disk file handling. Addresses 0 and 1 are reserved for LOAD and SAVE format files. The number 15 is used to send commands to the disk drive. One of these commands is called Scratch, and informs the drive that it should erase a file on the disk. For example, the file "POEM" could be erased by entering this line in immediate mode.

This is one case where no string has to be included as part of the OPEN statement. The secondary address (15) indicates that the command channel will be referenced, so no filename or type of file is needed. The command is sent as a one-letter code, followed by a zero for the drive number, a colon, and then the filename. You can also scratch files with this procedure from within a program.

If a program is going to open a disk file for output, and there's a chance the filename may already exist, the program should first send the Scratch command. (No error occurs if an attempt to scratch a nonexistent file is made.) Here's an example of scratching a file before writing a revised version of it to disk.

```
1ø\emptyset OPEN 1,8,15
110 PRINT#1,"S\emptyset:HI SCORES"
120 CLOSE 1
130 OPEN 1,8,2,"HI SCORES,S,W"
14\emptyset REM CONTINUE WITH REST OF PROGRAM
```

Perhaps you've used the at (@) character to save and replace a file. Assuming there's a file on disk named GAME, the statement SAVE "@0:GAME", 8 scratches the old file GAME, then saves the current BASIC program using that filename. This replaces the file on the disk with the one in memory.

Do not use the @ character. This feature may not always work correctly. In some cases, the disk drive may even tamper with other files on the disk. Even though using the @ character to save and replace may seem very convenient, my advice is to avoid it. Use the Scratch (S0:) method instead.

Other useful disk drive commands are New, Rename, and Validate. New is used to format a disk and clear its directory. The full format of the command is "N0:diskname, identification", where the disk name is up to 16 characters and the disk identification 2 characters long. Make sure that no two disks are given the same disk identification. This precaution insures that there's no confusion between the source and destination disks when copying files from one to the other.

If the identification is omitted, all the files will be erased and the new disk name will be used, but the disk will not be reformatted. This can come in handy when you want to use the disk for a new project, but it's already been formatted. Formatting really needs to be done just once. Skipping the
process saves time. Take a look at the following lines; they show how to format a disk, as well as how to create a new directory only.
OPEN 1,8,15
PRINT\#1,"N0:GAMES,01" (format disk and create new directory) or
PRINT\#1,"N0:GAMES" (create new directory only) CLOSE 1

Rename lets you change the name of a file without disturbing its contents. Here's the proper syntax:
PRINT\#1,"R0:new filename $=$ old filename"
This example shows how a file named DOODLE can be renamed as POEM (assuming the OPEN has already been executed).

## PRINT\#1,"R0:POEM = DOODLE"

When using Rename, make sure the new filename is not already in use on the disk.

Validate is used to recalculate the number of free blocks on a disk. If some blocks have been allocated for files, but have not been used, they'll be made available after the Validate command is sent. This command also deletes any files which were never properly closed. Such files are marked in the directory with an asterisk (*) before the three-letter file type. Validate does not alter any properly closed files. If you validate periodically, you may be able to get a few more free blocks, letting you squeeze more on the disk.

The secondary address of 15 refers to the command channel when PRINT\# is used. INPUT\# can be used with this channel to get error messages. However, BASIC reports only a few I/O error messages, such as FILE NOT FOUND and DEVICE NOT PRESENT. When an error occurs, the disk drive can provide more information if you run the following short program.

```
10 OPEN 1,8,15
2\emptyset INPUT#l,A,B$,C,D
30 CLOSE l
40 PRINT A;B$;C;D
```

Normally, the message 0 OK 00 will appear, indicating all is well.

If you tried to save a program using a filename already in
use, BASIC would not print an error message, but the drive light would flash. Run the above program, and you'll see the message 63 FILE EXISTS 00 . Error number 63 tells you that an attempt was made to create a new disk file with an existing filename. Other error numbers and their descriptions can be found in the disk drive user's manual.
(The status numbers returned in variables C and D are for advanced applications, and can be ignored.)

There are a couple of differences between normal disk files (which use secondary addresses 2-14) and a file opened to the command/error channel (secondary address of 15). No direction is specified when the file is opened, and it's possible to use both PRINT\# and INPUT\# without having to close and reopen the file.

The other difference is that when the command/error channel is closed, the disk drive closes all the other disk files as well. BASIC may think that the files are still open, but an error will occur when the program tries to read from them. Thus, if a program is going to use the command/error channel while other disk files are open, it's best to open the channel during initialization and leave it open until the program ends. Many people set aside file 15 for this purpose.

Sometimes it would be handy if a program could read the disk directory. This is easy to do, but several things must be done differently. First, the OPEN statement should use " $\$ 0$ :" (or just "\$") as the filename. Also, because of the structure of the directory file, INPUT\# cannot be used. The file has to be read a character at a time. Fortunately, this can be done by the GET\# statement.

GET\#'s syntax is the keyword GET\#, followed by a file number, a comma, and then a variable list. Something like GET\#1,A\$ retrieves the next character from the file and assigns it to A $\$$. Only string variables should be used with GET\# to avoid the FILE DATA error.

The following demonstration shows how to read a sequential file character by character.

```
10 OPEN 1,8,2,"HI SCORES"
2\emptyset GET#l,AS:PRINT AS;:IF ST=\emptyset GOTO 2\emptyset
30 CLOSE 1
```

The directory file contains characters for block lengths and filenames. The first two characters in the file can be ig-
nored. The first line in the file is the directory header, giving the disk name, identification, and DOS (Disk Operating System) version. Several lines follow, one for each entry. Again, the first two characters of each line can be ignored. The next two form the low-byte and high-byte number which indicates the file's block length. A few spaces precede the opening quotation mark, which begins the filename. After the filename and the closing quotation mark, there are several more spaces and then the three-letter file type. Each line ends with a CHR\$(0), interpreted by GET\# as a null string. This format repeats for each line in the directory. The block length for the last line shows the number of free blocks on the disk, with the filename BLOCKS FREE.

The end of the directory file is detected by checking ST after reading the block length. This program illustrates how it's done.

## Program 3-1. Directory Reader

For error-free program entry, be sure to use "The Automatic Proofreader," Appendix D.

```
1\varnothing OPEN l,8,\varnothing,"$":GET#l,S$,S$ :rem 204
2ø GET#l,S$,S$,L$,H$:IF ST THEN CLOSE 1:END
    :rem 103
3\emptyset PRINT ASC(L$+CHR$(|))+256*ASC(H$+CHR$(\varnothing));
    :rem }16
40 GET#l,S$:IF S$>"" THEN PRINT S$;:GOTO 4ø:rem 66
50 PRINT:GOTO 2\emptyset :rem 199
```

The directory file can only be read and cannot be opened for output.

A handy trick with reading the directory is to put a filename after the $\$ 0$ :, as in " $\$ 0:$ POEM" $^{\prime}$. This makes the disk drive search the directory for the filename POEM and list it if it's on the disk. If there's no file named POEM, there'll be no directory lines read after the header. This is useful when you want a program to check if a file already exists. If the directory is opened with the filename after the $\$ 0$ : and no filename lines are read, the file isn't on the disk.

A variation on this technique is to use wild cards in the filename. If you use a question mark (?) as one of the characters in the filename, the disk drive will ignore that character position when searching for filenames. Let's say a disk contains the following files.

DOODLE<br>GAME1PLAYER<br>GAME2PLAYER<br>POEM<br>GMINUET<br>AMINUET<br>SONATA1<br>SONATA22<br>SONATINA1<br>SONATINA3<br>DMINUET

Using the string " $\$ 0: ? \mathrm{MINUET}$ " would read only the three minuet files, since the ? forces the disk to ignore the $G, A$, and $D$ characters in the files. If you used the string "\$0:GAME?PLAYER", both GAME1PLAYER and GAME2PLAYER would be read. If necessary, several question marks can be used in the same filename.

A second wild card is the asterisk (*). While the question mark can take the place of only one character, the asterisk can be substituted for several. An asterisk at the end of a filename makes the disk drive search for all filenames which begin with the letters up to the asterisk. All characters at the position of the asterisk and after are ignored.

In the example directory, if " $\$ 0: \mathrm{SON}^{* "}$ were used as the filename, all files starting with the letters SON would be returned in the directory, four altogether. With "\$0:SONATA"", only the filenames SONATA1 and SONATA22 would be read.

A combination of the ? and * wild card characters can be used in the same filename.

When loading a program or opening a file for reading, wild cards within the filename make the computer access the first file on the disk which matches. This can come in handy if you can't remember or don't want to type the full name of a program. LOAD "PROG*", 8 , for instance, loads the first filename on the disk which has PROG as its first four characters.

Wild cards can be very powerful if you choose filenames to accommodate them. Just be careful that the filenames referenced with wild cards are the ones you wanted. This is especially true when using wild cards with the Scratch command. It's quite easy to erase too many files-more filenames may fit the wild card pattern than expected. In fact, it may be
best to avoid using wild cards with Scratch. At least check which files will be scratched beforehand by reading the directory with the wild card pattern.

As you've seen, sequential files are identified in the directory by the letters $S E Q$. The disk drive also supports another three-letter code, USR, for the same type of file. A USR file is handled just like a sequential file; the only difference is in the directory listing. Since some system utilities such as the Editor use SEQ files, you may want to use the USR type in your programs to help distinguish program data files from system files.

The full syntax for the string in the disk OPEN statement is:

## filename, optional type, optional mode

The type can be SEQ, USR, PRG, or REL. These last two types will be discussed in a moment. If no type is specified, the default SEQ is used. (Remember that the type is not optional if you're writing. It must be included.) The mode tells the direction, and can be Read or Write. Default is Read.

Both the type and mode permit single-letter abbreviations; the type can be designated by S, U, P, or R, and the mode can be R or W. A file identified by the letters USR in the directory could be opened for output with:

## OPEN 1,8,2,"HIGH SCORES,U,W"

From there, the handling would be just as if the file were of the type SEQ.

File type PRG is reserved for programs stored and retrieved using the SAVE and LOAD commands. It's possible to open these files and read them, but the reading has to be done one character at a time. Another problem is that due to the way the program is stored, the file may contain several nonprinting characters. The best way to examine a program file is to print the ASCII value of each character with something like this routine.

```
10 OPEN 1,8,2,"PROGRAM,P":REM DEFAULTS TO READING
20 GET#l,S$
30 PRINT ASC(S$+CHR$(\varnothing))
4\emptyset IF ST=\emptyset GOTO 2\emptyset
50 CLOSE l
```

The $+\operatorname{CHR} \$(0)$ in the ASC function (line 30 above) is needed because the file may contain several CHR\$(0) characters. A CHR\$(0) is interpreted by GET\# as a null string, which
when used as the argument of the ASC function makes BASIC stop with an error. This can be averted by appending a
CHR $\$(0)$ to the argument. If the string does contain characters, the extra CHR\$(0) at the end won't affect the ASC function because ASC looks only at the first character. If the string is null, it becomes CHR\$(0), which makes ASC return the 0 , the correct value.

Reading a PRG file is useful only for advanced applications, such as programs which search for all variable names in a program, renumber a program, or compact a program by removing extra spaces and combining lines.

The one remaining type of file supported by the disk drive is the REL, or relative, file. Unlike a sequential file, this type of file makes it possible to back up to an earlier part of the file without having to use OPEN again, and to skip past items in the file without reading or writing them. A relative file is also known as a random access file because the reading or writing of items can be done arbitrarily, without having to follow any order.

Such a file structure is useful when a file contains several entries, only a few of which may have to be changed at any time. If it's necessary to read an account for a customer near the end of the file, and update the account of a customer near the beginning, these read and write operations can be performed quickly without disturbing the rest. REL files make it easy to handle large amounts of information. In fact, it's possible for a REL file to contain more data than could be held in memory at one time.

Unfortunately, Commodore 64 BASIC does not directly support relative files; it's a very complicated subject, far beyond even the nature of these discussions of advanced BASIC.

## Summary

- In a sequential file, data must be read in the same order as it was written. It's not possible for reading to back up or skip ahead.
- With a few changes to the OPEN statement, sequential files can be used with disks. The syntax to open a disk file is OPEN file number, device number, secondary address, string.
- File numbers should range from 1 to 127. The device number for the disk drive is usually 8 , but can be 9 . Secondary ad-
dresses 0 and 1 are reserved for use by the LOAD and SAVE commands. The numbers 2-14 are used for data files. Each open file must have a different secondary address. A secondary address of 15 is used to access the command and error channel of the disk drive.
- The string consists of a filename, a file type, and a direction. The filename is required and can be up to 16 characters. The file type is optional when reading, mandatory when writing. File type can be SEQ, USR, PRG, or REL (abbreviated as S, $\mathrm{U}, \mathrm{P}$, and $R$, respectively). If no file type is specified, SEQ is assumed. The direction is optional, and can be reading or writing (or R or W ). If no direction is given, the file is opened for reading.
- Unlike the Datassette, several different files can be opened to the disk drive simultaneously. Some can be set for input, others for output.
- Two or more files can be opened for input from the same disk file at the same time. However, once a disk file has been opened for output, it cannot be read or written by any other file until it is closed.
- The disk drive command and error channel is accessed by opening a file with a secondary address of 15 and no string, as in OPEN 1,8,15. No filename or direction has to be specified.
- While the file is open, PRINT\# can be used to send commands to the drive, and INPUT\# can be used to get status information. Unlike normal disk files, the file does not have to be closed and reopened to switch between input and output.
- The Scratch command is used to erase one or more files on a disk. The command string is " S 0 :filename". The $S$ represents the Scratch command, the 0 is the drive number, and the filename indicates which file is to be erased. If the filename contains wild card characters, more than one file may be erased.
- Do not use the @ character in the filename of an OPEN or SAVE to replace and save a file on a disk. This feature is not reliable and can damage the contents of a disk.
- The New command is used to format a disk and clear the directory. The command string is "N0:diskname,id".
- The Rename command is used to change the name of a file. The command string is "R0:new filename=old filename". The contents of the file are not altered in any way.
- Validate is used to make previously allocated blocks not used by files available on the disk. Files that were never properly closed (indicated by an asterisk before the file type) will be erased. Properly closed files will be left alone. After the disk has been validated, there may be a few more free blocks.
- BASIC reports only the errors FILE NOT FOUND and DEVICE NOT PRESENT, and sometimes doesn't report an error at all. A flashing light on the disk drive may be the only clue that an error has occurred. More specific error messages are available from the disk drive. Assuming that file 1 has been opened to the error channel, the statement INPUT\#1,A,B\$,C,D will read the error number into A, the error message into $B \$$, and other values for advanced applications into C and D . When no error has occurred, the error channel will return the values $0, \mathrm{OK}, 0,0$.
- The GET\# statement is used to input single characters from a file. The syntax is the keyword GET\#, the file number, a comma, and a variable list. Only string variables should be used with GET\#.
- The directory can be read by a program by using OPEN with the filename " $\$ 0:$ " and no file type or direction. The format of the directory file requires that it be read one character at a time, using GET\#.
- The directory file will contain all the filenames on the disk when the string used with OPEN is $\$ 0$ :. To make the disk drive search for a specific filename in the directory, put the filename at the end of the string, as in "\$0:DOODLE". The corresponding filename line will be read if the file exists. If not, the directory file will contain only the disk header and free blocks lines.
- The wild card characters (? and *) can be used in the filename after \$0: to list all filenames which match a certain pattern.
- When wild cards are used with LOAD or OPEN for input, the computer will access the first file on the disk that has a filename matching the wild card pattern.
- The file type USR is identical to the file type SEQ. The different name can be useful to help distinguish between sequential files used for different purposes.
- The file type PRG is used for LOAD and SAVE type files, including BASIC and machine language programs. In ad-
vanced applications, a PRG file can be read or written one character at a time.
- Another type of file is the relative file, identified as REL. In a relative file, reading or writing can jump back or ahead. No particular order must be followed. Relative files, although supported by the disk drive, are not supported by Commodore 64 BASIC.


## The Modem and Other RS-232 Devices

$R S$-232 refers to an agreement among manufacturers of electronic equipment (Electronic Industries Association) which defines how devices communicate. Its specifications include such things as power levels, which connector pins serve which functions, and so on. This insures that products from different manufacturers will be more or less compatible. Like ASCII, it's one of the few standards in the computer industry.

The RS-232 standard applies to serial communication. The usual method of transfer is parallel communication, in which information is sent a byte at a time. All eight bits of each byte are sent simultaneously. In serial communication, however, information is sent a bit at a time. To send a full byte, the eight bits have to be sent separately, one after another. Devices which communicate serially include modems and some printers.

A modem converts bits into tones which can be sent over telephone lines to another computer. The receiving computer must also be connected to a modem, which then converts the tones back into bits. The general term for this is telecommunications. The process of changing bits into tones is called modulation, and the process of converting the tones back into bits is called demodulation. In fact, the word modem is derived from the words MOdulate and DEModulate.

In telecommunications, transmit is often used to mean send. The modem is different from most other devices because it can both transmit and receive information at the same time. But a computer can handle only one character at a time. If a character comes in while the computer is busy sending another, the computer must remember that incoming character and deal with it later. It's also possible for the computer to output characters faster than the modem can transmit them. To avoid losing incoming characters or to hold outgoing characters until the modem can take them, a buffer has to be
used. A buffer is a temporary holding place for characters. When using the modem, the computer needs two buffers, one for input and another for output.

To better understand the concept of a buffer, let's consider an example using an input buffer. Characters received are first stored in the input buffer, in the order in which they are received. Every time GET\# executes, it retrieves the next character from the buffer. If the buffer is empty, GET\# returns with the null string. The process could be illustrated like this:

Figure 3-1. Buffer


The following steps show how the method might work in practice.

1. The buffer starts out empty.
2. The modem receives an $M$ character and places it in the buffer.
M_-_-
3. The GET\# statement retrieves the first character from the buffer (M). The buffer is emptied.
-----
4. The modem receives the character $A$ and places it in the buffer.
A _ - - -
5. The modem receives another letter, $R$, before the computer has retrieved the previous character. That's okay, since the $R$ can be placed in the buffer after the $A$.
AR_- -
6. GET\# draws off the first character in the buffer (A). The $R$ is now the first character in the buffer.
```
R_---
```

7. GET\# gets the $R$ and the buffer is once again empty.
8. GET\# tries to get another character, but since the buffer is now empty, GET\# returns a null string. The program keeps looping until it gets something other than a null string.
9. The modem eventually receives a letter $K$ and puts it in the buffer.
K_---
10. The next time GET\# executes, it returns with $K$ instead of a null string. The buffer is empty.

Two important observations should be made. The modem received the characters in the order $M-A-R-K$, and the program (with GET\#) retrieved the characters in that order. Even though the computer wasn't always able to retrieve each character as it came in, the buffer insured that no characters were lost.

The output buffer works in much the same way. Characters sent by PRINT\# are held in the buffer until the modem is ready to transmit them.

Here's the syntax for the OPEN statement when used with an RS-232 device.
OPEN file number, device number, secondary address, string
File numbers can range from 1 to 127. Numbers from 128 to 255 cause the computer to send a linefeed (CHR\$(10)) after every carriage return. The linefeed character is required for printers which do not automatically advance the paper. The device number for an RS-232 device is 2 . The secondary address is not used and should be 0 . The string can be one or two characters. The first character is a control value, and the second is an optional command value.

The control character sets the number of stop bits, the word length, and the baud rate. Remember that each character is sent as a sequence of bits. Stop bits help the receiving modem detect the end of each character. The Commodore 64 can support either one or two stop bits, depending on the value of bit 7 in the control character.

| Bit 7 | Value | Effect |
| :--- | :---: | :--- |
| 0 | 0 | 1 stop bit |
| 1 | 128 | 2 stop bits |

The word length determines how many bits are transmitted for each character, and can range from five to eight bits. Bits 6 and 5 of the control character establish the word length. For most purposes, eight bits will be just fine. When communicating with some modems or printers, especially older ones, fewer bits may be required. The device owner's manual should tell you if less than eight bits are to be used.

Bits | $\mathbf{6}$ | $\mathbf{5}$ | Value | Effect |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 0 | 0 | 0 | 8 -bit word |
| 0 | 1 | 32 | 7-bit word |
| 1 | 0 | 64 | 6-bit word |
|  | 1 | 1 | 96 | 5-bit word

The baud rate determines how quickly the bits are transmitted. The most common rate is 300 baud (roughly 300 bits per second), which is equivalent to about 30 characters per second. Faster baud rates ( 600 or 1200, for instance) require higher quality circuitry and make devices which are capable of such rates more expensive. Older printers and modems may even operate at 110 baud. Bits 3 through 0 of the control character should be set according to the baud rate of the device.

| Bits | 3 | $\mathbf{2}$ | $\mathbf{1}$ | $\mathbf{0}$ | Value |
| ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: | :--- | ---: |
| 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 50 baud |
| 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 2 | 75 baud |
| 0 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 3 | 110 baud |
| 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 4 | 134.5 baud |
| 0 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 5 | 150 baud |
| 0 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 6 | 300 baud |
| 0 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 7 | 600 baud |
| 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 8 | 1200 baud |

Here's the formula for calculating the value of the control character. Place the bit values from the tables above in the appropriate places in the formula.
Control character $=$ CHR\$(stop bits + word length + baud rate)
A typical setting is one stop bit, eight-bit word length, and 300 baud.
Control character $=\mathbf{C H R} \$(0+0+6)=$ CHR\$( 6 )

The result would be used in the OPEN statement like this:

## OPEN $1,2,0$, CHR $\$(6)$

The command character sets the parity, duplex, and handshaking. Parity is used to check for errors in transmission. If there's considerable static on the telephone line, a bit may be accidentally switched in value, resulting in garbled communications. Parity checking can detect an error like this. When parity checking is selected, it can be odd or even. The correct setting depends on the setting of the device at the other end of the link. Bits 7 through 5 control the parity.

## Bits 765 Value Effect <br> $\begin{array}{lllll}0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & \text { No parity }\end{array}$ <br> $\begin{array}{lllll}0 & 0 & 1 & 32 & \text { Odd parity }\end{array}$ <br> $\begin{array}{lllll}0 & 1 & 1 & 96 & \text { Even parity }\end{array}$

When using a word length of eight bits, parity checking is not available-no parity should be selected.

Duplex determines whether both modems can transmit at the same time or if they have to take turns. The usual value is full duplex. The other setting, half duplex, is rarely used. Again, this setting depends on the receiving modem. If half duplex is desired, bit 4 of the command character should be set (to 1). In most cases, especially with newer modems, full duplex is available, so bit 4 should be clear, or 0.

## Bit 4 Value Effect

$0 \quad 0 \quad$ Full duplex
116 Half duplex
Handshaking refers to how the transmitting and receiving devices recognize and establish communication between each other. Handshaking is controlled by bit 0 , which for most applications should be clear, or 0 .

As you can see, the command character is not as important as the control character. If the sum of the command values is zero, the command character does not have to be used. If a different value is needed, the command character is concatenated to the control character.

This next OPEN statement shows how that's done to select half duplex (bit value of 16).
Command character $=$ CHR\$(16)
OPEN 1,2,0,CHR\$(6)+CHR\$(16) : REM SELECT HALF DUPLEX

When the OPEN statement is executed, it creates input and output buffers of 256 bytes each. This allotment of 512 bytes comes from free memory. It forces an automatic CLR, which erases all previous variables and closes all other open files. Thus, if a program is going to use an RS-232 device, the OPEN should come before any variable assignments, array dimensions, function definitions, or other OPEN statements.

The 512 bytes are restored when the RS-232 file is closed. CLOSE causes another CLR, so the CLOSE should be the last thing in the program.

The variable ST has a different meaning when used with an RS-232 device. The last three bits are set to indicate errors.

| Bit | Value (set) | Error when bit set |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 0 | 1 | Parity error |
| 1 | 2 | Framing error |
| 2 | 4 | Receiver buffer overflowed |

A parity error occurs when a bit has been switched in value, probably due to a bad connection. Don't bother to check this bit when using a word length of eight bits.

## IF ST AND1 THEN parity error

(Note: Due to a quirk in BASIC, there must be a space between ST and AND.)

A framing error also indicates a problem in receiving a character.

## IF ST AND2 THEN framing error

The buffer OVERFLOW error occurs when the input buffer is full (contains 256 bytes) and another character is received before the program retrieves a character. This can happen when the program handling the input and output is too slow for the baud rate used. A BASIC program can run only so fast. If the program has to do a lot of processing and a fast baud rate such as 600 or 1200 is used, this error may occur. The solution is to write the program in machine language. IF ST AND4 THEN buffer overflowed

Another point about the ST variable is that it can be read only once after an input/output statement. After it's read, it's automatically set to zero. If you need to read it more than once, assign it to a temporary variable.

RS-232 communication may seem complicated in its description, but it can be very easy to implement. To show just
how easy it is, take a look at Program 3-2, "Modem." It's a simple program which makes your computer and modem act as a terminal, allowing you to communicate with another computer, perhaps one running a bulletin board system. The program is set for 300 baud and cannot handle faster rates. To use this program, you must have a modem connected to your Commodore 64 (and another computer with a modem to receive your transmission).

After typing in and running Program 3-2, make sure your modem is properly connected. Access the receiving computer as you would normally, by dialing its telephone number. Although the program establishes full duplex, you can switch your modem to half duplex (if it has that feature) to see what you type on the screen.

```
Program 3-2. Modem
For error-free program entry, be sure to use "The Automatic Proofreader," Appendix D.
1\varnothing OPEN 1,2,\varnothing,CHR$(6):POKE 56577,\varnothing :rem 5
2ø DIM T%(255), R%(255):FOR K=1 TO 255:T%(K)=K:R%(K
    )=K:NEXT :rem ll2
30 FOR K=65 TO 90:T%(K)=K+32:R%(K)=K+128:NEXT:FOR
    {SPACE}K=97 TO 122:R%(K)=K-32:NEXT :rem 245
40 FOR K=193 TO 218:T%(K)=K-1 28:NEXT:T%(20)=127:R%
    (127)=20:PRINT "{CLR}{N}" :rem 234
50 GET AS:IF A$>"" THEN PRINT#1,CHRS(T%(ASC(A$)));
    :rem 122
60 GET#1,AS:IF AS>"" THEN PRINT CHRS(R%(ASC(AS)));
    :rem 121
7\varnothing GOTO 5\emptyset
    :rem 5
```

A few comments about this program might be helpful. Lowercase is obtained by using the second character set. Unfortunately, this means that some character translation has to be done to convert between ASCII codes and character set numbers. The translation process works like this:

| Receive | Print on screen as |
| :--- | :---: |
| $0-64$ | $0-64$ (punctuation) |
| $65-90$ | $193-218$ (uppercase) |
| $91-96$ | $91-96$ |
| $97-122$ | $65-90$ (lowercase) |
| $123-126$ | $123-126$ |
| 127 | 148 (backspace) |


| Keyboard | Transmit |
| :--- | :---: |
| $0-64$ | $0-64$ (punctuation) |
| $65-90$ | $97-122$ (lowercase) |
| $91-96$ | $91-96$ |
| 148 | 127 (backspace) |
| $193-218$ | $65-90$ (uppercase) |

The fastest way to translate is with arrays. Arrays T\% and R\% have been set up for this purpose (line 20 in Program 3-2).

There are a couple of restrictions in using an RS-232 device. First, only one such device can be used at a time. Second, an RS-232 device should not be used while another peripheral, such as the Datassette or disk drive, is in use.

The last topic concerns receiving a CHR\$(0). If the modem receives a CHR $\$(0)$, it stores it in the buffer properly, but the GET\# statement interprets it as a null string. This means a null string can indicate either that the input buffer is empty or that the character is a zero character. To determine which, check bit 3 of ST after the GET\# is executed. If the bit is set (has a value of 8 ), the input buffer is empty. If the bit is clear (value of 0 ), the character is a CHR\$(0).
IF ST AND8 THEN input buffer is empty
IF (ST AND8) $=0$ THEN it's a CHR\$(0)
The CHR\$(0) normally is not used in ASCII communication and can just be ignored. It's important, though, in such activities as transferring a program file by modem, in which case every character is important.

## Summary

- RS-232, like ASCII, is one of the few standards in the computer industry. It specifies how computers and devices communicate.
- The RS-232 convention applies to serial communication, where bits of a byte are sent one at a time. Parallel communication, the other method of data transmission, transfers all eight bits at the same time.
- The modem is used to convert bits into tones that can be carried by telephone lines to another computer which converts the tones back into bits. This process is called modulation and demodulation.
- The modem can transmit and receive at the same time. No direction has to be specified as part of the OPEN statement.
- A buffer is a temporary character-holding place. An input buffer insures that no incoming characters will be lost if some come in too fast for the computer to process. An output buffer holds characters until the modem is ready to transmit them.
- The syntax for OPEN to open an RS-232 file is the standard OPEN file number, device number, secondary address, string.
- File numbers from 1 to 127 are most frequently used. File numbers from 128 to 255 can be used with a serial printer which needs linefeed characters. The device number for an RS-232 device is 2 . The secondary address is not used and should be set to 0 . The string is one or two characters. The first character is a control character which sets the number of stop bits, the word length, and the baud rate. The second character is optional and is rarely used. It sets the parity, duplex, and handshaking.
- When an RS-232 OPEN is executed, 512 bytes are taken from free memory and are used for buffers. If there are not 512 bytes available, the end of the program is overwritten.
- The OPEN performs a CLR, which erases all variables, arrays, and defined functions, and closes all open files. An OPEN to an RS-232 device should be done as part of the program's initialization, before the assignments, dimensions, definitions, and OPENs. A CLR is also performed when a file to an RS-232 device is closed.
- Only one file to an RS-232 device can be open at any time. Communication with other devices is not allowed when an RS-232 file is open.
- With RS-232 communication, the status variable, ST, indicates errors.
- Translation is required to convert between ASCII and Commodore 64 character codes.


## The End of BASIC

## Using Commands in Programs

Normally, commands such as RUN, NEW, LIST, CONT, LOAD, and SAVE are used only in the immediate mode, without line numbers. But commands can also be used in programs, some with better results than others.

RUN. The RUN command can be used to make a program automatically rerun when it's done. Just place RUN where the END statement would normally go. RUN first performs a CLR, erasing all variables, arrays, and defined functions before starting execution at the program's first line. If a line number is placed after RUN, execution begins with that line.

NEW. Another way to end a program is to use NEW. The NEW command both ends a program and erases it. (This isn't recommended when you're still debugging a program, for you'll have to continually reload it.)

LIST. The LIST command is not very useful in a program. When executed, all or some of the program lines will be listed, depending on the optional line number range after the keyword. Execution then ends. If there are statements after the command, they won't be executed.

CONT. When used in the program mode, the CONT command puts BASIC in an infinite loop, and no processing is done. To break out of the loop, press the RUN/STOP key. CONT is best used only in the immediate mode.

LOAD. Using LOAD in program mode is somewhat complicated, so let's first examine what happens when programs are saved and loaded. A BASIC program is stored in memory as a sequence of bytes. The address of the program is usually 2049, but it can be different for nonstandard system configurations (such as those with special device handlers). Whatever the address, the SAVE command will start at that address and send the bytes which form the program to the disk or tape file. When LOAD is executed, the bytes in the file are read into memory starting at the address of BASIC memory.

LOAD's full syntax is:
LOAD, a filename (optional for tape), a device number (optional), and a secondary address (optional).

If no device number is given, device 1 (the Datassette) is assumed. If no secondary address is given, the default of zero is used.

A secondary address of 0 means that a relocating LOAD should be performed. The program will be loaded starting at the current address of BASIC's free memory. This insures that a file which was saved at one address can be loaded when BASIC memory starts at a different address. Relocating LOADs are used mainly when loading BASIC programs. The BASIC program that is loaded replaces the one currently in memory.

Another type of program is one written in machine language. In most cases, a machine language cannot be relocated. It must be loaded at the same address from which it was saved. A secondary address of 1 tells the computer to ignore the current address of BASIC memory and to use the address which was used for saving the file. Keep in mind that nonrelocating LOADs are most often used when loading machine language programs.

Here are the secondary addresses used with LOAD and their effects:

| Secondary |  |
| :--- | :--- |
| Address | Effect |
| 0 | Relocating LOAD |
| 1 | Nonrelocating LOAD |

Let's take a look at what happens with LOAD in program mode. When executed, the command loads the requested program and performs a RUN. This is handy since it makes it possible to run a series of programs, one after another. This is called chaining.

There's one important difference between the normal RUN command and what's automatically performed after a LOAD, however. The automatic RUN after a LOAD does not include a CLR. None of the variables, arrays, and functions are erased. This doesn't mean that their values are preserved. All function definitions are overwritten when the new program is loaded. Calling a defined function when no corresponding DEF has been executed will not cause an UNDEF'D FUNCTION error, but it will probably force some sort of error because the definition is no longer intact. Numeric variables and arrays will be preserved if the new program is shorter than the old one; however, string variables
may or may not be preserved, depending on how they were assigned.

It would be nice if it were possible to pass variables between chained BASIC programs, but there are so many restrictions that in most cases it isn't worth the trouble. Just have the chained programs start with a CLR statement and there shouldn't be any problems.

The problem of passing variables doesn't apply when LOAD is used with a machine language program. In these situations, the original program is not replaced, so the variables, arrays, and function definitions should not be disturbed. This is often used when a BASIC program loads and executes a machine language routine or program. In the lines below, the SYS statement, introduced in a later section, starts the execution of the machine language.

```
1\varnothing IF A=\varnothing THEN A=1:LOAD "EDIT.C64",8,1:REM LOADS M
    ACHINE CODE
2Ø SYS 49152:REM EXECUTES MACHINE CODE
```

Since you started the program with the normal RUN command, the variable A is 0 , and the condition is true. Variable A is set to 1 , and the machine language program is loaded from disk. After the LOAD is complete, BASIC automatically does another RUN, this time without clearing the variables. Variable A keeps the value of 1 , so this second time the section after the THEN is not executed. Execution falls through to line 20, the SYS statement, which starts the machine language program.

SAVE. Last but not least, the SAVE command, when used in a program, saves the current BASIC program to tape or disk. This could be useful if you want a program to make a copy of itself when it runs.

## Summary

- RUN can be used as a substitute for the END statement to make a program rerun when it ends.
- NEW, when used in a program, ends and erases the program.
- If LIST is included in a program, execution stops after the LIST is executed, even if there are lines yet unexecuted.
- CONT causes BASIC processing to enter an infinite loop
which can be stopped by pressing the RUN/STOP key.
- The full syntax for LOAD is: LOAD filename, device number, secondary address.
- The secondary address should be 0 for a relocating LOAD, which indicates that the program will start loading at the current address of BASIC memory, replacing the program already in memory. Zero is the default secondary address.
- Relocating LOADs are usually used with BASIC programs.
- The secondary address should be 1 for a nonrelocating LOAD. The program will be loaded at the same address from which it was saved. This usually leaves the current BASIC program intact.
- Nonrelocating LOADs are most often used for machine language programs.
- When LOAD executes in a program, the LOAD is performed and BASIC goes to the first line of the current BASIC program. This is like performing a RUN without a CLR.
- All variables, arrays, and function definitions are preserved during a nonrelocating LOAD. This fact can be used to make a BASIC program load and begin executing a machine language program.
- After a relocating LOAD, BASIC starts to execute the program which replaced the one in memory. String variables, arrays, and function definitions will still exist but their values will be incorrect because they were overwritten by the new program. Numeric variables will be preserved only if the new program is shorter than the old one. In most cases, it's best to simply have the new program start with a CLR.
- The process of having one program load and run another is called chaining. Commodore 64 BASIC allows any number of programs to be chained.
- A SAVE used in a program makes the program copy itself to tape or disk. Execution will continue with the first statement after the command SAVE.


## The WAIT Statement

The WAIT statement is an advanced topic because it uses binary values and, compared with other statements, is seldom used. But WAIT does have a few applications and can help you tighten a program by saving lines.

WAIT makes BASIC stop all processing until a designated bit has a specified value.

As an example, let's use location 56320, the second joystick port. Bits $0-3$ of this location report the direction of the joystick; bit 4 reflects the status of the joystick button. To monitor a specific bit, you can use the AND operator and the number which corresponds with the bit. The chart below gives the values associated with each bit.

| Bit | Value |
| :--- | :---: |
| 0 | 1 |
| 1 | 2 |
| 2 | 4 |
| 3 | 8 |
| 4 | 16 |
| 5 | 32 |
| 6 | 64 |
| 7 | 128 |

The following line shows the relationship between bit 4 and the joystick button. Note: Plug a joystick into port 2.

10 PRINT PEEK(5632ø)ANDI6:GOTO $1 \varnothing$
Normally, 16 is printed, which means that the bit is set. When the button is pressed, the bit is cleared, meaning a 0 is printed. The WAIT statement uses this process to decide when to halt execution, as well as when to continue. Make sure the above program line is still in memory, and enter this line in immediate mode:

## WAIT 56320,16

It seems as if nothing happened. That's because the statement told BASIC to wait until bit 4 (value of 16) in location 56320 was set. Since you weren't pressing the joystick button when you entered the statement, the bit was already set, and no WAIT was executed.

Enter WAIT 56320,16 again, but this time press down on the button before hitting RETURN. The cursor will disappear, and nothing will be printed. In fact, BASIC will be concentrating so hard on waiting for bit 4 to become set that it will not notice if you press RUN/STOP. Now release the button. The READY. prompt will appear and BASIC will be functioning as normal.

The 16 in the last example is a bit mask which tells WAIT to freeze execution until bit 4 goes from clear to set.

Sometimes, however, you might want to reverse the
condition and have the WAIT statement delay BASIC until a selected bit goes from set to clear. Consider the following program, which waits until the button is pressed (bit 4 is cleared) and then prints a message.

```
1\varnothing IF PEEK(56320)AND16 GOTO 10:REM LOOP WHILE NOT
    {SPACE}PRESSED
2\emptyset PRINT "FIRE!"
```

To make WAIT halt execution until a bit is cleared, you need to add another bit mask to the statement. In the line below, the first 16 indicates that bit 4 of location 56320 is to be monitored; the second 16 says that the condition to be fulfilled is that the bit must go from set to clear, instead of the normal change from clear to set.

```
1\varnothing WAIT 5632Ø,16,16:PRINT "FIRE!"
```

This does the same thing as the two-line program above, but in only one line.

Now let's extend the example so that it waits repeatedly for the joystick button to be pressed.

```
1\varnothing WAIT 56320,16,16:PRINT "FIRE!";:REM NOTE THE SE
    MICOLON
```

20 GOTO $1 \varnothing$

When you run this program, you'll quickly notice a problem. Each press of the button is detected more than once. This problem, called bounce, can also happen with the keyboard. Sometimes you hit one key, but it's actually read more than once. To eliminate the bounce, make the program wait for the button to be released before relooping. Just substitute this line 20 for that above.
20 WAIT 56320,16:GOTO 10
In fact, the whole program could be written in one line:

```
10 WAIT 56320,16,16:PRINT "FIRE!";:WAIT 56320,16:G
    OTO 10
```

If the WAIT statement was not available, this program would have had to be written in three or four lines, depending on whether the ON-GOTO technique was used. Notice that in both the programs below the RUN/STOP key operates, unlike when you use the WAIT statement.

```
1\varnothing IF PEEK(5632ø)AND16 GOTO 1\varnothing
2\emptyset PRINT "FIRE!";
3\varnothing IF (PEEK(5632Ø)AND16)=\varnothing GOTO 3\emptyset
4ø GOTO 1ø
or
1\varnothing IF PEEK(5632ø)ANDI6 GOTO 1\varnothing
2\emptyset PRINT "FIRE!";
3\emptyset ON (PEEK(5632\emptyset)AND16)/16+1 GOTO 3\emptyset,10
```

WAIT can even monitor several bits at a time. Location 198 counts the number of keypresses ( $0-10$ ) in the keyboard buffer. It takes four bits to represent a number in that range, so bits $0-3$ have to be watched. The value 0 indicates that the buffer is empty, so when the first four bits in location 198 are all clear, no key has been pressed. To make a program wait until a key is pressed, you can use the standard method:

```
1\varnothing GET K$:IF K$="" GOTO lø
```

$2 \emptyset$ PRINT "GOT A KEY"

Or you can use WAIT to stop program execution until location 198 contains a nonzero value (when any bit from 0 to 3 is set). With WAIT, the program would look like:

```
1\varnothing WAIT 198,15:GET K$:PRINT "GOT A KEY"
```

The value 15 was calculated from $1+2+4+8$, the values associated with bits $0-3$.

Another common application for WAIT is to wait until the PLAY button on the Datassette is pressed. Bit 4 of location 1 goes from set to clear when a button on the Datassette is pressed.
$1 \varnothing$ PRINT PEEK(1)AND16:GOTO 10
Type in and run this program. You'll see 16 appear on the screen when the PLAY button is not pressed, 0 when it is.

When a program opens a tape file, the computer prints the message PRESS PLAY ON TAPE. However, the message does not appear if the PLAY button is already pressed. The computer just proceeds with the open processing. If you don't want the prompt message, perhaps because it might disrupt your screen display, put a WAIT statement before the OPEN. It would look like this:
10 WAIT 1,16,16:OPEN 1,1,ø,"TAPE FILE"

The file TAPE FILE is still opened, but the prompt fails to appear.

## Summary

- The WAIT statement makes BASIC halt execution until selected bits in a designated location are set or cleared.
- The syntax is WAIT, location number, comma, mask, and optional comma and mask.
- The bit set in the first mask tells which bit is to be monitored. For instance, if BASIC is to monitor bit 4, then 16 (that bit's value) would be used as the mask number.
- The second bit mask tells whether BASIC is to wait for the selected bit to go from clear to set, or from set to clear. If there is no second bit mask, BASIC will wait until the bit goes from clear to set. To reverse the condition, the value associated with the bit should be used for the second bit mask.
- More than one bit can be monitored in the same location. To make BASIC monitor both bits 4 and 5, the associated values of 16 and 32 would be added and used as the first mask number. BASIC would then wait until either bit 4 or bit 5 went from clear to set.
- The second bit mask can also be used with several bits. The statement WAIT 1,16+32,16 makes BASIC wait until either bit 4 of location 1 goes from set to clear, or bit 5 goes from clear to set.
- While BASIC is waiting, it does not check the RUN/STOP key, so RUN/STOP-RESTORE has to be used to stop execution.
- Here are several example applications of WAIT: Halt execution until the joystick button is pressed or released; force a program to wait until the PLAY button on the Datassette is pressed so that no PRESS PLAY ON TAPE message appears; and freeze a program until a key is pressed.


## Machine Language and the SYS Statement

The SYS statement is used to execute machine language routines and programs. In order to understand what this means, let's take a moment to explain machine language.

Inside your Commodore 64, there are several computer chips. One of them, the VIC chip, handles the video display.

Another, the SID, is in charge of audio output. These are support chips, and give the Commodore 64 its excellent sound and graphics capabilities. But they don't give the 64 any computing ability. That's what the CPU (Central Processing Unit), the heart of the computer, does. It's the CPU which really runs the show, doing everything from reading the keyboard to processing all calculations and decisions and telling the VIC chip what to display on the screen. Even if the VIC and SID chips were not working, the computer could still run programs. You just wouldn't see or hear any output. The computer could not function, however, if there were no CPU.

All computers, from micros to mainframes, must have a CPU. Some even have more than one. In microcomputers, the CPU is called a microprocessor. The type of microprocessor used in the Commodore 64 is the 6510, which is practically identical to the 6502 found in many other home computers. Some other popular microprocessors are the Z80 and the 8088.

Machine language is the native language of the microprocessor. It's quite different from BASIC. Just as a BASIC program contains statements, a machine language program consists of instructions which are executed by the microprocessor. The difference is that each instruction can do only a very small task, so many are necessary to get anything done. It takes several instructions just to add two numbers together. However, machine language instructions can be executed very quickly. It's quite common for a machine language program to run a hundred times faster than a comparable BASIC program. A BASIC program is not machine language and cannot be directly executed by the microprocessor. Rather, the BASIC language itself is one huge machine language program. It's a collection of machine language routines, one for each operation, function, statement, and command in BASIC. For instance, there's a routine to add two numbers, a routine which calculates the absolute value of a number, and a routine to print something on the screen. There are also routines to find the value associated with a variable, search for a line number, check syntax, and so on, and so on.

When BASIC is told to run a program, it looks at the first statement, executes the necessary machine language routines to process the statement, and then moves on to the next statement. Thus, a BASIC program is really a kind of data file. It cannot stand on its own, but instead is treated as data for a
machine language program called BASIC. The end result may appear to the user as though BASIC statements have computing power, but the real processing is being done in machine language.

The process of reading data from a program file and selectively executing some routines is called interpreting. The interpreting process is what makes BASIC programs run slower than equivalent machine language programs. It takes time to read statements, look up values for variables, search for program lines, and check for correct syntax. An alternative is to convert a BASIC program to machine language with a process known as compiling. After a program has been written, it's compiled before it's executed. Compiled programs are actual machine language programs that can stand on their own, programs which don't need BASIC. This can significantly increase the speed of the program. However, program development is less interactive, because every time the program is changed in even the smallest way, it has to be recompiled.

The BASIC language, whether its programs are interpreted or compiled, is called a high-level language because each statement is rather general and can do a lot. If you think about it, the PRINT statement is extremely versatile. It can print numbers and characters, call functions and operations, and control cursor positioning. Machine language, on the other hand, is a low-level language, because each instruction is limited and specific. Most people without computer experience learn BASIC first. However, if you want to tap the full potential of your computer and want to know what computing is really about, machine language is the way to go.

The SYS statement instructs BASIC to stop executing and to transfer control to a machine language routine which starts at a specified address. Thus, SYS is to a machine language program what RUN is to a BASIC program. If you're using a machine language routine published in a book or magazine, the address will be given in the article or documentation. Care must be taken that the address is correct, because if the microprocessor is told to execute machine language instructions at memory locations where there are no instructions, it will "hang" and the computer will crash. This does no permanent damage to the computer, but it does mean that you'll have to turn the computer off and back on again to regain control. Anything in memory will be lost.

To demonstrate the speed of machine language and to show how the SYS statement is used, the doodling program from All About the Commodore 64, Volume One has been rewritten in machine language. Here's the original BASIC program. Plug a joystick into port 2. Push the joystick to draw in all eight directions, and press the button to change the color.

## Program 4-1. BASIC Doodle

For error-free program entry, be sure to use "The Automatic Proofreader," Appendix D.

```
1\varnothing PRINT CHR$(147):POKE 53280,\varnothing:POKE 53281,\varnothing:S=5ø\varnothing
    :C=1 :rem 181
20 DIM JS(15):FOR K=5 TO 14:READ JS(K):NEXT
    :rem 126
    :rem 205
    :rem 15
50 IF S<\emptyset THEN S=S+1øø\emptyset :rem 177
60 IF S>999 THEN S=S-1øø\emptyset :rem 49
70 IF (PEEK(5632\emptyset) AND 16)=\emptyset THEN C=C+l:IF C>15 TH
    EN C=1
    :rem 66
80 GOTO 30 :rem 4
90 DATA 41,-39,1,0,39,-41,-1,\varnothing,40,-4\varnothing :rem 239
```

Now, let's try the machine language version. The instructions have been stored as numbers in DATA statements, which is the most convenient form for short programs or routines. The instructions are read and POKEd into free memory, and then SYS is used to begin executing the code. Just lightly tap the joystick left or right at first, so you can see that the drawing is done a pixel at a time. You'll notice that the machine language version is so fast that even if you just lightly hit the joystick, most of the screen fills up.

## Program 4-2. Machine Language Doodle

For error-free program entry, be sure to use "The Automatic Proofreader," Appendix D.


```
803 DATA 169,4,109,194,16,133,252,169,81,145,251,1
    73,\varnothing,22Ø,41,15,170,189,165 :rem 171
804 DATA 16,24,109,193,16,141,193,16,189,176,16,10
    9,194,16,141,194,16,173,194 :rem 237
8ø5 DATA 16,16,17,173,193,16,24,165,232,141,193,16
    ,173,194,16,105,3,141,194,16 :rem 1
806 DATA 169,231,205,193,16,169,3,237,194,16,176,1
    7,173,193,16,56,233,232,141 :rem 234
807 DATA 193,16,173,194,16,233,3,141,194,16,173,0,
    220,41,16,208,15,238,192,16 :rem 210
808 DATA 169,15,205,192,16,176,5,169,1,141,192,16,
    76,28,16,41,217,1,0,39,215 :rem 169
809 DATA 255,\varnothing,4\varnothing,216,\varnothing,\varnothing,255,\varnothing,\varnothing,\varnothing,255,255,\varnothing,\varnothing,25
    5,\varnothing,\varnothing,\varnothing,\varnothing :rem 28
```

BASIC always checks for the RUN/STOP key before it processes each statement. Since BASIC is not in control, RUN/STOP won't work, and you'll have to use the RUN/STOP-RESTORE combination to halt the program.

It's possible to pass information between BASIC and machine language programs. In many of the programs later in this book, you'll see a line like the following:

## $12 \varnothing \mathrm{SA}=780: \mathrm{SX}=781: \mathrm{SY}=782: \mathrm{SP}=783$

Locations 780-783 can be POKEd before a SYS call. This area of memory is called the Register Storage Area and is used to store the values held by the Accumulator, the $X$ register, the $Y$ register, and the status register. The Register Storage Area is used by the BASIC SYS command to load each of the registers from the corresponding storage address. The values POKEd can then be used by the machine language routine. That's what this next line does.

## 13ø POKE SA,1:POKE SX,8:POKE SY,ø:SYS 65466

When the machine language routine ends and control is returned to the BASIC interpreter, any new values held by the registers are stored in the appropriate memory locations. Program execution will continue with the first statement after SYS. This may be a PEEK to one of the locations to get information inserted by the machine language program or routine.

## $14 \varnothing$ SYS 65493:IF PEEK(SP)ANDI GOTO 7øø

These variable names (SA, SX, SY, and SP) are used consistently in the later programs.

There's one other feature of BASIC related to machine
language. The USR function is an alternative method of executing machine language, and allows one floating-point value to be passed back and forth. However, this technique is less convenient than SYS, so it's not used very often. Calling the USR function without some special setup results in an ILLEGAL QUANTITY error.

The USR function is not related in any way to the USR disk file type.

## Summary

- Of all the parts of a computer, the one that provides the real "brains" is the CPU, or central processing unit. In microcomputers, the CPU is called a microprocessor. The Commodore 64's microprocessor is the 6510, which for all practical purposes is identical to the 6502.
- Machine language is the language of the microprocessor. Machine language consists of instructions (rather than statements) which are directly executed by the microprocessor.
- Each machine language instruction is very simple and limited in what it can accomplish. But though it takes a number of them to get anything done, each instruction can be executed very quickly.
- The BASIC language on the Commodore 64 is one large machine language program.
- A BASIC program is not machine language and cannot be directly executed by the microprocessor. Rather, it's treated as data read by the BASIC interpreter program.
- The process of BASIC reading statements and executing the appropriate machine language routines is called interpreting. Interpreted BASIC programs are relatively slow because things like syntax checking are done as the program is running.
- A BASIC program can be compiled into machine language, which can then be directly executed by the microprocessor. The advantage of compiling is that things like syntax checking are done as part of the compiling step, so the program runs much faster. The disadvantage is that a program has to be recompiled every time it's changed.
- BASIC is a high-level language because each statement can do a lot. Machine language is a low-level language.
- The SYS statement is used to start the execution of machine
language at a specified address. If the address is wrong, the computer may crash.
- Information from a BASIC program can be made available to the machine language code by POKEing the information into locations 780 through 783 before the SYS is executed.
- If the machine language program ends and returns control to BASIC, execution will continue with the first statement after the SYS.
- Locations 780 to 783 can be PEEKed when the machine language program is finished to get values returned.
- The USR function offers a means of executing machine language and passing one floating-point value back and forth, but in most cases it's less convenient to use than SYS.

Part 2 Bitmapped Graphics

# The Bitmapped Graphics Utility 

## Introduction to the Bitmapped Graphics Utility

 Bitmapped graphics lets you cover the whole screen with graphics. There are no size limitations as there are with redefined characters and sprites. When redefining a character, you are confined to working in an $8 \times 8$ grid. Even with sprites, the $24 \times 21$ grid restricts the size of an object. But with bitmapped graphics, the whole screen is one big grid. You can control any point on the screen. You can draw lines to create things like line graphs and three-dimensional pictures. Or you can fill in areas to create pie charts or background scenes.The Commodore 64's bitmapped graphics capabilities are very good, but difficult to use from BASIC. As a result, bitmapped graphics is often the most overlooked and underused feature of the computer.

Since the goal of this book is to help you get the most out of your computer, the first major utility is designed to open up the world of bitmapped graphics. The utility consists of a collection of machine language routines which make bitmapped graphics easier to use. The routines can plot points, draw lines, fill in areas, and draw whole shapes. Because the routines are written in machine language, they're fast. That leaves only one problem-how will the routines be called by a BASIC program?

One method would be to use the SYS statement. A slightly more elaborate method, and the one used for this utility, is to add new statements to BASIC. This method is a good choice because it offers the speed of machine language and the convenience of BASIC.

## The New Statements

The new statements work just like standard BASIC statements.
They can be used in program lines, they can be listed, and they can cause errors if their syntax is wrong or their values are out of range. A program containing these new statements
can be saved to tape or disk just like any other program.
Besides these statements, we've added a new function and a new command. Here's a list of the additions to BASIC:
Statements
GRAPHICS DRAW SETPEN
CLS MODE TEXT
FILL LFILL RFILL
SHAPE PEN

## Function <br> LOOK

## Command

KILL
To install the BASIC extensions, two files must be created. One file contains the machine language routines which perform all the graphics work. The other is a BASIC program that loads the machine language file and merges it with BASIC, actually adding the new statements.

First, enter and save either Program 5-1 (for disk) or Program 5-2 (for tape) to disk or tape. Make sure you use the filename BMGLOADER.

Next, type in the machine language file (Program 5-3), using the "Machine Language Editor: MLX" program found in Appendix C, and save it using the filename BMG.OBJ. If you're using tape, be sure to save the file immediately after the "BMGLOADER" program.
(Please read the article in Appendix C before typing in Program 5-3. You'll need to use MLX to enter other files in this book, so be sure to save a copy. If you have a copy of MLX from another COMPUTE! publication and you're using tape, change line 763 of your copy so that it matches line 763 as listed in this book. Tape users who have a copy of MLX which does not have a line 763 must use the version of MLX from this book.)

After loading and running MLX, you'll be asked for two prompts. Respond to these with:
Starting address: 51200
Ending address: 53245
Save this file as BMG.OBJ
Once you have these two files on disk or tape, you're ready to start using bitmapped graphics. Load and run the BMGLOADER program, which in turn loads and executes the
machine language file. After the BASIC extensions are installed, the READY. prompt will appear.

For a short demonstration of what the new graphics statements can do, enter and run Program 5-4. It draws a rectangular kaleidoscope. To stop the drawing, press the RUN/STOP key. To reset the screen to text mode, hit RESTORE while holding down RUN/STOP.

One very important word of caution: The bitmapped graphics extensions require memory from 50176 to 53247 (hexadecimal \$C400 to \$CFFF). The extensions cannot be used in conjunction with any other utility which uses these same memory locations, including the popular DOS wedge. Remove all such utilities before loading the bitmapped graphics extensions. The easiest way to do this is to turn the computer off and back on.

The bitmapped graphics extensions stay in effect until the computer is turned off, so there's no need to run the BMGLOADER program more than once as long as the computer is on. The next time you turn on the computer, though, you will have to run the BMGLOADER program before using any graphics statements. Programs containing graphics statements will not list properly and will not work if the BMGLOADER program has not been run earlier.

If you're finished using the bitmapped graphics BASIC extensions and want to use another utility that requires the same memory locations, use the KILL command. This removes the extensions and frees up the memory. The graphics statements can later be reinstalled by running BMGLOADER again.

All the program examples in this chapter and in Chapter 6 require that the BASIC extensions be active when the programs are typed in, run, or loaded. This is extremely important. You must run BMGLOADER each time you turn on your computer and after the KILL command is used if you wish to use any program containing the BASIC extensions.

## Program 5-1. BMGLOADER Disk Version

```
1\varnothing IF A THEN SYS 52506:NEW
2\emptyset A=1:LOAD "BMG.OBJ",8,1
```

















## Chapter 5




[^0]



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[^1]

[^2]
## Program 5-4. BMG Demonstration

$1 \varnothing$ GRAPHICS 6:POKE 53280, Ø:FOR I=1 TO 12:FOR J=12 \{SPACE\}TO Ø STEP -l:K=I+J
$2 \emptyset$ SETPEN 1,RND(ø)*16:DRAW 6+K,J,1 TO 6+K,24-J:DRA
W 32-K,J TO 32-K,24-J
3ø DRAW 7+J,25-K TO 3l-J,25-K:DRAW 7+J,K-1 TO 31-J
,K-l:NEXT:NEXT:GOTO $1 \varnothing$

## Graphics Modes and Point Plotting

There are two major problems when using bitmapped graphics from BASIC-clearing the bitmap screen takes too long, and plotting of individual points is too slow.

To clear the screen in BASIC, the 8000 memory locations for the bitmap have to be POKEd to zero. Plotting in BASIC is slow because it involves some very complicated calculations.

To solve the first problem, the GRAPHICS statement is available.

## GRAPHICS mode number

This statement turns on the bitmapping mode of the VIC-II chip, clears the bitmap screen, and sets the background to black. The purpose of the mode number will be explained in a moment.

The screen is now all set for high-resolution plotting. That is done by the DRAW statement.
DRAW $X$ coordinate, $Y$ coordinate
Plotting is done by using the standard coordinate system of $X$ and $Y$ coordinates. The columns (the $X$ coordinate) are numbered from 0 to 319 , starting at the left edge of the screen. The rows (the Y coordinate) are numbered from 0 to 199. Unlike standard mathematics, the numbering of rows starts at the top and works down. The point is plotted where the column and row intersect. Take a look at Figure 5-1 for an illustration of this coordinate system.

The position 0,0 is at the intersection of the first column and the first row, which is the upper-left corner of the screen. This particular position is of special importance and is called the home position.

Figure 5-1. Bitmap Coordinate System


To see the GRAPHICS and DRAW statements in action, enter and run the program below.

```
1\varnothing GRAPHICS Ø
20 DRAW 5,5
30 DRAW 35,5
4\emptyset DRAW 35,2\emptyset
50 DRAW 5,20
60 GOTO 60
```

Four points are plotted, at the four corners of a rectangle. The infinite loop at line 60 is needed to prevent the program from ending. The screen automatically reverts back to text mode when the READY. prompt is printed. Since the screen switches to the text mode whenever READY. appears, the graphics statements cannot be used in the immediate mode. Graphics statements should be used only in a program.

As shown by the example, the DRAW statement is a fast and convenient way to plot points. The two major problems of using bitmapped graphics from BASIC have now been solved.

Unfortunately, the previous program reveals a new problem. The points are very small. To make the points more visible, they have to be made larger. That's where the mode number comes in. The term resolution is used to describe how many points are displayed on a bitmap screen. The more
points that are displayed, the higher the resolution and the smaller each point is.

Mode 0, used in the demonstration above, supports the highest resolution ( $320 \times 200$ points). Mode 2 cuts that resolution in half in each direction (only $160 \times 100$ points), but each point is four times the size as before. Change the mode number in the demonstration from 0 to 2 , and run it again to see this effect.

There are a total of four different resolutions available. Here's a list showing the number of columns and rows in each mode.

| MODE | RESOLUTION |
| :---: | :---: |
| 0 | $320 \times 200$ |
| 2 | $160 \times 100$ |
| 4 | $80 \times 50$ |
| 6 | $40 \times 25$ |

There are four other modes, numbered $1,3,5$, and 7 , which are reserved for special purposes. These will be explained later. Using a mode number outside the range $0-7$ will result in an ILLEGAL QUANTITY error.

The following program may not be very exciting, but it does show how plotting with the DRAW statement is much faster than using the old method of POKEing data to create something on the bitmap screen.

```
10 GRAPHICS 4
2\emptyset DRAW RND(1)*8ø,RND(1)*50:GOTO 2\emptyset
```

These next two examples use trigonometric functions to draw a sine curve and a circle. Change the values for RX and RY in the second program to make the circle into an oval.

```
1\varnothing GRAPHICS Ø
2\emptyset FOR X=\emptyset TO 319
3\emptyset DRAW X,1\varnothing\varnothing+2Ø*SIN(X/1\varnothing)
40 NEXT X
1\varnothing GRAPHICS Ø
2Ø RX=55:RY=40
3\emptyset FOR A=\varnothing TO 2*\uparrow STEP \uparrow/18\emptyset
4| DRAW 16 
50 NEXT A
```

If you make the values for $R X$ and $R Y$ too large, the coordinates for plotting will be off the screen. The program will stop, the screen will change back to text mode, and an ILLEGAL QUANTITY error message will be printed. This error indicates that the coordinates used in a DRAW statement are out of range for the current graphics mode. For example, trying to plot a point at $-1,-1$ causes this error.

A useful analogy to help understand bitmapped graphics is to imagine that the drawing is done by a pen. The coordinates position the pen on the screen, and the DRAW statement tells the pen to press down and make a dot. The color of the ink is light green. A pen with a fine point draws thin lines and is used for detailed drawing; this is similar to a highresolution screen mode. A dull point creates broad strokes which cover more area, something similar to low-resolution modes.

In modes $0,2,4$, and 6 , there are actually two pens available. Pen 1 is used for plotting. It's the default pen and has been used in all the previous examples. Pen 0 is used for unplotting. This erases points plotted by pen 1 . When a point is erased, the color of the background shows through.

The DRAW statement supports an optional third number that's used to change the current pen number.

## DRAW X coordinate, $Y$ coordinate, pen number

When the GRAPHICS statement is used to switch from text to graphics mode, the current pen number is set to 1 . The statement DRAW $5,6,1$ is thus the same as DRAW 5,6. Both statements plot a point at position 5,6 . To erase the point, just use pen 0 . DRAW 5,6,0 erases the previously drawn point. Once you've switched to pen 0 , all future drawing is done with that pen, at least until you change it back to pen 1.

The following program plots three points, waits for a keypress, erases the points, waits for another keypress, and then plots one more point. Type it in and try it out.

```
1Ø\emptyset GRAPHICS 4
11\varnothing DRAW 3,4:REM DEFAULTS TO PEN 1
12\emptyset DRAW 7,9
130 DRAW 4,20
140 WAIT 198,15:GET K$:REM WAIT FOR KEYPRESS
150 DRAW 3,4,0:REM NOW IN PEN Ø
16Ø DRAW 7,9:REM STILL PEN Ø
```

```
17Ø DRAW 4,2Ø
180 WAIT 198,15:GET K$
19Ø DRAW 5,1l,l:REM BACK TO PEN l
2øø GOTO 2øø
```

The classic example of plotting and erasing is the bouncing ball program. A point is plotted at one position, then it's erased and plotted at an adjacent position. The direction of travel is reversed whenever the ball hits the edge of the screen. This next example does just that.

```
10 GRAPHICS 4
20 X=INT(RND(1)*78)+1:Y=INT(RND(1)*48)+1:DX=1:DY=1
3\varnothing DRAW X,Y,\varnothing:X=X+DX:Y=Y+DY:DRAW X,Y,1
4\emptyset IF X=\emptyset OR X=79 THEN DX=-DX
5\emptyset IF Y=\emptyset OR Y=49 THEN DY=-DY
6\emptyset GOTO 30
```


## Changing Colors

Thus far, plotting has always been done in light green (color 13). With a normal pen, you can change the color by replacing the ink with a different refill. Likewise, the color associated with a graphics drawing pen can be changed to any of the 16 colors available on the Commodore 64. The format for altering colors is:

## SETPEN pen number, color number

When using modes $0,2,4$, and 6 , only pen 1 should be used with SETPEN. The color number can range from 0 to 15. (Refer to the Commodore 64 User's Guide for the color values.) Of course, if the pen is changed to color 0 (black), the plotting won't be visible because it then matches the background color.

The next program is a modified version of the bouncing ball program. The points are never erased, so the ball leaves a trail. Pressing any key makes the program restart with a different color for pen 1.

```
10 GRAPHICS 4
2Ø X=INT(RND(1)* 78) +1:Y=INT(RND(1)*48)+1:DX=1:DY=1
30 SETPEN 1,RND(1)*15+1
4Ø X=X+DX:Y=Y+DY:DRAW X,Y
5\emptyset IF X=Ø OR X=79 THEN DX=-DX
60 IF Y=Ø OR Y=49 THEN DY=-DY
7\emptyset GET K$:IF K$="" GOTO 4\varnothing
80 GOTO 1\emptyset
```

Because of the GRAPHICS statement, the program clears the screen before using a new color for pen 1. Pen 1 can be used to draw in more than one color on the same screen, provided that points plotted in different colors are separated from one another. For example, let's say that some points are plotted while pen 1 has the color red, then SETPEN is used to change the pen color to blue. Points plotted now will be drawn in blue, and the earlier points will retain their red color. However, if some blue points are plotted too close to the red points, the color of the latter will be affected. Try changing the GOTO 10 in the previous program to GOTO 30.

Every time you press a key, the drawing continues as before, but a different color is used. All appears as it should, except at those places where two different colored lines cross each other. You'll see that sometimes the color of one line interferes with the color of the other. That's the restriction in using modes 0,2 , and 4 . Drawing can be done in 16 different colors on the same screen, but colors have to be kept apart from each other. The problem doesn't occur in mode 6.

Pen 0 should not be used with the SETPEN statement. Remember, pen 0 is used for erasing, not for plotting, so the idea of an ink color doesn't apply. The only color associated with pen 0 is the background color, which is set to black (color 0 ) by the GRAPHICS statement when the screen is cleared. To clear the screen and set the background to a different color, use the CLS statement.

## CLS color number

When CLS is executed, the screen clears and the background is set to the specified color. The current graphics mode, however, stays the same. The statement CLS 2, for instance, clears the bitmap and sets the background to red without affecting the current resolution.

```
10 GRAPHICS 4
2ø CLS 2
3ø FOR K=5 TO 4ø
4ø DRAW K,K
50 NEXT K
60 GOTO 60
```

The number after the keyword CLS is optional. If no number is specified, zero is assumed, so CLS alone sets the background to black.

You can even change the graphics mode from within a program, mixing modes on the screen. The MODE statement format is:

## MODE mode number

This changes the graphics mode without clearing the screen. You can then draw in one resolution, change the mode, and continue drawing in another resolution.

```
10 GRAPHICS 6:FOR X=1 TO 36 STEP 6:Y=RND(1)*21:GOS
    UB 60:NEXT
2ø MODE 4:FOR Y=1 TO 46 STEP 3:X=RND(1)*76:GOSUB 6
    \emptyset:NEXT
3ø MODE 2:FOR K=1 TO 32:X=RND(1)*156:Y=RND(1)*96:G
    OSUB 60:NEXT
40 WAIT 198,15:GET K$:GOTO 10
60 DRAW X+1,Y+1:DRAW X,Y:DRAW X+2,Y:DRAW X+2,Y+2:D
    RAW X,Y+2:RETURN
```

The MODE statement cannot be used in place of the GRAPHICS statement. MODE depends on the GRAPHICS statement having been executed beforehand. Statements like DRAW, CLS, and MODE should be used only when the screen is already in a graphics mode. The only graphics statement that should be used when the screen is in the text mode is GRAPHICS.

To make the screen go back to text mode while a program is running, use the TEXT statement.

## TEXT

When executed, TEXT turns off the bitmap mode, sets the border and background colors to their default values, and clears the screen. After the screen has been changed to the text mode by TEXT, it can be returned to the graphics mode by the GRAPHICS statement.

## Line Drawing

Given a starting point and an ending point, the DRAW statement draws a straight line by plotting all the points between them. All you have to do is use the keyword TO.

```
10 GRAPHICS 2
2Ø DRAW 10,1\varnothing TO 70,40
30 GOTO 30
```

In the example above, the starting point is 10,10 and the
destination point is 70,40 . The DRAW statement first plots a point at 10,10 . The drawing then continues in the direction of the point 70,40 , and stops when that point is reached. The effect is one of moving the pen to the new position without ever lifting it off the screen.

Depending on the angle at which the line is drawn, the line may appear slightly jagged. (Try 50,40 as the destination point.) With some angles, the computer can only approximate a straight line. When the line is not vertical or horizontal or does not fall on a perfect diagonal, a jagged appearance results. Change the graphics mode to 4 and run the program one more time to get a better look at what's happening.

In extreme cases, a line may appear to be drawn in long segments. The line in the next example is broken into three parts because there's only one row between the two endpoints.

```
1Ø GRAPHICS 4
2\emptyset DRAW 1Ø,1\emptyset TO 60,12
3ø GOTO 30
```

Using a higher resolution often helps to minimize the problem.

The next program draws lines at all sorts of angles, then erases them for a shooting star effect.

```
1\varnothing GRAPHICS Ø:POKE 53280,\varnothing:SETPEN 1,1
2ø Xl=RND(1)*320:Yl=RND(1)*2øø
3ø X2=RND(1)*32ø:Y2=RND(1)*2ø\emptyset
4\emptyset DRAW Xl,Y1,1 TO X2,Y2
50 DRAW Xl,Y1,\varnothing TO X2,Y2
60 GOTO 2\emptyset
```

You cannot change the current drawing pen when drawing a line this way. The point after the keyword TO consists only of the $X$ and $Y$ coordinates. A third number for the drawing pen is not allowed. Remember, once the pen is placed on the screen by DRAW, it stays on the screen while it draws a line.

On the other hand, a nice feature of the DRAW statement is that destination points can be chained together. A statement like DRAW X,Y TO X1,Y1 TO X2,Y2 is perfectly legal. The statement draws a line from $X, Y$ to $\mathrm{X} 1, \mathrm{Y} 1$, and then draws a line from $\mathrm{X} 1, \mathrm{Y} 1$ to $\mathrm{X} 2, \mathrm{Y} 2$. Try this:

[^3]Here's another demonstration. This program uses trigonometry to create a picture.

```
1\varnothing GRAPHICS Ø:POKE 53280,ø:SETPEN 1,15:CX=160:CY=1
    \emptyset
2\emptyset FOR A=\emptyset TO \uparrow/2 STEP \/18\emptyset:Y=65*SIN(5*A)*SIN(A):
    X=150*SIN(A)*COS(A)
3\varnothing DRAW X+CX,Y+CY TO CX,CY TO CX-X,Y+CY:NEXT
40 FOR A=15*\uparrow/36 TO \uparrow/2 STEP \/9\emptyset:Y=-3\emptyset*COS(4*A)*S
    IN(A): X=4\overline{\emptyset}*\operatorname{cos}(2*\overline{A})*\operatorname{cos}(A)
5\emptyset DRAW X+CX,Y+CY TO CX,CY TO CX-X,Y+CY:NEXT
6\emptyset DRAW CX-3ø,CY-70 TO CX,CY-3\emptyset TO CX+3ø,CY~7\emptyset
7\varnothing GOTO 70
```

When DRAW is used with a destination point, the starting point is optional. If a point has already been plotted at $X, Y$, the statement DRAW TO $\mathrm{X} 1, \mathrm{Y} 1$ will draw from $\mathrm{X}, \mathrm{Y}$ to $\mathrm{X} 1, \mathrm{Y} 1$. In effect, the last position of the pen has been remembered. This allows chaining of more destination points than can fit on one BASIC line.

```
10 GRAPHICS 2
2\emptyset DRAW 80,1\emptyset TO 1ll,82 TO 30,38
30 DRAWTO 130,38 TO 49,82 TO 80,10
40 GOTO 40
```

The pen position is remembered after the DRAW statement has been executed. That's how the DRAW statement on line 30 can pick up the drawing where the DRAW of line 20 left off. Notice that when the starting point is omitted, it's okay to contract the keywords DRAW and TO to form DRAWTO.

Another application of DRAWTO is to use it in a loop. The same DRAWTO statement can be used to draw a long chain of lines when it's executed repeatedly.

```
1ø\varnothing PRINT CHR$(147);CHR$(155):POKE 5328ø,ø:POKE 53
    281,ø
11\varnothing PRINT "SPIRALS":PRINT "BY CRAIG CHAMBERLAIN":P
    RINT
200 X=\varnothing.085:Y=\varnothing.105:M=1000:N=\uparrow/180:R=360:DIM S(R),
    C(R)
21\varnothing FOR K=\varnothing TO 90:A=M*SIN(K*N):B=A*X:C=A*Y:S(K)=B:
    S(180-K)=B
22\varnothing S(18\varnothing+K)=-B:S(R-K)=-B:C(27\varnothing+K)=C:C(9\varnothing+K)=-C:C(
    9ø-K)=C:C(27\varnothing-K)=-C:NEXT
23\varnothing X=16\varnothing:Y=1\varnothing\varnothing:K=RND(-RND(\varnothing)):M=\varnothing:N=\varnothing:H=1\varnothing\varnothing
```

```
3ø\emptyset GRAPHICS Ø:A=H*RND(1):B=H*RND(1):SETPEN 1,RND(
    1)*l5+1:DRAW X,Y
320 FOR K=l TO 180:N=N+A:IF N>R THEN N=N-R
330 M=M+B:IF M>R THEN M=M-R
34\emptyset O=S(N)/H:DRAWTO C(M)*O+16\emptyset,S(M)*O+H:NEXT
360 FOR K=l TO løø\emptyset:NEXT:GOTO 3ø\emptyset
```

Remember, the pen color cannot be changed while the drawing pen is drawing lines. In the following program, the effect of the SETPEN statement is not seen until DRAW is used to plot a starting point.

```
10 GRAPHICS 6
2\emptyset DRAW 10,1\varnothing TO 2\emptyset,20:REM DISPLAYED IN DEFAULT LI
    GHT GREEN
3\emptyset SETPEN 1,8
4\emptyset DRAWTO 30,10:REM STILL IN GREEN
5\emptyset DRAW 30,5 TO 1\emptyset,5:REM NOW IN ORANGE
60 GOTO 60
```

Whenever the screen is cleared with a CLS, the pen is set to the home position $(0,0)$. If DRAWTO is used after CLS and no previous point has been plotted, the drawing will start from the home position.

## Area Filling

The next logical step after plotting points to draw a line is to plot points that fill in an area. That is done by the statement FILL.

The syntax for the FILL statement works the same as DRAW's.

## FILL $X$ coordinate, $Y$ coordinate

In fact, FILL $X, Y$ plots one point at $X, Y$, just like DRAW $X, Y$. The difference is when a destination point is used. The statement FILL X,Y TO X1,Y1, after plotting an initial point at $X, Y$, starts drawing a line to $\mathrm{X}, \mathrm{Y} 1$. But as each point of the line is plotted, all points on the same row, to the left and right of the line, are also plotted.

```
1\emptyset GRAPHICS 6
2\emptyset DRAW 1\varnothing,1\varnothing TO 30,1\varnothing TO 30,2\emptyset TO 10,20 TO 10,1\emptyset
30 FILL 2\emptyset,1\emptyset TO 2\emptyset,2\emptyset
40 GOTO 4\emptyset
```

With FILL, the drawing pen behaves more like a paintbrush that takes a swipe to the left and right on each row
that's filled. The brush fills in the background and stops when it comes to a point that's already been plotted. This is why the fill stayed inside the rectangle; the brush stopped when it hit the left or right side of the shape.

FILL is normally used to fill in an area that's been outlined by DRAW. If nothing has been previously drawn to stop a fill, the filling continues until it reaches the edge of the screen. There it stops, without causing a range error. Remove line 20 of the previous example and run it again to see this happen.

Notice that the fill does not begin at the starting point. Rather, it begins on the next row.

The FILL statement is handy because it can cover large areas quickly. FILL can also be used to erase a large area. There's an optional third number after the $X$ and $Y$ coordinates for the destination point in a FILL statement. This number identifies the drawing pen that's to be covered up when the fill is performed. When no pen number is given, pen 0 is assumed. Since pen 0 corresponds to the background, this means that the area to be filled in is the background, and the filling should stop as soon as it hits anything else (pen 1 or the screen edge). Here are some examples.

## FILL X,Y,1 TO X1,Y1

or

## FILL X,Y,1 TO X1,Y1,0

Both of these statements indicate that pen 1 should be used to fill in the background.

However, this statement specifies that pen 0 should be used to erase all points plotted in pen 1.

## FILL X,Y,0 TO X1,Y1,1

Keep in mind the fact that the pen number in a destination point has a different meaning than the pen number for a starting point. In a starting point, the pen number is used to change the current pen, to determine whether the pen will be used for drawing (pen 1 ) or for erasing (pen 0 ). If the number is omitted, the current pen is used.

The pen number in the destination point specifies which points are to be covered up by the fill. If no number is given,
it's assumed that the background is to be filled in. For a demonstration, the following program draws several concentric ovals, fills them, and then erases them.

```
3ø\emptyset GRAPHICS Ø:POKE 5328\emptyset,\emptyset
305 FOR R=9\emptyset TO l\emptyset STEP -1\varnothing:READ A(R/l|):SETPEN 1,
    A(R/1\emptyset)
31\varnothing A=160:B=1\varnothing\varnothing:PH=\varnothing:Y=\varnothing:X=R
32\varnothing IY=PH+Y+Y+1:XY=IY-X-X+1
330 DRAW A+X,B+Y:DRAW A-X,B+Y
34\emptyset DRAW A+X,B-Y:DRAW A-X,B-Y
35\emptyset DRAW A+Y,B+X:DRAW A-Y,B+X
360 DRAW A+Y,B-X:DRAW A-Y,B-X
37Ø PH=IY:Y=Y+1:IF ABS(XY)<ABS(IY) THEN PH=XY:X=X-
    l
38\emptyset IF X>=Y GOTO 32ø
390 NEXT R
4|\varnothing FOR R=1\varnothing TO 90 STEP 10:SETPEN 1,A(R/l|)
41\varnothing FILL A,B-R,1 TO A,B+R,\varnothing:FILL A,B+R+1,\varnothing TO A,B-
    R-1,1:NEXT R
4 2 \emptyset ~ E N D
8ØØ DATA 5,8,4,6,2,7,14,13,1
```

The DRAW and FILL statements are closely related. When the FILL statement fills in an area, it is still drawing a line. The filling is done just to each side of the line.

Filling can be limited, however, to only one side of the line. The statements LFILL and RFILL work like FILL except that they fill only to the left or the right. In some applications, they can be more convenient than using FILL. The next program shows an easier way to fill in a box.

```
10 GRAPHICS 6
2\varnothing DRAW 10,2\emptyset TO 10,1\varnothing TO 30,1\varnothing
3\emptyset LFILLTO 3\emptyset,2\emptyset
40 GOTO 40
```

As a final demonstration of line drawing and area filling, here's an example which uses the DRAW, FILL, LFILL, and RFILL statements to draw the flags of various nations. (Since "Flags" is a longer program than the previous examples, we've included rem statements at the end of each line. Don't type in these rems; they're used with "The Automatic Proofreader." Refer to the Automatic Proofreader article in Appendix D, and have a copy of the Proofreader program saved and loaded before entering the following.)

## Program 5-5. Flags

For error-free program entry, be sure to use "The Automatic Proofreader," Appendix D.
10Ø PRINT CHRS(147):PRINT " FLAGS OF NATIONS":PRIN$T$ " BY BOB RETELLE":PRINT :rem $13 \varnothing$
110 FOR K=1 TO 7:READ S\$:PRINT " " S\$:NEXT:PRINT:rem 155
$12 \emptyset$ PRINT " PRESS ANY KEY":PRINT " TO DISPLAY THE\{SPACE\}NEXT FLAG":GOSUB 6øø :rem 16
$30 \varnothing$ REM SWEDEN ..... : rem 61
$3 \varnothing 2$ GRAPHICS Ø:CLS 7:POKE 5328ø, Ø:SETPEN 1,14
:rem 251
$3 \varnothing 4$ LFILL $\varnothing, 76$ TO 90,76 TO 9ø,ø:RFILL 319,76 TO 15$\varnothing, 76$ тO $15 \emptyset, \varnothing \quad$ :rem 48
306 LFILL Ø,122 TO 9ø,122 TO 9ø,199:RFILL 319,122\{SPACE\}TO 150,122 TO 150,199 :rem 184
308 GOSUB $6 ø \emptyset$ ..... : rem 177
310 REM FRANCE ..... : rem 39
312 CLS 1:SETPEN 1,6:LFILL Ø, Ø TO 1ø6,ø TO 1ø6,199: rem 29
314 SETPEN 1,2:RFILL 319,ø TO 213,ø TO 213,199:GOS
UB 6øø ..... :rem 143
$32 \varnothing$ REM HUNGARY ..... : rem 151
322 CLS 1:SETPEN 1,2:LFILL Ø,66 TO 319,66 TO 319, ø: rem 43
324 SETPEN 1,5:LFILL Ø,134 TO 319,134 TO 319,199:G
OSUB 6øØ ..... : rem 254
$33 \varnothing$ REM CZECHOSLOVAKIA ..... :rem 144
332 CLS 6:SETPEN 1,1:RFILL 319,95 TO 14ø,95 TO ø, $\varnothing$: rem 50
334 SETPEN 1,2:RFILL 319,96 TO 14ø,96 TO Ø,199:GOS
UB 6øø : rem 168
$34 \emptyset$ REM SWITZERLAND :rem 210
342 CLS 2:SETPEN 1,1:DRAW 8ø,88 TO 8ø,112 :rem 123
344 DRAW 18ø,166 TO 180,113:DRAW 240,112 TO 240,88:DRAW 18ø,87 TO 18ø,32 :rem 36
346 RFILLTO 140,32 TO 140,87:FILLTO 140,112:RFILLT
0 140,166:GOSUB 6ø0 :rem 15
350 REM JAPAN ..... :rem $23 \varnothing$
352 CLS 1:SETPEN 1,2:CX=160:CY=1øø:RX=80:RY=60:DRAW CX+RX-1, CY:rem 161
354 FOR A=ø TO 2*1 STEP $\uparrow / 3 \emptyset: D R A W T O C X+R X * C O S(A), C$Y+RY*SIN (A) : NEXT:rem 213
356 FILL CX,CY-RY TO CX,CY+RY-1:GOSUB 6ø0 :rem 138
360 REM GREAT BRITAIN ..... :rem 249
362 CLS 1:SETPEN 1,2:DRAW 136, $\varnothing$ TO 136,88:DRAW 136. 112 TO 136,199TO 184, $\varnothing$

```
37\emptyset DRAW 319,3 TO 216,8\emptyset TO 2øø,8\emptyset:RFILLTO 307,\varnothing
    :rem 169
372 DRAW 319,196 TO 216,12ø TO 2øø,12\emptyset:RFILLTO 307
    ,199 :rem 225
374 DRAW Ø,196 TO 1ø4,12\emptyset TO 120,120:LFILLTO 12,19
        9 :rem 54
376 DRAW Ø,3 TO 104,8Ø TO 120,80:LFILLTO 12,\varnothing
                                    :rem 2
38\emptyset SETPEN l,6:DRAW 20\emptyset,0 TO 2Ø0,60:LFILLTO 280,0:
    RFILL 319,20 TO 240,80 :rem ll
382 RFILL 319,179 TO 240,120:DRAW 2ø0,199 TO 2ø0,1
    40:LFILLTO 280,199
    :rem 24\emptyset
384 DRAW 12ø,199 TO 12ø,140:RFILLTO 40,199:LFILL Ø
        ,180 TO 80,12Ø
                                :rem 27
386 LFILL Ø,2\emptyset TO 8\emptyset,80:DRAW 120,0 TO 12\emptyset,60:RFILL
    TO 40,\varnothing:GOSUB 6øø:END :rem 7
60\emptyset WAIT 198,15:GET K$:RETURN :rem 162
8\emptyset\emptyset DATA SWEDEN,FRANCE,HUNGARY,CZECHOSLOVAKIA,SWIT
    ZERLAND,JAPAN,GREAT BRITAIN :rem 160
```


## Multicolor Modes

What happens when two lines of different colors cross each other? This presents a problem. In modes 0,2 , and 4 , when pen 1 is used to plot points in several colors, if the points in one color come too close to the points in another color, the colors interfere with each other. The following program illustrates this problem.

```
1\varnothing GRAPHICS 4
2\emptyset DRAW 25,5:D=15
30 FOR Y=1\emptyset TO 4\emptyset STEP 5
4\emptyset DRAWTO 4\emptyset+D,Y
5\emptyset D=-D:NEXT
60 SETPEN 1,2:DRAW 43,5 TO 43,40
7\varnothing GOTO 7\emptyset
```

The cause of the problem is that no matter which bitmap resolution is used, the color resolution is always $40 \times 25$. The bitmap portion of the screen may allow $320 \times 200$ points, but the color portion is always divided into $40 \times 25$ "color squares." Each color square is the same size as a text character, and all the points in a square have to share the same color. If the first color square on the screen is red, then all points plotted in that area will appear red. Points drawn in the next color square could have a different color, but again they
would all have to be the same color. This next program gives a better view of what actually happens when two colors come too close to each other.

```
1\varnothing GRAPHICS 4
2\emptyset DRAW 20,40 TO 2\emptyset,1\emptyset TO 60,10:LFILLTO 60,4\emptyset
30 SETPEN 1,2:DRAW 19,5 TO 59,45
4\emptyset GOTO 40
```

The parts of the line outside the box appear in the correct resolution. Inside the box, though, you get a perfect picture of the color squares. As the points forming the line were plotted, the color squares for those points were changed to red, the new pen color. The problem is that the color squares were also used by other points not in the line, and those points changed to red as well.

To help get around this limitation, the VIC-II chip supports a multicolor bitmap mode. This mode allows three colors in each color square, not just one. Now, when three points are plotted in the same color square, each can have a different color.

The multicolor mode has been implemented in the BASIC extensions as graphics modes $1,3,5$, and 7 . They are practically the same as modes $0,2,4$, and 6 , except that there are now three drawing pens (pens 1, 2, and 3) for plotting, not just one. You can use pen 1 to draw a line in one color, then use pen 2 to draw a line with a different color crossing the first line. There will be no conflict at the intersection.

```
1\varnothing GRAPHICS 5
2Ø DRAW 25,5:D=15
30 FOR Y=1\varnothing TO 4| STEP 5
4| DRAWTO 40+D,Y
5\emptyset D=-D:NEXT
60 SETPEN 2,2:DRAW 43,5,2 TO 43,40
7\varnothing GOTO 70
```

The program with the line passing through the box has been modified to use all three drawing pens.

```
10 GRAPHICS 5
2ø DRAW 20,40 TO 20,10 TO 60,10:LFILLTO 60,4ø
30 SETPEN 2,2:DRAW 19,5,2 TO 59,45
40 GOTO 40
```

As shown by the last example, the default colors for pens 2 and 3 are light red (color 10) and blue (color 6), respectively. These colors were chosen because they have different luminance values, so they'll appear as different shades of gray on a black-and-white television. Pen 1's default remains light green (color 13).

The colors for pens 1, 2, and 3 are set back to the default values every time the GRAPHICS statement is executed.

The multicolor modes $1,3,5$, and 7 are identical in resolution to modes $0,2,4$, and 6 , with one exception. The VIC-II chip does not support a horizontal resolution of 320 points in multicolor mode. Therefore, mode 1 has a resolution of 200 points vertically, but only 160 across.

| Mode | Resolution | Mode | Resolution |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 0 | $320 \times 200$ | 1 | $160 \times 200$ |
| 2 | $160 \times 100$ | 3 | $160 \times 100$ |
| 4 | $80 \times 50$ | 5 | $80 \times 50$ |
| 6 | $40 \times 25$ | 7 | $40 \times 25$ |

It's not possible to mix normal and multicolor modes on the same screen. The MODE statement can be used to switch to any mode, but it's recommended that you switch only among modes $0,2,4$, and 6 , or modes $1,3,5$, and 7 . If you cross between a normal mode and a multicolor mode, the picture will appear to be distorted.

Since modes 3,5 , and 7 can do everything that modes 2 , 4 , and 6 can do, with the added convenience of two more drawing pens, you might wonder why modes 2,4 , and 6 are even needed. The fact that normal and multicolor modes cannot be mixed explains why the multicolor modes are not used exclusively. For most applications, the convenience of three drawing pens makes the multicolor modes preferable. However, if you want to use the highest resolution, $320 \times 200$, the multicolor modes cannot be used. If you want to mix other resolutions with the $320 \times 200$ mode, you need to use modes 2,4 , and 6.

Multicolor modes are used when you need up to three colors next to each other. The following program, which draws some three-dimensional cubes, could not be written in a normal graphics mode.

[^4]```
    A=INT(RND(|)*15)+1
3\emptyset B=INT(RND(\varnothing)*15)+1:IF B=A GOTO 3\emptyset
40 C=INT(RND(\emptyset)*15)+1:IF C=A OR C=B GOTO 4\emptyset
50 SETPEN l,A:DRAW X,Y,l TO X,Y+2\emptyset TO X+15,Y+20:LF
    ILLTO X+l5,Y:SETPEN 2,B
60 DRAW X+16,Y-1,2 TO X+21,Y-11:LFILL X+21,Y-9 TO
    {SPACE}X+21,Y+9 TO X+16,Y+19
70 SETPEN 3,C:DRAW X+20,Y-11,3 TO X+5,Y-11:RFILLTO
    X+1,Y-1
80 NEXT:NEXT:WAIT 198,15:GET K$:GOTO 10
```

This program demonstrates drawing and filling in three drawing pens. One other possibility yet to be considered is filling in an area that has already been filled by another pen. If an area has been filled using pen 1 and you want to fill the inside of the area using pen 2, the optional third number after the destination point in the FILL statement has to be used. The following program draws some concentric diamond shapes to show how the pen number is used.

```
10 GRAPHICS 3
2ø DRAW 80.\varnothing TO 159,49 TO 80,99:RFILLTO Ø,49 то 79
    ,1
30 DRAW 80,20,2 тO 139,49 TO 80,79:RFILlTO 20,49,1
        TO 8ø,2ø,1
4\varnothing DRAW 80,3ø,3 TO 119,49 TO 8Ø,69:RFILLTO 40,49,2
        TO 8ø,30,2
50 DRAW 80,45,\emptyset TO 99,49 TO 80,54:RFILLTO 60,49,3
    {SPACE}TO 80,45,3
60 GOTO 60
```

The first diamond is drawn normally. No third number is used in the destination points because it's the background that's being filled. On the second diamond, the drawing pen is changed to pen 2. Because this diamond is drawn inside the first one, the destination points in the RFILL statement indicate that points plotted in pen 1 are to be covered by the filling. Notice that the third number has to be used in both destination points. For the third diamond, pen 3 is used, and the filling covers up pen 2. The last diamond is drawn by erasing part of the previous diamond. Points plotted in pen 3 are erased by pen 0 .

One other difference between the multicolor modes and the normal modes is that in multicolor modes, the background color can be changed by POKEing location 53281. This allows you to change the background color without clearing the screen.

## Shapedit

## Introduction to Shape Tables

Statements like GRAPHICS and DRAW certainly make bitmapped graphics easy to use. In fact, bitmapped graphics would hardly even be feasible without them. These statements become less convenient, however, when they're used to draw detailed shapes. Drawing a rectangle or a box is easy enough, but drawing something like the outline of a person may require much more complicated plotting. It can take a lot of work to get all the coordinates in DRAW statements set properly. Also, the speed advantage of the machine language diminishes when several statements have to be executed.

The best way to handle shape drawing is to use a graphics utility commonly known as a shape table. A shape table is a sequence of instructions which tell the drawing pen where to plot points. Each instruction moves the pen one position, such as up, down, left, or right. After the pen moves to the new position, a point is plotted. Several instructions in the proper order can make the drawing pen trace a path to draw a shape.

To complete the collection of machine language graphics routines, we've provided a routine which uses shape tables to draw. Instructions in this implementation can move the pen in eight directions and plot points using pens 0 to 3 . There are also advanced instructions to change the pen color, move the pen to another place on the screen, draw lines, fill areas, and so on.

The SHAPE statement is used to draw a shape. The syntax for this statement is:

## SHAPE address, $X$ coordinate, $Y$ coordinate

A shape table is stored as bytes in memory. The first number after the keyword SHAPE is the address of the shape table. The $X$ and $Y$ coordinates are the starting position of the pen. When the SHAPE statement is executed, the pen starts at the designated position and moves according to the instructions in the shape table.

The significance of this is that a single BASIC statement can draw an entire shape. And because only one statement is involved, the drawing of individual points is done much faster. By using the SHAPE statement, you can do things with
bitmapped graphics that otherwise cannot be done.
Let's take a look at just what the SHAPE statement can do. The following demonstrations illustrate just some of the things SHAPE is capable of. Remember that "BMG.OBJ" (Program 5-3) must first be loaded into memory. Use the loader program (Program 5-1 for disk, or Program 5-2 for tape) to load up the BMG BASIC extensions program.

The three example programs have many lines in common. To reduce typing, enter Program 6-1 and save it using the filename SHP.BAS.

These lines do not form a program and will not work properly if you try to run them. Rather, they are subroutines which must be contained in every program that uses shapes, whether those programs are demonstrations from this book or programs you later write yourself. The lines have been numbered starting at 56500 so that they'll be out of the way of normal program lines.

## Program 6-1. SHP.BAS <br> For error-free program entry, be sure to use "The Automatic Proofreader," Appendix D.

```
5650Ø POKE SA,1:POKE SX,DN:POKE SY,0:SYS 65466:F$=
    F$+".SHP":GOSUB 59øø\emptyset :rem 50
5651Ø POKE SA,\varnothing:POKE SX,LA-256*INT(LA/256):POKE SY
    ,INT(LA/256) :rem 76
56520 SYS 65493:IF PEEK(SP)ANDI GOTO 591ø\emptyset :rem 42
56530 NS=PEEK(LA):DIM AS(NS):LA=LA+1 :rem 107
56540 FOR K=\emptyset TO NS:AS(K)=LA+2:LA=LA+2+PEEK(LA)+25
    6*PEEK (LA+1) :NEXT:RETURN :rem 120
59øø\emptyset FOR K=1 TO LEN(F$):POKE 584+K,ASC(MID$(F$,K)
    ):NEXT :rem 88
59ø1\emptyset POKE SA,LEN(F$):POKE SX,73:POKE SY,2:SYS 654
    69:RETURN :rem 6
591ø\varnothing P=PEEK(SA):PRINT " ERROR: ";:IF P=4 THEN PRI
    NT "FILE NOT FOUND":END :rem 2ø\varnothing
59110 IF P=5 THEN PRINT "DEVICE NOT PRESENT":END
                                    :rem 36
5912Ø PRINT ST:END :rem 70
```

Now that you've created the "SHP.BAS" file, you're ready to enter the demonstrations. As you type in each example program, start with the SHP.BAS file already in memory. In other words, instead of typing NEW before entering each program, enter LOAD"SHP.BAS", 8 for disk, or LOAD"SHP.BAS" for tape. Then begin typing the lines in the
demonstration program. The result merges the SHP.BAS lines with those from the demonstration file to create a complete program.

One more thing must be done before a demonstration will work. Shape tables are stored as data files on tape or disk. Use the "MLX" program from Appendix C (this is the same program you used to create BMG.OBJ in Chapter 5) to enter the shape file which corresponds with the demonstration program. If you're using tape, save the shape file immediately after the demonstration program.

All demonstration programs as listed are set for use with the disk drive. To make a demonstration work with the Datassette, change the assignment of variable DN (the device number) from 8 to 1 in line 110.

Program 6-2 is the first demonstration. Merge it with the SHP.BAS (Program 6-1) and save the program with the filename MUNCHKINS.

## Program 6-2. MUNCHKINS

For error-free program entry, be sure to use "The Automatic Proofreader," Appendix D.


Program 6-3 is the shape file for the "MUNCHKINS" program. Save this file using the filename MUNCHKIN.SHP. All shape files (shape filenames always end with .SHP) must be entered and saved using the MLX program found in Appendix C. Each of these files requires a starting and ending address, as well as a filename, when prompted by MLX. Be sure to read the accompanying article in Appendix $C$ before going on.

## Program 6-3. MUNCHKIN.SHP

To enter this program, you must use "The Machine Language Editor (MLX)," a program found in Appendix C.

## Starting Address: 49152

Ending Address: 49295
Filename: MUNCHKIN.SHP

| 49152 | : Ø00,139, 000,087,083,083,136 |
| :---: | :---: |
| 49158 | : Ø83, Ø83, Ø83, Ø83, Ø99, 115, Ø40 |
| 49164 | : 115,099,115,067,115,115,126 |
| 49170 | : 115,115,091,115,115,115,172 |
| 49176 | : 107, 083, 083, 083,083,083,034 |
| 49182 | : Ø83, Ø83, Ø83, Ø83, Ø83, Ø83, 016 |
| 49188 | : Ø67, Ø67, Ø83, Ø99, Ø99, Ø75, 014 |
| 49194 | : Ø83,107,083,083,091,115,092 |
| 49200 | : 115,115,115,115,115,115,226 |
| 49206 | : $115,115,115,115,115,115,232$ |
| 49212 | : 115,115,115,115,039,163,21Ø |
| 49218 | : Ø63,171,163,171,171,171,2Ø8 |
| 49224 | :171,179,179,191,083,083,190 |
| $4923 \varnothing$ | : Ø83,119, 211, Ø63, 227, 235,248 |
| 49236 | : 227, 235, 227, 235, 235, 235, 198 |
| 49242 | : 243,191, $083,083,083,103,108$ |
| 49248 | : $147,063,163,163,171,163,198$ |
| 49254 | : 163,171,163,155,155,191,076 |
| 49260 | : 083, Ø83, Ø83, 135, 211, 063, 254 |
| 49266 | : 227, 219, 227, 235, 227, 219, 188 |
| 49272 | : 219, 227, 227, 235,191,083,022 |
| 49278 | : Ø83, 083, Ø83, 071,147,063,144 |
| 49284 | : 163,163, 163,155,155,155,062 |
| 49290 | : 163,155,155,255,013,013,124 |

This first demonstration uses several SHAPE statements to draw the same shape at different positions and in different resolutions. Notice that the legs of the Munchkin shape consist of many points that would require a lot of DRAW statements if a shape table wasn't used. Also notice that the shapes are drawn very quickly.

In the second demonstration, the illusion of more than four shapes is created by drawing the shapes with different color combinations. Type in and save Program 6-4 using the filename BROTHERHOOD (don't forget to first load SHP.BAS before typing what you see below). You'll also need to enter (with MLX) the shape file (Program 6-5).

## Program 6-4. BROTHERHOOD

For error-free program entry, be sure to use "The Automatic Proofreader," Appendix D.

```
1ø\emptyset PRINT CHR$(147):PRINT " BROTHERHOOD":PRINT " B
    Y MARK DAVIDS":PRINT :rem l7\emptyset
110 DN=8:SA=780:SX=781:SY=782:SP=783 :rem 133
120 F$="FAMILY":LA=PEEK(49)+256*PEEK(50)+1\varnothingø\emptyset:GOSU
    B 565\emptyset\emptyset:REM LOAD SHAPES :rem l56
3ø\emptyset GRAPHICS 3:POKE 53280,11:POKE 53281,l2 :rem ll
31\varnothing FOR K=2\emptyset TO 80 STEP 30:GOSUB 60\emptyset:SHAPE AS(4*RN
    D(\emptyset)),1\varnothing,K :rem l82
32ø FOR J=1 TO lø:GOSUB 6ø0:SHAPE AS(4*RND(\varnothing)):NEX
    T J,K
        :rem 21
330 WAIT 198,15:GET K$:CLS 12:GOTO 310 :rem 14
6ø\varnothing N=3*RND(\varnothing):SETPEN 1,9+N:SETPEN 3,7*RND(|)+1:ON
        N GOTO 62ø,630 :rem 64
61\varnothing SETPEN 2,7*INT(2*RND(0)):RETURN :rem 60
620 N=INT(3*RND(|)):SETPEN 2,-7*(N=1)-9*(N=2):RETU
    RN
:rem 2l9
630 SETPEN 2,0:RETURN :rem 16
```


## Program 6-5. FAMILY.SHP

To enter this program, you must use "The Machine Language Editor (MLX)," a program found in Appendix C.

## Starting Address: 49152 <br> Ending Address: 49445 <br> Filename: FAMILY.SHP

|  |  |
| :---: | :---: |
| 49158 | : 139,131,139,131,147,022,203 |
| 49164 | : $031,163,155,163,155,099,010$ |
| 49170 | :083,ø08,179,ø33,ø31,0ø0,096 |
| 49176 | : ø01,115,115,123,067,083,016 |
| 49182 | : 083,083,099,115,115,123,136 |
| 49188 | : $179,139,147,147,147,155,182$ |
| 91 | : Ø16, Øø2, Ø21,179,029, 095,128 |
| 49200 | : 227,018, Ø31, 061, 031,163, 067 |
| 49206 | : 179,195,049, ø31, 012,195,2ø3 |
| 49212 | : Ø13,095,227,037,031,155,106 |
| 49218 | : 179,203,033,031,030, 017,047 |
| 92 | : 255,046, 0 , 0 , $083,091,091,126$ |
| 49230 | : $155,147,147,147,147,075,128$ |
| 49236 | : $075,075,016,021,067,123,205$ |
| 49242 | : 083,083,067,115,115,179,220 |
| 49248 | : 139,147,147,155,012,021,205 |
| 49254 | : 155,147,147,227,243,243,240 |
| 49260 | : 227,211, 211, 227,227,099,030 |
| 49266 | : 051,115,195,195,022,049,229 |
| 49272 | : 255,103, $0 \varnothing 0,083, \varnothing 83, \varnothing 67,199$ |

```
49278:067,083,067,083,067,211,192
49284 : 083,067,091,067,075,067,070
49290 : 115,115,115,099,083,083,236
49296:075,131,179,179,179,171,034
49302:163,163,147,014,017,163,049
49308: 163,163,179,227,083,099,046
49314 : 083,099,083,099,099,083,196
4932\emptyset:\emptyset12,025,227,243,243,243,137
49326:227,211,211,211,219,243,216
49332: 243,243,243,243,227,211,054
49338:211,211,211,211,219,243,212
49344:243,243,243,243,243,243,114
49350 : 227,211,211,211,211,211,200
49356 : 211,211,227,024,031,018,158
49362:099,029,031,163,179,179,122
49368:179,006,067,115,115,025,211
49374 : 095,026,025,255,061,000,172
49380 : 083,219,211,203,203,211,\varnothing78
49386 : 067,123,083,083,067,115,004
49392:115,179,139,147,147,155,098
49398 : Ø\emptyset\emptyset,013,227,219,219,211,111
494\emptyset4 : Ø75,ØØ8,243,243,243,227,011
49410 : 211,211,211,243,243,243,084
49416 : 243,219,211,211,163,179,210
49422: : 179,163,147,147,163,163,208
49428:163,163,227,051,243,131,230
49434 : 131,131,131,147,018,033,105
49440 : 255,013,013,013,013,013,096
```

The final demonstration draws a background scene and then uses fast shape-table plotting to make some tulips grow. As before, make sure both the following programs are on the same disk. If you're using tape, place the shape file (Program 6-7), immediately after Program 6-6. Remember to place the lines from SHP.BAS, Program 6-1, in memory before starting to type Program 6-6.

## Program 6-6. TULIPS

For error-free program entry, be sure to use "The Automatic Proofreader," Appendix D.

```
1ø\emptyset PRINT CHR$(147):PRINT " TULIPS":PRINT " BY MAR
    K DAVIDS":PRINT :rem 75
11\varnothing DN=8:SA=780:SX=781:SY=782:SP=783 :rem 133
12\varnothing F$="TULIPS":LA=PEEK(49)+256*PEEK(50)+1Øø\emptyset:GOSU
    B 5650\emptyset:REM LOAD SHAPES :rem 187
2øø DIM X(14),Y(14),TX(14),TY(14) :rem 21\varnothing
210 FOR C=1 TO 14:TX(C)=10*C+INT(5*RND( })\mathrm{ ):TY(C)=7
    \emptyset+INT(1\varnothing*RND(\varnothing)):NEXT :rem 21Ø
```

```
22ø FOR C=1 TO 14:R=C+INT((15-C)*RND(\varnothing)):X(C)=TX(R
    ):Y(C)=TY(R) :rem 195
23ø TX(R)=TX(C):TY(R)=TY(C):NEXT :rem 226
3ø\emptyset GRAPHICS 1:POKE 53280,6:SETPEN 1,14:LFILL Ø,9\emptyset
    TO 159,90 TO 159,ø :rem 148
310 SETPEN 2,9:DRAW Ø,75,2 TO 50,35 TO 1øø,60 TO l
    2ø,40 TO 159,7Ø
    :rem 133
32\emptyset FILL Ø,9\emptyset TO 50,90,1 TO 50,36,1:FILL 120,61 TO
        120,41,1 :rem 32
33Ø MODE 5:SETPEN 1,5:DRAW Ø,22,1 TO 79,22:rem 179
340 MODE 3:FOR C=1 TO 75:DRAW 15\emptyset*RND(\varnothing),43:NEXT
    :rem lø5
4ØØ FOR K=\varnothing TO 9:FOR C=1 TO 14:SHAPE AS(K),X(C),Y(
    C) : NEXT:NEXT
    :rem 231
410 WAIT 198,15:GET K$ :rem 135
420 END :rem 109
```


## Program 6-7. TULIPS.SHP

To enter this program, you must use "The Machine Language Editor (MLX)," a program found in Appendix C.
Starting Address: 49152
Ending Address: 49283
Filename: TULIPS.SHP

|  |  |
| :---: | :---: |
| 49158 | : 067,091,099,255,006, $000, \varnothing 12$ |
| 49164 | : 067,123,067,075,091,255,178 |
| 49170 | : Ø08, Øøø, 067, Ø33, 099, 067, 036 |
| 49176 | : Ø99, 091, Ø83,255,013, $000, \varnothing 53$ |
| 49182 | : Ø67,øø4, Ø09, $75,115,099,143$ |
| 49188 | : $066,017,067,067,006, \varnothing 21,220$ |
| 9194 | :255,014, øøø, Ø67, Øø8, Ø17,147 |
| 49200 | : $075,107,018,001,083,115,191$ |
| 49206 | : $004,017,067,067,255,011,219$ |
| 49212 | : $0 \boxed{1}, 067,008,017,067,115,078$ |
| 49218 | : Ø67,014, 025,067,067,255,049 |
| 49224 | : Øø8, Øøø, Ø81, Ø67,115, 677,154 |
| 49230 | : 083,083,099,255,007,000, 093 |
| 49236 | : 067,089,119,187,147,147,072 |
| 49242 | :255,016, $0 \varnothing, 119, \varnothing \varnothing 0,105, \varnothing 73$ |
| 49248 | :147,179,147,147,026,109,083 |
| 49254 | : 024,097,179,147,179,179,139 |
| 49260 | : 255,ø15, øøø, ø67, Ø0 , 105, Ø42 |
| 49266 | : 119,163,163,131,131,155,2ø8 |
| 49272 | : $139,155,139,163,163,255,110$ |
| 49278 | :øø1, Øøø,255,ø13,ø13,013,165 |

## The Shapedit Program

Now that you've seen a small sampling of what the SHAPE statement can do, you ought to try creating a few shapes of your own. You'll be glad to know that making a shape is as easy as using a joystick. "Shapedit," Program 6-8, simplifies the task of defining a shape table. This program makes it easy to create and edit up to 100 shapes in any graphics mode. It also has options to save shape files to tape or disk. Shapedit has been carefully designed to make shape creation as simple as possible.

Shapedit uses graphics statements, so be sure that the BASIC extensions have been installed.(by running "BMGLOADER") before you enter, save, load, or run the program.

It's set to use the disk drive. Again, to make it work with the Datassette, change the statement $\mathrm{DN}=8$ in the first line to DN=1.

Save the program using the filename SHAPEDIT before you run it. This is a wise precaution whenever you run a program for the first time, in case the computer crashes due to a typing mistake.

Plug a joystick into port 2 and type RUN. The program takes a moment to initialize and then displays a black screen with a five-line text window at the bottom. The first line reports status information, including the current drawing pen, the current origin, and the current pen position. The next four rows have items which are accessible by moving the joystick. Items are selected by pressing the joystick button. The screen above the text window is graphics mode 7.

## Program 6-8. Shapedit

For error-free program entry, be sure to use "The Automatic Proofreader," Appendix D. This program requires that BMG.OBJ (Program 5-3) be loaded into your computer before it is entered, saved, loaded, or run.

```
1Ø\varnothing DN=8:X=\varnothing:Y=\varnothing:XX=\varnothing:YY=Ø:JS=5632\emptyset:SA=780:SX=781:
    SY=782:SP=783:GOTO 8\emptyset\emptyset :rem 82
11\varnothing POKE 214,19:PRINT:F$=STR$(X):PRINT TAB(31) RIG
    HT$(FS,LEN(FS)-1) ","; :rem 219
120 F$=STR$(Y):PRINT RIGHT$(F$,LEN(F$)-1) LEFT$(BL
    $,39-POS(\varnothing)):K=FRE(\varnothing):RETURN :rem l3
130 SYS 49345:Tl=MX(MD):T2=MY(MD) :rem 164
140 SYS 49391,X,Y:GOSUB 110 :rem 243
```

$15 \emptyset \mathrm{~N}=\mathrm{PEEK}(\mathrm{JS})$ AND15:IF $\mathrm{N}=15$ THEN ON ((PEEK(JS)AND1 6) $=\varnothing$ ) +2 GOTO 185,15Ø : rem 69
$16 \varnothing \mathrm{X}=\mathrm{X}+\mathrm{JX}(\mathrm{N}): \mathrm{IF} \mathrm{X}<\boldsymbol{\varnothing}$ OR X>T1 THEN $\mathrm{X}=-\mathrm{Tl}$ * $(\mathrm{X}<\varnothing)$
:rem 238
$17 \varnothing \mathrm{Y}=\mathrm{Y}+\mathrm{JY}(\mathrm{N}): \mathrm{IF} \mathrm{Y}<\boldsymbol{0}$ OR $\mathrm{Y}>\mathrm{T} 2 \mathrm{THEN} \mathrm{Y}=-\mathrm{T} 2$ * $(\mathrm{Y}<\varnothing)$
:rem 248
$18 \varnothing$ GOTO $14 \varnothing$ :rem $1 \varnothing 3$
185 WAIT JS,16:RETURN :rem 29
19Ø POKE 214,2б+(CN AND3):PRINT:PRINT TAB(U(CN/4)) CHR\$(N) CN\$(CN);:RETURN :rem 221
2øØ $\mathrm{N}=146: G O S U B$ 190:IF PF=ø GOTO $23 \varnothing$.rem 166
$21 \varnothing \mathrm{PF}=\varnothing: \mathrm{X}=\mathrm{XX}: \mathrm{Y}=\mathrm{YY}: \mathrm{GOSUB} 130: \mathrm{XX}=\mathrm{X}: \mathrm{YY}=\mathrm{Y}: \mathrm{POKE} 53269$, Ø:GOSUB 740:POKE 198,ø :rem 112
220 GOSUB 650:IF PEEK (SP)AND1ORFNDP (52495) >MX (MD) O RPEEK (52497) >MY(MD) GOTO 79ø :rem 62
$23 \emptyset$ POKE 52479,DP:IF DP THEN POKE 5328ø,PEEK(52488 +DP):GOTO 24Ø :rem 193
235 POKE 5328Ø,CL :rem 134
$240 \mathrm{X}=\mathrm{FNDP}(52495): \mathrm{Y}=\mathrm{PEEK}(52497):$ GOSUB llø :rem 74
245 SYS 49466:N=PEEK(SA):IF N=255 THEN POKE 53269, Ø:GET F\$:GOTO 260 :rem 184
250 POKE AS+SL-1,N:POKE AS+SL, 255:SL=SL+1:FM=FM-1: IF FM>Ø GOTO 23Ø :rem 47
255 F\$="MEMORY FULL":GOTO 795 :rem 171
260 IF F\$<>CHRS(136) GOTO 275 :rem 206
265 DP=DP+1:DP=DPANDPEEK(52483):POKE 214,19:PRINT: PRINT TAB(5) CHR\$(48+DP) :rem 74
$27 \varnothing$ GOTO $23 \varnothing$ :rem 1ø3
275 IF FS<<>CHR\$ (133) GOTO 33Ø :rem 201
280 IF SL=1 GOTO $245 \quad:$ rem $1 \varnothing$
285 SL=SL-1:FM=FM+1:POKE AS+SL-1,255:CLS CL:IF SL> 1 GOTO $22 \varnothing$ :rem 173
$290 \mathrm{PF}=1: G O T O$ 32ø $\quad$ rem 167
3 Øø POKE AS+SL-1,N:POKE AS+SL, 255:SL=SL+1:FM=FM-1 : IF FM<l GOTO 255
: rem 49
310 IF CN=12 GOTO 521 :rem 37
$320 \mathrm{~N}=146:$ GOSUB $19 \varnothing \quad$ :rem 15
$330 \mathrm{CN}=8: \mathrm{N}=18: \operatorname{GOSUB} 190: \mathrm{K}=\mathrm{FRE}(\varnothing):$ WAIT JS, 16
:rem 221
350 POKE 198, $0: K=\operatorname{PEEK}(J S) A N D 15: I F K<>15$ THEN $N=146$ :GOSUB 190:GOTO 38Ø :rem 126
 CN>11) GOTO 350
:rem 161
$37 \varnothing$ ON CN+1 GOTO 4øø,41ø,44ø,45ø,46ø,47ø,48ø,35ø,2
Øø,5øø,51ø,49ø,52ø :rem 33
$375 \mathrm{~N}=\mathrm{U}(\mathrm{CN}-8): \mathrm{ON} \mathrm{CN}-12$ GOTO 530,540,550:GOTO 560
: rem 4ø
38 Ø $C N=C N+4 * J X(K)+J Y(K): I F \quad J Y(K)=-1$ AND (CN AND3)= 3 THEN CN=CN+4
385 IF $J Y(K)=1$ AND (CN AND3) $=\varnothing$ THEN CN=CN-4: rem 243$39 \varnothing$ CN=CN-2ø* (CN<ø)+2ø*(CN>19):IF CN=7 GOTO $38 \emptyset$: rem 229
395 N=18:GOSUB 190:FOR K=1 TO 5ø:NEXT:GOTO 35ø ..... : rem 79
400 GOSUB 770:IF F\$="" THEN GOSUB 760:GOTO 32ø: rem 186
401 POKE 53269,ø:PF=1:GOSUB 670:POKE SA,1:POKE SX,DN:POKE SY, $0: S Y S 65466$:rem 159
402 F =FS+".SHP":GOSUB 6ø0:POKE SA, $0: P O K E ~ S X, F N L(B$A): POKE SY,FNH(BA):rem 189
403 POKE 648,188:POKE 214,19:PRINT ..... :rem 146
404 SYS 65493:N=(PEEK(SP)AND1)*PEEK(SA):POKE 648,192:PRINT:rem 163
405 GOSUB 76ø:CLS CL:SYS 49152:IF N THEN GOSUB 73Ø
: GOTO 42ø ..... :rem 8
406 NS=PEEK(BA):AS=BA+1:FOR K=Ø TO NS:SL\%(K)=FNDP(
AS ) : AS=AS+2+SL\% (K) : NEXT ..... :rem 92
407 FM=MT-AS:IF FM<Ø THEN GOSUB 730:F\$="NOT ENOUGHMEMORY":GOTO 795 :rem 171
408 SN=Ø:POKE 214,2Ø:PRINT:PRINT TAB(15) "Ø ":GOSUB 630:GOTO 32ø :rem 35
$41 \varnothing$ IF NS=Ø AND SL=1 GOTO 35ø ..... :rem 227
411 GOSUB 770:IF F\$="" THEN GOSUB 760:GOTO $32 \varnothing$: rem 188
412 GOSUB 64ø:POKE BA,NS:AS=BA+1:FOR K=ø TO NS:POKE AS, FNL(SL\%(K)) :rem 43
413 POKE AS+1,FNH(SL\%(K)):AS=AS+2+SL\%(K):NEXT:POKE53269, $0:$ GOSUB 67ø: rem 149
414 POKE SA,l:POKE SX,DN:POKE SY, Ø:SYS 65466:F\$=F\$+".SHP":GOSUB 6øØ :rem 99415 POKE SA, 251: POKE 251,FNL(BA): POKE 252,FNH(BA)
:rem 224
416 POKE SX,FNL(AS): POKE SY,FNH(AS):POKE 648,188:POKE 214,19:PRINT:rem 157
417 SYS 65496:N=(PEEK(SP)AND1)*PEEK(SA):POKE 648,192:PRINT :rem $17 \emptyset$
418 GOSUB 760:SYS 49152:GOSUB 630:IF N=ø GOTO $32 \emptyset$: rem 157
$42 \varnothing$ IF N=4 THEN F\$="FILE NOT FOUND":GOTO 795:rem 163
422 IF N=5 THEN F\$="DEVICE NOT PRESENT":GOTO 795:rem 219
$424 \mathrm{FS}=\mathrm{STR}(\mathrm{ST}):$ GOTO 795 ..... :rem 110
440 SL\% (SN)=SL:H=NS:GOSUB 660:IF FM<SL\%(N) THEN F\$$=$ "NOT ENOUGH MEMORY": GOTO 795 :rem 157
$442 \mathrm{~S}=\mathrm{BA}+3: \mathrm{IF} \mathrm{N}=\varnothing$ GOTO 445 ..... :rem 101
443 IF $\mathrm{N}<=\mathrm{SN}$ THEN FOR K=ø TO $\mathrm{N}-1: \mathrm{S}=\mathrm{S}+\mathrm{SL} \%(\mathrm{~K})+2: \mathrm{NEXT}$: GOTO 445: rem 61

444 S=MT+2:FOR K=N TO NS:S=S-2-SL\% (K):NEXT: rem 231
$445 \mathrm{~L}=\mathrm{SL} \%$ ( N ): $\mathrm{D}=\mathrm{AS}+\mathrm{SL}-1:$ GOSUB $620: S L=S L+L-1: F M=F M-L$ +1: POKE 53269, $\varnothing$ :GOSUB 650 :rem 113
446 IF PEEK(SP)AND1 OR FNDP (52495) $>$ MX(MD) OR PEEK ( 52497) >MY(MD) GOTO $790 \quad$ :rem 243
$447 \mathrm{X}=\mathrm{FNDP}(52495): \mathrm{Y}=\mathrm{PEEK}(52497):$ GOSUB $110:$ GOTO $32 \varnothing$ : rem 91
450 GOSUB 780:IF K\$<>"Y" GOTO $32 \varnothing$ :rem 213
455 GOSUB 67ø:POKE 648,4:POKE 51578,2øø:POKE SX,23 7:POKE SY,246:SYS 49888:END :rem 111
460 SL\% (SN) $=S L: L=\varnothing: H=N S: N=S N: I F \quad F M>2$ AND SL\% (NS) $>1$ AND $\mathrm{H}<\mathrm{MX}$ THEN H=NS+1 :rem 86
462 GOSUB $720: P F=1: I F \quad N=S N$ GOTO $32 \varnothing$ :rem 182
$464 \mathrm{Tl}=\mathrm{N}: \mathrm{N}=146:$ GOSUB 190:GOSUB 640 :rem 182
466 SN=Tl:IF SN>NS THEN NS=SN:SL\% (SN)=1:FM=FM-3:PO KE AS+SL+AB+2,255 :rem 239
468 GOSUB 630:GOTO $33 \varnothing \quad$ :rem 196
$47 \varnothing \mathrm{~N}=\mathrm{CL}: \mathrm{L}=\varnothing: \mathrm{H}=14$ :GOSUB 72ø:CL=N:CLS CL:POKE 53269 , $0: \mathrm{PF}=1 \quad$ :rem 42
475 POKE 53287,-(CL<>1):GOTO 32ø :rem 196
$48 \varnothing \mathrm{~N}=\mathrm{MD}: L=\varnothing: \mathrm{H}=7$ :GOSUB $720: M D=\mathrm{N}: M O D E$ MD:IF XX>MX(M D) THEN $X X=M X(M D) \quad$ rem 27

482 IF $Y Y>M Y(M D)$ THEN $Y Y=M Y(M D) \quad$ :rem 75
484 DP=DPANDPEEK (52483):X=XX:Y=YY:GOSUB 760:POKE 5 2479,DP:PF=1:GOTO $32 \varnothing$ :rem 38
$49 \varnothing$ GOSUB 78ø:IF K\$<>"Y" GOTO 320 :rem 217
492 FM=FM+SL-1:SL=1:POKE AS,255:CLS CL:PF=1:IF SN< NS OR NS=ø GOTO 32Ø :rem 227
494 NS=NS $-1: F M=F M+3: S N=N S: P O K E 214,20: P R I N T: P R I N T$ \{SPACE\}TAB(14) SN "\{LEFT\} ":GOSUB 630 :rem 176
496 GOTO $32 \varnothing \quad$ :rem 113
5øø H=15:GOSUB 660:POKE 52505,N+128:N=16*N+7:GOTO \{SPACE \}3ØØ
: rem $14 \varnothing$
51ø H=3:GOSUB 660:POKE 52492, Ø:IF N THEN POKE 5249 2 , PEEK ( 52486 ) ORPEEK ( $52435+\mathrm{N}$ ) :rem 4ø
$515 \mathrm{~N}=\mathrm{N}^{*} 64+15$ : GOTO 3øø : rem 159
$52 \varnothing$ TX=X:TY=Y:GOSUB $130: T X=X-T X: T Y=Y-T Y$ :rem 78
521 IF TX=ø GOTO $524 \quad$ :rem $2 \varnothing$
$522 \mathrm{~N}=\mathrm{ABS}(\mathrm{TX}): I F$ N>64 THEN N=64 :rem 218
$523 \mathrm{Tl}=\mathrm{TX}: T \mathrm{TX}=\mathrm{SGN}(\mathrm{TX}) *(\mathrm{ABS}(\mathrm{TX})-\mathrm{N}): \mathrm{N}=(\mathrm{N}-1) * 4-2 *(\mathrm{Tl}>\varnothing$ ):GOTO $3 \varnothing \varnothing \quad$ :rem 204
524 IF TY= $\varnothing$ THEN POKE 52495,FNL(X): POKE 52496,FNH( X): POKE 52497,Y:GOTO $32 \emptyset$
:rem 133
$525 \mathrm{~N}=\mathrm{ABS}(\mathrm{TY}): I F \mathrm{~N}>32$ THEN $\mathrm{N}=32$
:rem 212
$526 \mathrm{Tl}=\mathrm{TY}: T Y=\operatorname{SGN}(\mathrm{TY}) *(\mathrm{ABS}(T Y)-N): N=(N-1) * 8-4 *(T 1>\varnothing$ )+1:GOTO $3 \varnothing \varnothing$ : rem 53
$53 \varnothing$ POKE 52498, FNL(X):POKE 52499,FNH(X): POKE 525øø ,Y:GOTO 3øø $\quad$ : rem 159
$54 \varnothing$ X=FNDP (52498) : Y=PEEK (525øø) : GOTO 555 : rem 7
$55 \varnothing \mathrm{X}=\varnothing$ : $\mathrm{Y}=\varnothing$

555 SYS 49391,X,Y:POKE 52495,FNL(X):POKE 52496,FNH (X):POKE 52497,Y:GOTO 3øø :rem 251
$56 \emptyset$ POKE SA, 20-CN AND3: POKE SX,FNL(X): POKE SP,FNH ( X): POKE SY,Y
:rem $2 ø 8$
565 SYS 5l831:GOTO 3øø
: rem 167
6øØ FOR K=1 TO LEN(F\$): POKE 584+K,ASC(MID\$(FS,K)): NEXT
:rem 24ø
$61 \varnothing$ POKE SA,LEN(FS):POKE SX,73:POKE SY,2:SYS 65469 : RETURN
:rem 158
620 POKE 251,FNL(S): POKE 252,FNH(S):POKE 253,FNL(D ):POKE 254,FNH(D) :rem 2
625 POKE SX,FNL(L):POKE SY,FNH(L):SYS 49777:RETURN :rem 63
$63 \varnothing$ SL=SL\% (SN) : AS=BA+3:IF SN THEN FOR K=ø TO SN-1: AS $=$ AS + SL\% ( $K$ ) +2 : NEXT :rem 241
$632 \mathrm{AB}=\varnothing: I F$ SN=NS THEN RETURN :rem 226
634 FOR K=SN+1 TO NS:AB=AB+SL\% (K) +2:NEXT:S=AS+SL:L $=A B: D=M T-L: G O T O 62 \varnothing$
:rem 121
640 SL\% (SN) =SL:IF AB=ø THEN RETURN :rem 244
645 L=AB:S=MT-L:D=AS+SL:GOTO $62 \varnothing$ :rem 179
650 POKE 52493,FNL(AS): POKE 52494,FNH(AS): POKE 524 95,FNL(XX): POKE 52496,FNH(XX) :rem 27
652 POKE 52497,YY:POKE SA, Ø:POKE 52489,13:POKE 524 90,10:POKE 52491,6 :rem 221
654 SYS 52166:RETURN :rem 188
660 N=146:GOSUB 190:CN=7:N=18:GOSUB 190:PRINT "
\{OFF\} Ø ": :N=ø:L=Ø:GOTO 72ø :rem 211
67Ø POKE 49321,Ø:FOR K=1 TO 1øø:NEXT:SYS 49322:RET URN :rem 9
720 K=PEEK(JS)AND15:IF K<>15 THEN N=N+JX(K):GOTO 7 26 :rem 228
722 IF PEEK(JS)AND16 GOTO 72ø
: rem 73
724 RETURN
:rem 125
726 IF N<L THEN N=H :rem 6
727 IF N>H THEN N=L :rem 9
728 POKE 214,2ø+(CN AND3):PRINT:PRINT TAB(14) N" \{LEFT\} "; :rem 141
729 FOR K=1 TO 50:NEXT:GOTO $720 \quad$ :rem $2 \varnothing 7$
$73 \varnothing$ NS=ø:SN=ø:AS=BA+3:SL=1:POKE AS, 255:FM=MT-AS:AB $=\varnothing \quad$ :rem 126
732 POKE 214,20:PRINT:PRINT TAB(15) "Ø ":RETURN
:rem 154
740 POKE 214,19:PRINT:FS=STRS(XX):PRINT TAB(14) RI GHT (FS,LEN(F\$)-1) ","; :rem 61
$742 \mathrm{~F}=\mathrm{STR}(\mathrm{YY}): \operatorname{PRINT} \operatorname{RIGHT}(\mathrm{F}$, $\operatorname{LEN}(\mathrm{F} \$)-1) \operatorname{LEFT}(\mathrm{B}$ L\$,22-POS( $\varnothing)$ );:RETURN :rem 131
750 POKE 214,19:PRINT:PRINT BL\$:POKE 214,19:PRINT: RETURN
:rem 175
760 POKE 214,19:PRINT::PRINT " PEN:" CHR\$(48+DP) " ORIGIN: ":GOSUB 74Ø
:rem 58
762 PRINT "POSITION:":GOTO llø ..... : rem 36
$77 \varnothing$ GOSUB 750:PRINT TAB(9) "FILENAME? ";:F\$=""
:rem 6
772 K=FRE(Ø):WAIT 198,15:GET K\$:IF K\$く" " OR K\$>"Z" OR LEN(F\$)=12 GOTO 776:rem 14
774 FS=F\$+K\$:PRINT K\$;:GOTO 772 ..... :rem 209
776 IF K\$=CHR\$(2ø) AND F\$>"" THEN PRINT "\{LEFT\} \{LEFT\}";:F\$=LEFT\$(FS,LEN(F\$)-1):GOTO 772:rem 233
778 IF K\$<>CHR\$ (13) GOTO 772 ..... :rem 173
779 RETURN ..... :rem 135
$78 \emptyset$ GOSUB 750:PRINT TAB(15) "CONFIRM?" :rem 161
785 WAIT 198,15:GET K\$:ON (K\$="Y" OR K\$="N")+2 GOT0 760.785 :rem 233
$790 \mathrm{PF}=1: \mathrm{F} \$=$ "OUT OF RANGE" ..... :rem 195
795 GOSUB 750:PRINT TAB(9) "ERROR: " F\$:WAIT 198,15:GET K\$:GOSUB 760:GOTO 32ø :rem 23ø
8øø POKE 648,192:PRINT "\{CLR\}":POKE 648,4:PRINT "\{CLR\}": POKE 5328ø, ø:POKE 53281, ø :rem 1ø3
$8 \emptyset 5$ PRINT " ह8ヨSHAPEDIT":PRINT " BY CRAIG CHAMBERLAIN": POKE 648,192:REM V1.ø :rem 83
81ø MX=99:DIM U(11), CN\$(19),JX(15),JY(15),MX(7),MY( 7 ) , SL $\%$ (MX) : $N=146 \quad$ :rem 169815 FOR K=ø TO 11:READ U(K):NEXT:FOR CN=ø TO 19:READ CNS (CN):GOSUB 190:NEXT :rem 232
$82 \emptyset$ FOR K=5 TO 14:READ JX (K),JY(K):NEXT:FOR K=ø TO7:READ MX (K), MY(K):NEXT :rem 239
825 FOR K=49152 TO 499ø1:READ N:POKE K,N:NEXT:DEF\{SPACE\}FNDP (N)=PEEK (N)+256*PEEK (N+1) : rem 235
$830 \operatorname{DEF} \operatorname{FNL}(N)=N-256 * \operatorname{INT}(N / 256): \operatorname{DEF} \operatorname{FNH}(N)=\operatorname{INT}(N / 2$$56): \mathrm{DP}=1: \mathrm{CL}=\varnothing: \mathrm{MD}=7: \mathrm{PF}=1 \quad$ :rem 196
835 BL\$="\{39 SPACES\}":GOSUB 760 :rem 42
84Ø POKE 214,21:PRINT:PRINT TAB(14) CL:PRINT TAB(14) MD: PRINT TAB(14) $\varnothing$; :rem 63
845 BA=FNDP (49) $+500: \mathrm{MT}=\mathrm{FNDP}(51)-5 \emptyset 0:$ GOSUB 730:POKE56334 , $\operatorname{PEEK}(56334)$ AND254 :rem 151
$85 \emptyset$ POKE 1,PEEK (1)AND251:S=53248:D=S:L=2ø48:GOSUB\{SPACE\}620:POKE 1, PEEK(1)OR4 :rem 62
855 POKE 56334, PEEK (56334)ORI:POKE 657,128:POKE 5ø168,254:POKE 51192,254 :rem 135
86Ø POKE 53287,1:POKE 53271, Ø:POKE 53277, Ø:POKE SX, 233: POKE SY,194:SYS 49888:rem $2 \emptyset 4$
865 GRAPHICS 7:SYS 49152:POKE 51578,160:GOTO $33 \varnothing$: rem 168
900 DATA 1,9,19,28,34,63,191,127,31,223,159,95:rem 226
910 DATA LOAD,SAVE,APPEND,QUIT,SHAPE,CLS,MODE,S/F/
A, EDIT, SETPEN ..... :rem 47
$92 \emptyset$ DATA FILLPEN, ERASE, MOVE, RMEM, RSET, HOME, DRAW, FILL, LFILL, RFILL:rem $2 \not 03$
$93 \varnothing$ DATA $1,1,1,-1,1, \varnothing, \varnothing, \varnothing,-1,1,-1,-1,-1, \varnothing, \varnothing, \varnothing, \varnothing, 1$, $0,-1$ :rem 212
940 DATA 319,159,159,159,159,79,159,79,79,39,79,39 , 39,19,39,19 :rem 71
950 DATA $169,127,141,13,220,173,20,3,141,167,192,1$ $73,21,3,141,168,192,169,59 \quad$ :rem 168
951 DATA 141,17,208,32,36,192,169,209,141,169,192, $169,1,141,26,208,96,169,251 \quad$ : rem $24 \varnothing$
952 DATA 141,18,208,169,166,141,20,3,169,192,141,2 1,3,169,133,141,254,255,169 :rem 217
953 DATA $2 \emptyset 0,141,255,255,96,72,138,72,152,72,173,2$ 5,2ø8,141,25,2ø8,162,11,2ø2 :rem 211
954 DATA $2 \varnothing 8,253,162,27,160,4,173,22,208,41,239,23$ $4,142,17,208,140,24,208,141 \quad: r e m 206$
955 DATA $22,2 ø 8,32,36,192,104,168,1 \varnothing 4,17 \varnothing, 104,64,1$ $73,25,2 ø 8,141,25,208,169,59 \quad$ :rem 222
956 DATA $141,17,2 ø 8,169,24,141,24,208,173,254,204$, 74,173,22,2ø8,41,239,144,2 :rem 168
957 DATA 9,16,141,22,208,173,169,192,240,23,141,18 , 208,169,67,141,20,3,169,192 :rem 22
958 DATA $141,21,3,169,62,141,254,255,169,192,141,2$ $55,255,76, \varnothing, \varnothing, \varnothing, 169, \varnothing, 141,26 \quad$ :rem 6
959 DATA 2ø8,173,167,192,141,20,3,173,168,192,141, 21,3,169,129,141,13,220,96 : rem 174
960 DATA $169,128,133,251,169,255,133,252,169, \varnothing, 160$ $, 64,136,145,251,208,251,174 \quad$ : rem 230
961 DATA $254,204,189,32,194,188,40,194,136,136,136$ $, 145,251,208,249,96,162,2,181 \quad$ : rem 88
962 DATA $251,157,110,194,202,16,248,48,18,32,253,1$ $74,32,138,173,32,247,183,132$
: rem 17
963 DATA $251,133,252,32,241,183,134,253,165,252,13$ 3,254,165,251,174,254,204,240 :rem 56
964 DATA 9,188,47,194,10,136,208,252,38,254,24,105 $, 24,141, \varnothing, 2 \varnothing 8,165,254,1 \varnothing 5, \varnothing \quad$ : rem 215
965 DATA $141,16,208,165,253,224,2,144,7,188,53,194$ $, 10,136,2 \varnothing 8,252,105,50,141 \quad$ : rem 163
966 DATA 1,208,169,1,141,21,2ø8,96,169,255,141,31, $194,165,198,240,3,169,255,96 \quad$ : rem 39
967 DATA $173,0,220,41,15,174,31,194,16,19,162,7,22$ $1,61,194,240,5,202,16,248,48 \quad$ rem 3
968 DATA $227,32,236,193,176,222,144,43,188,69,194$, $132,254,162,3,221,77,194,24 \varnothing \quad$ :rem 39
969 DATA 9,7ø, 254, 7ø, 254, 202, 16, 244, 48, 50, 165, 254, $41,3,240,44,17 \varnothing, 189,80,194$ : rem 182
$97 \varnothing$ DATA 24,109,31,194,41,7,170,32,236,193,176,28, $142,31,194,32,227,192,173,0 \quad$ : rem 217
971 DATA 220,41,16,240,22,165,162,41,7,208,250,173 $, \varnothing, 220,41,15,2 ø 1,15,208,234 \quad$ : rem 177
972 DATA $173, \varnothing, 220,41,16,2 \varnothing 8,142,174,255,204,173,2$ $5,205,16,8,41,15,141,25,2 \varnothing 5$

973 DATA $157,8,205,172,112,194,140,17,205,173,111$, 194,141,16,205,74,138,174,110 :rem 54
974 DATA $194,142,15,205,32,8,201,169,0,141,21,208$, $173,255,204,10,10,10,13,31 \quad$ : rem 127
975 DATA $194,1 \varnothing, 1 \varnothing, 10,9,3,96,16 \varnothing, \varnothing, 189,86,194,16,1$ , 136,24,109,15,205,133,251 :rem 158
976 DATA $152,109,16,205,133,252,189,84,194,24,109$, $17,205,133,253,172,254,204 \quad$ : rem 179
977 DATA $208,4,165,252,240,7,165,251,217,94,194,17$ 6,5,165,253,217,102,194,96 $\quad$ : rem 197
978 DATA $\varnothing, 128,192,192,192,24 \varnothing, 240,255,255,3,3,6,6$ $, 12,12,24,24,1,1,1,2,2,3,3 \quad$ :rem 122
979 DATA $1,1,2,2,3,3,14,6,7,5,13,9,11,10,120,52,39$ $, 19,210,193,141,76,7,11,13 \quad$ :rem 118
980 DATA $14,1,4,255,255,255,0,1,1,1,0,255,255,255$, $64,16 \varnothing, 16 \varnothing, 160,8 \emptyset, 8 \varnothing, 4 \varnothing, 4 \varnothing$
:rem 131
981 DATA $16 \varnothing, 16 \varnothing, 8 \varnothing, 8 \varnothing, 4 \varnothing, 4 \varnothing, 2 \varnothing, 2 \varnothing, \varnothing, \varnothing, \varnothing, 142,222,1$ $94,14 \varnothing, 223,194,165,253,56,229 \quad$ :rem 25
982 DATA $251,170,165,254,229,252,236,222,194,237,2$ $23,194,144,35,160, \varnothing, 174,223 \quad$ : rem 225
983 DATA $194,240,14,177,251,145,253,200,208,249,23$ $\varnothing, 252,23 \varnothing, 254,202,208,242,174 \quad$ :rem 57
984 DATA $222,194,240,8,177,251,145,253,200,202,208$ , 248,96,173,223,194,168,101 : rem 230
985 DATA $252,133,252,152,24,101,254,133,254,172,22$ $2,194,24 \varnothing, 9,136,177,251,145 \quad$ :rem 218
986 DATA 253,192, Ø, 208,247,174,223,194,240,16,198, 252,198,254,136,177,251,145 :rem 251
987 DATA $253,192, \varnothing, 2 \varnothing 8,247,2 \varnothing 2,208,24 \varnothing, 96, \varnothing, \varnothing, 12 \varnothing$, $142,40,3,140,41,3,88,96,169 \quad$ :rem 207
988 DATA $255,201,127,96 \quad$ :rem 127
Once you have Shapedit entered, saved, and run, you can begin experimenting with it. To help you familiarize yourself with the program, take time to read through the following explanations, trying out each feature.

EDIT. To begin, press the joystick button while on EDIT. A white cursor appears, indicating you're in the positioning mode. The purpose of this mode is to establish the origin. Move the cursor by pushing the joystick. If you go past a screen boundary, the cursor wraps around to the other side.

Once you've moved the cursor to the place where you want the shape to start, press the button. The cursor disappears, and the border changes to match the color of the current drawing pen. You're now in the editing mode. The cursor reappears as soon as you push the stick in any direction. By pushing the stick in different directions, you can move the
cursor to any of the eight positions around the origin. Press and release the button to actually plot a point. The point changes to the current drawing-pen color, and the cursor again vanishes.

This procedure of pushing the joystick and pressing the button is repeated for each point. The next time you push the stick, the cursor hovers around the most recently plotted point. Several points can be plotted to draw a shape.

An alternative method of drawing is to hold the trigger down while pushing the stick. This allows the drawing of a chain of points and is faster than point-by-point plotting. The program won't let you draw out of bounds while in the editing mode. Instead of wrapping around, the cursor just stops at the screen edge.

To change the drawing pen, press the f 7 key . The border and display pen number change to reflect the color of the new pen. Plotting is now done with pen 2. Press $f 7$ again to change to pen 3. The next time you press f 7 , pen 0 is selected. Pen 0 is used for erasing.

If you make a mistake while plotting and you want to delete the last point, press f1. The screen clears and the shape is redrawn without the last point. To fix a mistake earlier in the shape, it's necessary to delete all the subsequent points in order to back up to the mistake.

Each point that's plotted in the editing mode is one instruction in the shape table. The more points in a shape, the more instructions in the corresponding table. This implementation also supports some special instructions, accessible from the menu, for things like line drawing and area filling.

To leave the editing mode and return to the menu, press any key other than $\mathrm{f1}$ or $\mathrm{f7}$. The cursor disappears, and the word EDIT is highlighted. Now that you're in the menu, any item can be selected with the joystick.

SETPEN. Move to the item marked SETPEN and press the joystick button. The prompt jumps to the item marked S/F/A, which stands for SETPEN/FILLPEN/APPEND. These three items are not followed by numbers, so they use S/F/A when a number has to be entered.

Push the stick left or right to change the number after S/F/A. SETPEN supports the standard color numbers from 0 to 15 . When you've chosen the color you wånt, press the but-
ton. If you want to change the pen color to yellow (color 7), for instance, keep pushing the joystick until 7 appears, then press the button. The instruction is added to the shape table, and the prompt jumps back to EDIT.

Return to the editing mode by pressing the button when EDIT is highlighted. The program bypasses the positioning mode and goes right to the editing mode, using the same origin as before. Editing continues from the last point. Use f7 to change the current pen to the one which will have the new color, and plot a point. The point appears in the new color and the border color changes to match the current drawing pen.

As with the SETPEN statement, the SETPEN instruction must be used with a drawing pen other than pen 0 . The only color associated with pen 0 is the color of the background.

CLS. If you want to change the background color, use the CLS command. Return to the menu, move to CLS, and press the button. The number after CLS is the current background color number, and can be changed by pushing the stick left or right. Press the button when you've chosen the new color. The screen will clear, and the background is set to the new color. As an example, the background color can be changed to red by changing the number after CLS to 2 and pressing the button.

The program does not let you change the background color to 15 . That's the color used for text; using that color as the background would make the text disappear. CLS is a command used for editing purposes only, and is not an instruction that can be included in a shape table.

Now that the screen has been cleared, press the button while on EDIT. This time there is a positioning mode, and the cursor appears at the old origin. If you don't want to change the origin, just press the joystick button again. The shape is redrawn, and editing continues from the last point.

The CLS command has another application. Perhaps you're editing a shape, but can't complete it because it would go out of bounds. What you need to do is change the origin to allow more room for the drawing. Move to the CLS command and press the button twice to clear the screen without changing the background color. Now press the button on EDIT. You'll be in the positioning mode, and the cursor will appear at the old origin. Move the cursor to the new origin by
pushing the stick, and then press the button. The shape is redrawn, starting at the new position, and you're back in the editing mode.

Care must be taken when choosing a new origin, because having the origin too close to a screen edge can make the shape drawing go out of bounds. This can happen when you press the button to go from the positioning mode to the editing mode. If this happens, the message ERROR: OUT OF RANGE shows in the top line of the text window, and the program waits until you acknowledge the error by pressing any key. The next time you select EDIT, be sure to use a different origin.

MODE. Sometimes you may find that the screen is simply not big enough to draw a particular shape, and a higher resolution is needed. Use the MODE command to change the current graphics mode. As a demonstration, change the mode from 7 to 5, and go back to EDIT. Like clearing the screen, changing the mode causes a positioning mode. The cursor appears at the same coordinates as before, but it's smaller and displays in a different position on the screen because of the new resolution.

Once you choose the origin and press the button, the shape is drawn. However, since MODE does not clear the screen, the shape is drawn on top of the old one in the lower resolution. In other words, the MODE command lets you see the same shape in different resolutions. Sometimes you may want to clear the screen by using CLS to get rid of old shapes.

Be aware that if you draw a shape in a high-resolution mode, it may not fit on the screen in a low-resolution mode and may cause the OUT OF RANGE error. Also, all points drawn by the same drawing pen must have the same color within the same color square. This is not a concern in modes 6 and 7 , because the points are the same size as the color squares. However, it can be a problem in the other modes. Furthermore, the problem may not be detected until you switch to a higher resolution mode.

If you're creating a shape that will be drawn in a high resolution, it's more convenient to do the editing in a lowresolution mode. Just periodically change to a higher resolution to check for color-square conflicts.

When you switch between normal and multicolor modes,
old shapes on the screen will not be displayed correctly. You may want to use CLS to clear the screen.

ERASE. If you've been following the examples, the current shape may be getting rather long and cluttered. To erase the shape altogether, use the ERASE command. When you press the button on ERASE, the message CONFIRM? asks you to verify that you want to erase the entire shape. Since a shape cannot be retrieved once it's been erased, this prompt prevents accidental erasing of a drawing. Press the Y key to erase the shape, or the N key to cancel the command. If you press Y , the screen clears and the shape table becomes empty.

MOVE. Shapes often develop a snakelike appearance because of the restriction that each point must be adjacent to the previous one. To break the chain of points, use the MOVE instruction. This changes the pen position by adding offsets to the current $X$ and $Y$ coordinates. It has the effect of lifting the drawing pen and setting it down at another position on the screen.

Select MOVE. The cursor appears, and you're now in a type of positioning mode. Using the joystick, move the cursor to the new pen position. Press the joystick button to set this position; the next time EDIT is chosen, the cursor hovers around that location. This is called relative positioning. The position of the pen after it's moved is dependent on the old position. If the shape is drawn starting at a different origin, the pen still moves to the same place, relative to the rest of the shape.

DRAW. With the MOVE instruction, it's possible to use line drawing and area filling. After displacing the cursor by MOVE, choose the DRAW instruction. A line is drawn from the most recently plotted point to the current position, and the DRAW instruction is added to the shape table. This is certainly preferable to plotting individual points in a straight line because each point requires an instruction. Not only would that take more time to do with Shapedit, but the shape table itself would grow tremendously.

FILL, LFILL, and RFILL. Instead of selecting DRAW for line drawing, you can choose FILL, LFILL, or RFILL for area filling. As the line is drawn from the last point to the current position, filling is done to the left and/or right of the line.

FILLPEN. The fill instructions cause the background to be filled in. If you want to fill on top of an area already filled,
you must first use the FILLPEN instruction. This instruction specifies the number of the pen that's to be covered up by the fill. It's comparable to the optional third number in the destination point of a FILL statement.

Let's say that you want to fill the background using pen 1 , then fill inside that area using pen 2. The cover-up pen number is reset to zero (for the background) at the beginning of a shape, so the FILLPEN instruction does not have to be used for the first fill. Before the second fill instruction is added to the shape table, however, the instruction FILLPEN 1 should be selected. The following fill instruction covers up points drawn with pen 1, and stops only when any other pen is encountered.

Once the cover-up pen number is changed by FILLPEN, it stays in effect for the rest of the shape unless changed by another FILLPEN instruction.

HOME. Absolute positioning is done by using the HOME instruction. This instruction moves the pen to the upper-left corner of the screen, known as the home position. The previous position of the pen has no effect on the instruction; the pen will always be at 0,0 after the HOME instruction has been selected.

You can absolutely position the pen at any place on the screen by using the HOME and MOVE instructions together. After the pen has been moved to 0,0 by the HOME instruction, use MOVE to move the pen to the desired position. Since the movement will be done relative to a constant position, the pen will always move to the same position, regardless of the shape's origin.

## RMEM and RSET (REMEMBER and RESET). This

 method of moving the pen position is useful when you want to repeatedly move the pen back to the same position. The first time that the pen is at this particular position, choose the RMEM instruction. Although nothing will appear to happen, the computer will remember the current position as a reference point for later. Continue editing the shape. When you want to make the pen jump back to the reference point established by the earlier RMEM, choose the RSET instruction.Once a reference point has been established by RMEM, the pen can be reset to that position as often as necessary. There is no limit to the number of times that RSET can be used. However, the computer can remember only one ref-
erence point at a time. If RMEM is selected again, the new position will be remembered, and the old one forgotten.

The default reference point is the home position. If RSET is selected and RMEM has not been used earlier in the shape, the pen moves to 0,0 .

SHAPE. As you can see, the Shapedit program has many instructions and commands to help you create a detailed, colorful shape. But sometimes a single shape is not enough. An application may need to use several different shapes. This command lets you edit multiple shapes. It should not be confused with the BASIC statement SHAPE which is used to draw shapes.

Assuming that shape 0 has already been defined, here's how you would create a second shape. Press the button on the item marked SHAPE, push the stick to change the current shape number from 0 to 1 , and press the button again. Now press the button on EDIT. Because you're editing a new shape, you'll have to establish an origin, so you'll be placed in the positioning mode. Push the stick to move the cursor to the starting position and press the button one more time. You're now set to start defining shape 1.

Changing the shape number does not clear the screen, which is why shape 0 is still displayed, even though you're editing shape 1. If you want to get rid of the image of the old shape, use the CLS command to clear the screen. Sometimes, however, it can be convenient to see one shape while editing another.

You can stop editing shape 1 and return to shape 0 at any time by using the SHAPE command again. Since the shapes are independent, shape 0 still has its own definition. Editing one shape has no effect on the other. Even if you use the ERASE command to erase one shape, the other remains intact.

The SHAPE command lets you create more than two shapes, provided that you create them one at a time. When you first run the Shapedit program, the SHAPE command only lets you edit shape 0 . But as soon as the shape table for shape 0 contains at least one instruction, SHAPE allows access to shape 1. Likewise, the SHAPE command does not let you edit shape 2 until shape 1 has been defined.

Shapedit can handle a maximum of 100 shapes, though it's doubtful that you'll ever need that many.

APPEND. Multiple shapes are useful by themselves, but
one other possibility you'll find use for is to combine them to create new shapes. The APPEND command can be used to add one shape to another.

To demonstrate how APPEND works, assume you're editing shape 3 and the shape you want to append is shape 5. Move to the item marked APPEND and press the button. You're prompted for a shape number. Push the joystick left or right, stop when the number 5 appears, and press the button again. The program examines the definition of shape 5 and adds it to the end of shape 3 . Shape 3 now contains the instructions for shape 3 plus the instructions for shape 5 . The screen is updated to show shape 5 starting where shape 3 ends.

Shape 3 is the shape being edited, so it's the only shape changed. Shape 5 still retains its previous definition. The APPEND command simply added a copy of shape 5 to the end of shape 3 ; it did not merge the two shapes into one.

SAVE. In order to use shapes in a BASIC program, they have to be stored in a file. Use the SAVE command to write a copy of a shape file to tape or disk.

When you press the joystick button while on SAVE, you're prompted for a filename. Enter a filename, from 1 to 12 characters long, and press RETURN. The text window blanks, the shape file is saved to tape or disk (depending on what DN is set to in line 100), and the screen is restored.

The .SHP extension is automatically added to the filename by the Shapedit program, and should not be entered. To cancel the SAVE command, press the RETURN key without typing in a filename.

If you're using tape, the standard prompt message will not appear on the screen. You'll have to remember to press both the PLAY and RECORD buttons on the Datassette.

If you're using disk, be sure that the filename you selected is not already in use. The program will not report an error if the filename already exists, but the drive light will flash. The program, however, will report the DEVICE NOT PRESENT error if the disk drive is not connected or not turned on.

LOAD. At a later time you may want to revise some shapes in a file or add some new ones. Or you may wish to examine the shapes used in the demonstration programs. Use the LOAD command to retrieve a set of shapes. Like the

SAVE command, the LOAD command needs a filename. After you enter the filename, the program erases the shapes currently in memory and loads the new file. Again, if you're using tape, no prompt message appears. Be sure to press only the PLAY button on the Datassette.

If you're using disk and the requested file does not exist, you'll see the FILE NOT FOUND error.

QUIT. When you're finished editing and have saved the

```
Shapedit Reference Chart
General Editing
EDIT
Positioning mode Establish origin
Editing mode . Add new plotting instructions to shape table
f1.4*)}\mathrm{ Delete one instuction
17. \: Change current pen
Any other key Return to menu
Commands
CLS Clear screen
MODE Change mode
ERASE Erase current shape
SHAPE Edit another shape
APPEND Add copy of any shape to end of current shape
SAVE Store set of shapes as disk or tape file
LOAD Retrieve set of shapes from disk or tape file
QUIT : Exit program
```


## Special Instructions

(Cannot be selected until origin of shape has been established by choosing EETT)
SETPEN Change color of next pen used for drawing MOVE Displace pen position
DRAW Draw line from last plotted point to current position
EILL Fill from last plotted point to current position
LFILL Fill to left only
RFIL Fill to right only
FILLPEN Specify which pen will be covered up by fill
HOME Move pen to 0;0
RMEM Remember current position
RSET Reset pen to most recently remembered position
shapes, you can exit the program by using the QUIT command. Press the button on QUIT and type $Y$ to end the program. Type N if you accidentally chose the QUIT command.

The next time you run Shapedit, be sure that the BASIC extensions have been installed.

## Using Shapes in BASIC Programs

The SHAPE statement makes it easy to draw shapes in a BASIC program. But before a program can use this statement, some preparation is necessary.

First of all you need to have all the lines which make up Program 6-1, SHP.BAS, included in your program. Keep the line numbers as listed in Program 6-1.

Take a look at the previous shape demonstration programs. You'll find that they all start by assigning the variables DN, SA, SX, SY, and SP. These variables are used by the BASIC subroutine at line 56500 which loads the shape file from tape or disk. Every program which uses shape tables must assign these five variables:
DN = 8 (disk)
DN $=1$ (tape)
SA $=\mathbf{7 8 0}$
SX $=781$
SY $=782$
SP $=783$
After these variables have been assigned, the LOAD address for the shape file must be calculated and assigned to the variable LA. The shape file is loaded at the beginning of BASIC free memory. This address can be found by PEEKing location 49 and adding that value to 256 times the value found in location 50.

BASIC uses free memory whenever a variable is assigned for the first time and whenever an array is dimensioned. Therefore, the calculation of the LOAD address should be done only after most of the variables have been assigned and after all arrays have been dimensioned. As a precaution, an extra 1000 bytes should be added to the LOAD address in case there are a few more variables assigned later. Here's the statement you can use to assign LA.
LA $=$ PEEK(49) +256 *PEEK(50) +1000

Next, assign the name of the shape file to the variable $\mathrm{F} \$$. The string should consist only of the main part of the filename and should not include the .SHP extension.

## F\$ ="filename"

To complete the preparation, call the subroutine at line 56500.

## GOSUB 56500

The subroutine loads the shape file into memory and then determines how many shapes have been loaded. The number of the last shape is assigned to the variable NS. For example, if the file contained four shapes, numbered 0 to 3 , the variable NS would be assigned the value 3.

The subroutine then dimensions an array named AS, using the value of NS. A loop from 0 to NS is executed to store the address of each shape in the array. Once that's been done, the subroutine ends and returns to the main program.

The program is now ready to use the SHAPE statement. Remember that this statement needs the address of the shape that you want to display. The address can be found by using the corresponding shape number as the subscript of the array AS. The numbers used for the $X$ and $Y$ coordinates depend on where you want to display the shape and are comparable to the origin used in the Shapedit program.

## SHAPE AS(shape number), $X$ coordinate, $Y$ coordinate

The following two lines select graphics mode 5 and draw shape 0 at position 40,30.

## GRAPHICS 5

SHAPE AS(0),40,30
Any of the shapes in the file can be drawn by changing the subscript of AS. Just make sure that the subscript never exceeds the value of NS or the program will stop with a BAD SUBSCRIPT error.

Another restriction is that a program can load only one shape file. If you attempt to load a second set of shapes, you'll get a REDIM'D ARRAY error, because array AS has already been dimensioned. A shape file merging utility is provided later so that you can combine two or more shape files into one file.

One last restriction is that, if possible, you should avoid assigning string variables once the shapes have been loaded.

Every assignment to a string variable uses a small amount of free memory. After several strings have been assigned, BASIC may use the same free memory that's used to store the shape tables. If it's necessary to assign strings, periodically call the FRE function. This function reorganizes the free memory used by strings so that the shape tables will be left alone.

The first demonstration program showed that you can draw the same shape at different positions on the screen. You can also change the graphics mode to display the shape in different resolutions.

Another technique, demonstrated by the second program, is to use the SETPEN statement before drawing a shape. The same shape can be drawn in different color combinations. To use this technique, the definition of the shape cannot contain any SETPEN instructions. If the shape table does contain SETPEN instructions, they'll override any SETPEN statements executed before SHAPE.

The coordinates in a SHAPE statement do not have to be constant numbers; they can be variables. An interesting effect is created by using the SHAPE statement in a loop. Save Program 6-9, using the filename TOWERS, and the shape file, Program 6-10, using the filename TOWER.SHP.

Remember that BMG.OBJ must be in memory before entering Program 6-9. Also load SHP.BAS (Program 6-1) before typing in Program 6-9.

## Program 6-9. TOWERS

For error-free program entry, be sure to use "The Automatic Proofreader," Appendix D.


## Program 6-10. TOWER.SHP

To enter this program, you must use "The Machine Language Editor (MLX)," a program found in Appendix C.

## Starting Address: 49152 <br> Ending Address: 49259 <br> Filename: TOWER.SHP

```
49152 : Ø0Ø,100,000,083,075,075,077
49158:Ø75,Ø75,Ø75,Ø75,Ø75,075,2Ø0
49164 : 075,091,091,091,091,091,030
49170 :091,091,091,091,091,091,052
49176 :091,091,091,091,091,107,074
49182 : 107,107,107,107,107,107,160
49188 :107,107,123,123,123,123,230
49194 :123,123,123,123,123,123,012
49200 :123,123,123,123,123,131,026
49206 :139,139,139,139,139,139,120
49212 :139,075,155,155,155,155,126
49218 :155,155,155,155,155,155,228
49224 :155,155,155,155,155,099,178
49230 :163,171,171,171,171,171,072
49236 :171,171,115,179,187,187,070
49242 : 187,187,187,187,187,187,188
49248 : 187,187,187,187,187,187,194
49254 :255,ø13,ø13,ø13,ø13,013,166
```

The syntax for the SHAPE statement also allows that no coordinates need to be specified.

## SHAPE address of shape

The coordinates are optional. A SHAPE statement without coordinates starts drawing a shape at the position where the most recent shape ended. That's how the figures in the second demonstration were drawn one after another. The position was established by the first shape of each row. The remaining shapes in each row were drawn by using SHAPE with no coordinates.

Drawing shapes with the SHAPE statement is really very simple. Just follow the procedure you've seen. An easy way to get started is to take one of the demonstration programs and modify it to suit your own needs. Change the filename assigned to $\mathrm{F} \$$ and write new lines to display the shapes.

## Rotation

The plotting process used by shape tables is fairly straightforward. Each instruction moves the pen to one of eight adjacent positions and plots a point. These directions are numbered, starting at 0 for up, and moving clockwise around an imaginary circle. Thus, 1 is up and to the right, 2 is right only, and so on, up to 7 , which indicates up and to the left. The directional numbers are illustrated by Figure 6-1. Each instruction consists of a direction number from 0 to 7 , and a pen number from 0 to 3.

## Figure 6-1. Directional Numbers



What if every time an instruction was processed, a constant number was added to the direction number? How would this affect the display? Well, with a constant of 2, the direction 0 (up) would become 2, which is to the right. The direction 2 (right) would be converted into 4, which is down. And the direction 7 would become direction 9 , but since there is no direction 9 , it would wrap around to direction 1.

Consider that the eight directions could also be treated like angles, with a measure of 45 degrees between each. Thus, if a constant of 2 was added to each angle as a shape was drawn, it would appear to be rotated by 90 degrees. The shape would still start at the same position on the screen and be the same size; it would just look as if it had been spun around at a right angle.

For added flexibility in shape drawing, the syntax of the SHAPE statement supports an optional rotation number. This
number ranges from 0 to 7 and must always be the last number in the statement.

## SHAPE address, angle number <br> SHAPE address, $X$ coordinate, $Y$ coordinate, angle number

The following chart shows the effects of the different angle numbers.
Number Angle of Rotation

| 0 | 0 degrees (no rotation) |
| :--- | :---: |
| 1 | 45 degrees |
| 2 | 90 degrees |
| 3 | 135 degrees |
| 4 | 180 degrees |
| 5 | 225 degrees |
| 6 | 270 degrees |
| 7 | 315 degrees |

Rotation is done clockwise. When no angle number is given, the value 0 is assumed, and the shape is not rotated. Negative angle numbers are not allowed, but comparable positive numbers can always be used. For example, rotating a shape by 270 degrees is the same as rotating it by -90 degrees.

The following demonstration, Program 6-11, takes the Munchkin shape and draws it at every angle. Remember that BMG.OBJ must be in memory and Program 6-1, SHP.BAS, should first be loaded so that it becomes part of "TWIST." Program 6-3, MUNCHKIN.SHP, must also be on the same disk. (If you're using tape, make sure that MUNCHKIN.SHP is saved immediately after Program 6-11. Since you already have Program 6-3 on tape from the earlier example, just resave it, using MLX, to this new area on the tape. Refer to Appendix C for information on using MLX to copy tape files.)

## Program 6-11. TWIST

For error-free program entry, be sure to use "The Automatic Proofreader," Appendix D.

```
1Øø PRINT CHR$(147):PRINT " MUNCHKIN TWIST":PRINT
    {SPACE}" BY CRAIG CHAMBERLAIN":PRINT :rem 248
11Ø DN=8:SA=780:SX=781:SY=782:SP=783 :rem 133
12\emptyset F$="MUNCHKIN":LA=PEEK(49)+256*PEEK(50)+1\varnothing\varnothing\varnothing:GO
    SUB 5650\emptyset:REM LOAD SHAPES :rem 55
30\emptyset GRAPHICS l:POKE 53280,\emptyset :rem 22\emptyset
31\emptyset FOR A=\emptyset TO 7 :rem 3
32\emptyset SHAPE AS(\varnothing),8\emptyset+2\emptyset*COS(A* 1/4),1\varnothing\emptyset+3\emptyset*SIN(A*\uparrow/4)
    ,A :rem 83
```

| 330 | NEXT A | :rem 22 |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 340 | WAIT 198,15:GET K\$ | :rem 137 |
| $35 \emptyset$ | END | :rem 111 |

When you run this program, you'll notice that the shape deteriorates when it's rotated to one of the diagonal angles. That's why these four angles are not frequently used. But the four main angles ( $0,90,180$, and 270 degrees) can be useful, often in some surprising ways. The next program rotates a small shape to draw a continuous border around the screen.

Type in Program 6-12, "BRAID," after loading SHP.BAS so that the latter becomes part of Program 6-12. Then use MLX to enter Program 6-13. Be sure to use the filename BRAID.SHP for this.

## Program 6-12. BRAID

For error-free program entry, be sure to use "The Automatic Proofreader," Appendix D.

```
10Ø PRINT CHR$(147):PRINT " BRAID":PRINT " BY CRAI
    G CHAMBERLAIN":PRINT :rem 98
11Ø DN=8:SA=78\emptyset:SX=781:SY=782:SP=783 :rem 133
120 F$="BRAID": LA=PEEK (49)+256*PEEK (50)+1\varnothing\varnothing\emptyset:GOSUB
    56500:REM LOAD SHAPES :rem 6\emptyset
3ØØ GRAPHICS 2:S=AS(\varnothing) :rem 245
310 SHAPE S,20,15 :rem 12\emptyset
32\emptyset FOR K=1 TO 11:SHAPE S,\emptyset:NEXT :rem 13
330 FOR K=1 TO 7:SHAPE S,2:NEXT :rem 229
340 FOR K=1 TO 12:SHAPE S,4:NEXT :rem 20
350 FOR K=1 TO 7:SHAPE S,6:NEXT :rem 235
360 SHAPE S,7\emptyset,5\emptyset :rem 129
37\emptyset WAIT 198,15:GET K$ :rem 140
380 END :rem 114
```


## Program 6-13. BRAID.SHP

To enter this program, you must use "The Machine Language Editor (MLX)," a program found in Appendix C.
Starting Address: 49152
Ending Address: 49205
Filename: BRAID.SHP

```
49152 : Ø00,051,ø00,083,083,083,044
49158 : Ø83,083,083,ø83,083,067,232
49164 : 067,067,067,067,067,115,206
49170 :115,115,115,099,099,083,132
49176 : 083,099,099,115,115,115,138
49182 : 115,067,067,ø67,067,067,224
49188 : 067,ø83,ø83,ø83,083,083,øø6
```

49194 : $083,083,083,099,099,099,076$
492øø : 099, 099, 099, 099,099,255, Ø30
Rotation will not work correctly with shapes that contain a MOVE instruction. This instruction does not take into account the rotation angle when it moves the drawing pen. For instance, if a MOVE instruction moves the pen up a certain number of positions, it moves the pen up that many positions even if the shape is drawn upside down. Since MOVE is used with DRAW, FILL, LFILL, and RFILL, these instructions cannot be used either.

RMEM and RSET do work with rotation, so DRAW can be used if the pen is moved by RSET instead of MOVE. Unfortunately, this method does not work with any of the fill instructions. These always fill to the left and/or right, no matter how the shape is rotated.

## Drawing Pen Indirection

Each shape table instruction contains direction and drawing pen information for one point. You've just seen how experimenting with the direction number can produce some interesting and useful effects. What about the drawing pen number?

Indeed, something special can be done with the drawing pen number. You know that the SHAPE statement can quickly draw shapes. It can quickly undraw shapes too, by using the PEN statement, which has a format of:

## PEN pen number, pen number

This statement indirects drawing done by the first pen number so that the drawing is actually done by the second pen number. For instance, the statement PEN 1,2 means that all shape table instructions using pen 1 will instead be drawn by pen 2 . The term indirection is used because of this extra step in determining the pen number. The pen number in the instruction indirectly determines the pen number used for plotting.

Consider what would happen if the three drawing pens were set to 0 before a shape was drawn. Every point in the shape would be drawn with pen 0 , the erasing pen. What does this get you? It means that you can draw a shape at any position on the screen, and then by setting the pens to 0 and drawing the shape at the same position, you can erase that
shape without disturbing anything else on the screen. Run Program 6-14 for a demonstration.

Again, insure that the bitmapped graphics BASIC extensions are enabled, and SHP.BAS in memory before typing any of the following listing. You also need to have MUNCHKIN.SHP on the same disk, or if you're using tape, immediately after Program 6-14.

```
Program 6-14. ANTIMUNCH
For error-free program entry, be sure to use "The Automatic Proofreader," Appendix D.
1ø\emptyset PRINT CHR$(147):PRINT "ANTIMUNCH":PRINT " BY 
110 DN=8:SA=78\emptyset:SX=781:SY=782:SP=783 :rem 133
120 F$="MUNCHKIN":LA=PEEK(49)+256*PEEK ( 50)+10\emptyset\emptyset:GO
    SUB 5650\emptyset:REM LOAD SHAPES :rem 55
30\varnothing GRAPHICS 1:S=AS(\emptyset) :rem 244
31\emptyset FOR X=15 TO 135 STEP 30 :rem 81
32\emptyset FOR Y=1Ø TO 18\emptyset STEP 2\emptyset :rem 77
33\emptyset SHAPE S,X,Y :rem 99
340 NEXT:NEXT :rem 79
4\emptyset\emptyset PEN 1,\emptyset:PEN 2,\emptyset:PEN 3,\emptyset :rem 91
41\emptyset FOR X=15 TO 135 STEP 30 :rem 82
42\emptyset FOR Y=1\emptyset TO 18\emptyset STEP 2\emptyset :rem 78
430 SHAPE S,X,Y :rem l\emptyset\emptyset
44\emptyset NEXT:NEXT :rem 8\emptyset
450 END :rem 112
```

Applications of the PEN statement are not limited to just erasing shapes, however. Remember the demonstration of the rising tower graphs? The towers had to be separated to avoid problems with color squares. By using indirection, the program could have drawn the towers in overlapping pairs. To see this illustrated, check that Program 6-10, "TOWER.SHP," is on the same disk; save it right after Program 6-15 if you have a Datassette. As always, the bitmapped graphics BASIC extensions must be operating, and SHP.BAS should be in memory before you start typing.

```
Program 6-15. TOWER II
For error-free program entry, be sure to use "The Automatic Proofreader," Appendix D.
```

```
1Ø\emptyset PRINT CHR$(147):PRINT " TOWERS II":PRINT " BY
```

1Ø\emptyset PRINT CHR$(147):PRINT " TOWERS II":PRINT " BY
    {SPACE}CRAIG CHAMBERLAIN":PRINT :rem 118
    {SPACE}CRAIG CHAMBERLAIN":PRINT :rem 118
11\varnothing DN=8:SA=780:SX=781:SY=782:SP=783 :rem 133
11\varnothing DN=8:SA=780:SX=781:SY=782:SP=783 :rem 133
12| F$="TOWER":LA=PEEK(49)+256*PEEK(50)+1øø\emptyset:GOSUB
12| F\$="TOWER":LA=PEEK(49)+256*PEEK(50)+1øø\emptyset:GOSUB
56500:REM LOAD SHAPES
56500:REM LOAD SHAPES
:rem 107

```
    :rem 107
```

```
3øØ GRAPHICS 1:POKE 5328Ø,\emptyset:SETPEN 1,l:S=AS(0)
    :rem 82
310 FOR X=2ø TO lø\emptyset STEP 40 :rem 7\emptyset
32\emptyset READ C,H:SETPEN 2,C :rem 18
330 FOR Y=13\emptyset TO H STEP -1:SHAPE S,X,Y:NEXT Y,X
    :rem 137
340 PEN 2,3 :rem ll
35\emptyset FOR X=3\emptyset TO 11\emptyset STEP 4\emptyset :rem 76
360 READ C,H:SETPEN 3,C :rem 23
37\varnothing FOR Y=15\emptyset TO H STEP -1:SHAPE S,X,Y:NEXT Y,X
    :rem 143
38Ø WAIT 198,15:GET K$ :rem 141
390 END :rem l15
8ø\emptyset DATA 10,5\emptyset,5,40,14,3\emptyset :rem l81
81\varnothing DATA 6,90,4,8\emptyset,8,7\emptyset :rem 1\varnothing5
```

Here's another program which makes extensive use of the PEN statement. The program draws a weather map, complete with suns and clouds. Indirection is used to create the effect of flashing thunderbolts and falling rain. Start with SHP.BAS in memory.

## Program 6-16. WEATHER <br> For error-free program entry, be sure to use "The Automatic Proofreader," Appendix D.

```
1ø\varnothing PRINT CHR$(147):PRINT " MICHIGAN LOWER PENINSU
    LA" :rem l43
```

105 PRINT " WEATHER MAP DEMONSTRATION":PRINT " BY
\{SPACE\}MARK DAVIDS":PRINT :rem 143
$11 \varnothing$ DN=8:SA=780:SX=781:SY=782:SP=783 :rem 133
$12 \varnothing \mathrm{~F} \$=$ "WEATHER": LA=PEEK (49) +256 *PEEK (50) $+1 \varnothing \varnothing \varnothing: G O S$
UB 5650ø:REM LOAD SHAPES :rem 234
2øØ GRAPHICS 1:SETPEN 3,9:POKE 5328ø, $0:$ REM DRAW MI
CHIGAN LOWER PENINSULA :rem 64
205 DRAW 25,195,3 TO 35,169 TO 37,151 TO 39,127 TO
35,109 TO 33,87 TO 36,69 :rem 238
$21 \varnothing$ DRAWTO 44,39 TO 46,54 TO 48,54 TO 5ø,39 TO 61,
34 TO 59,28 TO 64,21 TO 67,17 :rem 206
215 DRAWTO 79,23 TO 91,33 TO 99,44 TO 1ø5,5Ø TO 1ø
7,57 TO 102,55 TO 1ø6,62 :rem 233
$22 \varnothing$ DRAWTO 1ø8,84 TO 1ø3,1ø1 TO 95,109 TO 88,121 T
0 86,131 тO 90,139 TO 95,138 :rem 181
225 DRAWTO 97,134 TO 10ø,127 TO 106,120 TO 112,116
TO 112,118 TO 119,139 :rem 144
230 DRAWTO 121,164 TO 118,166 TO 115,174 TO 107,19
9 TO 65,199 TO 65,195 : rem 137
235 DRAWTO 25,195:DRAW 104,55 TO 105,55:DRAW 106,5
6
: rem 149
240 FILL 44,42 TO 43,54:FILL 110,117 TO 11ø,139:FI LL 67,18 TO 66,199 :rem 77
$250 \operatorname{DIM} \mathrm{X}(6), \mathrm{Y}(6), \mathrm{T}(6):$ FOR $\mathrm{K}=1$ TO $6: \operatorname{READ} \mathrm{X}(\mathrm{K}), \mathrm{Y}(\mathrm{K})$ :NEXT :rem 250
3øØ FOR DAY=ø TO 6:MODE 3:SETPEN 1,7:SHAPE AS (5+DA Y), 36, 7:SHAPE AS (12):MODE 1 :rem 22
$31 \varnothing$ FOR P=1 TO 6:C=INT(5*RND( $\varnothing))+1: T(P)=C: O N C$ GOS UB $330,34 \varnothing, 35 \emptyset, 36 \emptyset, 37 \varnothing \quad$ rem 25
32Ø NEXT:SETPEN 1,12:GOTO 4øØ :rem 164
330 REM CLOUD :rem 241
335 SETPEN $1,1: \operatorname{SHAPE} A S(\varnothing), X(P), Y(P): R E T U R N: r e m ~ 29$
340 REM CLOUD AND SUN :rem 187
345 SETPEN 1,12:SETPEN 2,7:SHAPE AS( $\varnothing$ ), $X(P), Y(P): S$ HAPE AS(1),X(P),Y(P):RETURN :rem $25 \emptyset$
$35 \emptyset$ REM CLOUD AND RAIN :rem $24 \varnothing$
355 SETPEN 1,12:SHAPE AS ( $\varnothing$ ) , $\mathrm{X}(\mathrm{P}), \mathrm{Y}(\mathrm{P}): \operatorname{SHAPE} \operatorname{AS}(2)$, $X(P), Y(P): R E T U R N \quad: r e m 94$
360 REM CLOUD AND LIGHTNING :rem 107
365 SETPEN $1, \varnothing:$ SETPEN $2,7: \operatorname{SHAPE} \operatorname{AS}(\varnothing), X(P), Y(P): S H$ APE AS (3), X(P),Y(P):RETURN :rem 203
370 REM SUNNY :rem 27
375 SETPEN 1,7:SHAPE AS (4), X(P), Y(P):RETURN: rem 43
$4 \emptyset$ FOR $T=1$ TO $32: F O R Q=1$ TO 6 :rem 254
$41 \varnothing$ IF $T(Q)=3$ AND $T / 4=I N T(T / 4)$ THEN:PEN $1,3:$ SHAPE \{SPACE $\}$ AS (2) , $X(Q), Y(Q)$
:rem 47
420 IF $T(Q)=3$ AND $T / 4>$ INT (T/4) THEN:PEN 1,1:SHAPE \{SPACE\}AS (2), X(Q),Y(Q)
: rem 47
$430 \mathrm{IF} T(Q)=4$ AND $T / 5=\operatorname{INT}(T / 5)$ THEN:PEN 2,3:SHAPE \{SPACE\}AS(3),X(Q),Y(Q) :rem 54
$440 \mathrm{IF} T(Q)=4$ AND $T / 5>\operatorname{INT}(T / 5)$ THEN:PEN 2,2:SHAPE $\{\operatorname{SPACE}\} A S(3), X(Q), Y(Q) \quad$ :rem 55
$45 \varnothing$ NEXT:NEXT :rem 81
5øø MODE 3:PEN 1, $0:$ SHAPE AS(5+DAY), 36,7:SHAPE AS(1 2):MODE 1 :rem 224
510 PEN 1,3:PEN 2,3 :rem 183
52ø FOR $Q=1$ TO 6:FOR $T=\emptyset$ TO 4:SHAPE AS(T), X(Q), Y(Q ):NEXT:NEXT :rem 242
530 NEXT DAY:GOTO 30ø :rem 187
8øØ DATA 6ø,44,38,81,88,74,55,120,37,169,95,159
: rem 39

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Program 6-17. WEATHER.SHP


|  |  |
| :---: | :---: |
| 49158 | : Ø67, $556,031,067,058,031, \varnothing 60$ |
| 49164 | : $123,016,031, \varnothing 75,083, \varnothing 83,167$ |
| 49170 | : Ø83, Ø24, øø5, øø $2,115, \varnothing 2 \varnothing, \varnothing 11$ |
| 49176 | : 031, 067, Ø18, Ø31, Ø67,012,250 |
| 49182 | : Ø31, $667, \varnothing 83, \varnothing 83, \boxed{3}, \boxed{12,133}$ |
| 49188 | : $053, \varnothing 83, \boxed{4} 4,031,107, \varnothing 08,116$ |
| 9 | : Ø36,ø31, ø91, $18,031,107,1 \varnothing \varnothing$ |
| 4920ø | : 115,115,115,022,001, 083,243 |
| 49206 | : Ø10, ø31,255, ø26, øøø, Ø26,146 |
| 92 | : $017,147,147,179,187,147,116$ |
| 49218 | : 147,147,139,179,179,179,012 |
| 9224 | : 179,139,147,147,179,147,242 |
| 49230 | : 147,187,179,179,171,163, 180 |
| 49236 | :255,032, Øøø,.øб6, 037, 091,249 |
| 49242 | : Ø99, 083, Ø67, Ø06, Ø83, 099, 15 |
| 49248 |  |
| 49254 | : 067,029,107,099,115,067,074 |
| 49260 | :øø4,115,ø99,115,ø67,øø4, Øøø |
| 49266 | : 115,099,115,067,255,026,023 |
| 49272 | :øøø, $42, \boxed{21,179,179,155,184 ~}$ |
| 49278 | : $179,163,179,163,179,163,128$ |
| 9284 | 147,147,147,163,179,163,054 |



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## Program 6-18. CHSETA.SHP

To enter this program, you must use "The Machine Language Editor (MLX)," a program found in Appendix C.

## Starting Address: 49152 <br> Ending Address: 50447 <br> Filename: CHSETA.SHP






 $Q Q H Q Q Q Q Q Q Q Q Q Q Q Q Q Q Q Q Q Q Q Q Q N Q Q Q A Q$ N-M QQQQQQQQQQQQHQQQQQQQQQHQQQQQQ N~N M M N ○


 QQQQQQQQNQQQQQQQQQQQQQQQQHQQQQQ

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[^6]Because the graphics statements may not be positioned immediately after the keyword THEN, a colon must be placed between the THEN and the graphics statement. This was necessary in the weather map program. Line 410 is one example.

There's one limitation with the PEN statement: It does not affect the FILLPEN value. Shapes which contain a fill instruction may not work properly with indirection.

When you've finished using indirection and you want to return to normal shape drawing, the values set by the PEN statement should be restored. Drawing pen indirection is canceled whenever the GRAPHICS or MODE statement is executed.

The PEN statement works only with shape table drawing, and has no effect on the other graphics statements like DRAW and FILL.

## Mixing Text with Bitmapped Graphics

The normal method of displaying information on the screen is to use text. Letters, digits, and other symbols are combined to form words and numbers.

An alternative means of displaying information is to use graphics. Characteristics like color, size, shape, and position can all be used to express information, without the viewer having to know a specific language. Graphics is a method of communication that should not be overlooked.

You may have noticed that the weather map demonstration used text along with graphics. The program used letters to display the day of the week. By themselves, the methods of text and graphics each have their own advantages. When used together, they open up an almost endless number of new possibilities.

To make it easy to mix text with bitmapped graphics, we've provided a shape file containing definitions for the most commonly used characters (Program 6-18). The shapes include letters, digits, and punctuation symbols. Save this file using the filename CHSETA.SHP.

Also add the following lines to the SHP.BAS file:

[^7]These revised SHP.BAS lines (and the remainder of SHP.BAS, of course) must be included in all programs which use text on the bitmap screen.

You're now ready to use text in a program. Printing text on the bitmap screen is easy when you follow three simple steps.

1. Assign the string that you want to print on the screen to the variable S\$.
$3 \varnothing \varnothing$ GRAPHICS 2
$31 \varnothing$ S\$="HAPPY BIRTHDAY"
2. Choose the position of the first character in the string, and assign the coordinates to the variables X and Y .
$32 \varnothing \mathrm{X}=4: \mathrm{Y}=8$
3. Finally, call the subroutine at line 56600 .
```
330 GOSUB 5660ø
```

This subroutine sequentially draws the shapes that correspond to the characters in the string. If the string contains characters not in the shape file, or if the writing goes out of range, the program stops with an error.

Changing the resolution changes the size of the letters. The following program writes messages in four different resolutions. In order to type in and run this demonstration, you need to have the BASIC extensions installed, the CHSETA.SHP file on the same disk or saved on tape immediately after Program 6-19, and the revised SHP.BAS in memory.

## Program 6-19. CHDEMO1

For error-free program entry, be sure to use "The Automatic Proofreader," Appendix D.

```
1Ø\emptyset PRINT CHR$(147):PRINT " CHDEMOl":PRINT " BY CR
    AIG CHAMBERLAIN":PRINT :rem 225
110 DN=8:SA=780:SX=781:SY=782:SP=783 :rem 133
120 F$="CHSETA":LA=PEEK(49)+256*PEEK(50)+1ø\varnothing\varnothing:GOSU
    B 56500:REM LOAD SHAPES :rem 146
30Ø GRAPHICS Ø:POKE 53280,\varnothing :rem 219
31\emptyset S$="MODE ZERO":X=14:Y=10:GOSUB 566ø\emptyset :rem 17
32Ø MODE 2:S$="MODE TWO":X=6:Y=12:GOSUB 566ø0
```

    :rem 48
    | 330 | MODE 4:S\$="MODE FOUR": $\mathrm{X}=2$ : | 13 :GOSUB | $\begin{aligned} & 566 ø \varnothing \\ & \text { : rem } 114 \end{aligned}$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 340 | MODE 6:S\$="MODE": $\mathrm{X=} \mathrm{\varnothing}$ : GOSUB | 56600 | : rem 3 |
| 350 | S\$="SIX":Y=2ø:GOSUB 566øø |  | :rem 113 |
| 360 | WAIT 198,15:GET K\$ |  | :rem 139 |
| $37 \varnothing$ | END |  | :rem 113 |

The characters are drawn in pen 1. To write text in a different drawing pen, use the PEN statement.

This next program uses multicolor mode to draw the same message in two different pens. The second message is drawn one position down and one position to the right to create a shadowed lettering effect. This example requires the shape file (CHSETA.SHP) on disk or tape; you also need the revised SHP.BAS in memory before beginning to type it in.
Program 6-20. CHDEMO2
For error-free program entry, be sure to use "The Automatic Proofreader," Appendix D.


The character shapes can be used with other shapes in the same program. When using Shapedit, start by loading the CHSETA.SHP file into memory. Then add the new shapes to the file.

## Suggested Applications

Redefined (custom) characters. A popular way to draw shapes is to use redefined characters, but this method has some drawbacks. The major restriction is that character definitions must fit within an $8 \times 8$ grid. To create a shape larger than $8 \times 8$ points, several characters must be used. Another
limitation concerns positioning. A character must be placed at one of the $40 \times 25$ positions on the screen.

Bitmapped graphics shapes have many advantages over shapes drawn by redefined characters. There's no size restriction, so a shape drawn by the SHAPE statement can be any size. This gives you the freedom to do some interesting things. For instance, the letters in the character-set shape file were designed for proportional printing. Some letters, such as W, are wider than other letters, such as I. If you added lowercase letters to the file, true descenders could be supported. This means that the tails on letters ( $g$, for example) could extend below the other characters.

Shapes drawn with the SHAPE statement are also more convenient to use than those created with redefined characters. The Shapedit program simplifies the task of defining a shape. Storing shapes in memory is less complicated because you don't have to reserve memory for a character set. Finally, an entire shape can be drawn by just one statement.

Sprites. Another type of graphics supported by the VIC-II chip is sprite graphics. Sprites are used mainly for animation. A sprite image can be moved to any position on the screen by just a few POKE statements. This is one application where it's just not practical to use bitmapped graphics shapes. Moving a shape requires erasing it and redrawing it at the new position. Although the plotting done by the SHAPE statement is fast, it's not fast enough to do this effectively.

Animation, however, isn't restricted just to motion across the screen. It can also mean "changing in shape." The demonstration programs showed how the SHAPE statement can be used to make flowers grow or thunderbolts flash. And sprites do have several limitations. They have to be defined within a $24 \times 21$ grid, they can have only three colors (maximum), and there can be only eight of them on the screen at one time. In applications where motion is not required, bitmapped graphics shapes may be worth consideration.

Another possibility is to combine sprites with bitmapped graphics. Remember that sprites are completely independent of anything else displayed on the screen. Using sprites and bitmapped graphics on the same screen might allow you to do things which couldn't be done using sprites or bitmapped graphics alone.

General applications. Shapes have distinguishing characteristics, like size, color, and position. They can be full (filled in) or empty (outlined). Their edges can be smooth or pointed. If you have several shapes, they can be used in counting exercises. Shapes have hundreds of applications in educational software. Concepts such as larger/smaller, above/ below, inside/outside, open/closed, rightside up/upside down, and alike/different can easily be presented.

Games offer many opportunities to use shapes as well. Board games often use several objects which could be drawn with bitmapped graphics shapes. Another type of game is the role-playing adventure game. Graphics statements like DRAW and FILL could be used to draw detailed background scenes. The SHAPE statement could then be used to draw the objects being carried by each player.

Cave dwellers drew pictures on cave walls long before words were ever written. Pictures and shapes have a power of communication that should not be ignored. A lot of creative thought and time was invested in the design and implementation of the shape table utility. Now it's your turn.

## The Technical Side

A bitmap requires 8 K of RAM, which is a significant amount of memory. In order to retain as much free memory for BASIC as possible, the bitmapped graphics routines were designed to use the 8 K of RAM underneath the Kernal ROM. This area of memory behaves a little differently from normal RAM because ROM and RAM locations exist at the same addresses. If a location in this area is POKEd, the value will be stored in RAM, but if the location is PEEKed, the value will come from ROM. The nature of this memory means that it's not suitable for use by BASIC. It's ideal, however, for things like bitmaps.

Unfortunately, a few complications may arise when this area of memory is used. Since the PEEK function cannot be used to look at RAM locations, there's no way for a program to examine the memory used by the bitmap. Using sprites is a little different, because placing the bitmap under the Kernal requires switching the VIC-II chip from the normal bank 0 to bank 3. Also, the RAM under the Kernal may be needed by other utilities, such as disk drive handlers.

As an answer to the first problem, the LOOK function is available.

## LOOK (X coordinate, Y coordinate)

This function returns the pen value found at the specified position. For example, if position 5,6 has been plotted with pen 1, the statement PRINT $\operatorname{LOOK}(5,6)$ prints the number 1. If the position has not been plotted and displays only the background, the function will return the number 0 .

Here's a program that randomly draws a maze. The program uses the LOOK function to decide where to draw the paths. Make sure that the bitmapped graphics extensions are enabled before typing in the following program.

## Program 6-21. MAZE

For error-free program entry, be sure to use "The Automatic Proofreader," Appendix D.

```
1Ø\emptyset REM MAZE DRAWING DEMONSTRATION :rem l49
11\emptyset REM BY CRAIG CHAMBERLAIN :rem l41
2øø GRAPHICS 6:POKE 5328Ø,0:SETPEN 1,15:DRAW 2,22
    {SPACE}TO 2,2:LFILLTO 36,22 TO 36,2 :rem l88
21\varnothing DIM DX(3),DY(3):FOR K=\emptyset TO 3:READ DX(K),DY(K):
    NEXT :rem 245
22| T=2:H=17:V=1\varnothing:X=3:DEF FNRY(Y)=3+INT(RND(l)*V)*
    T:Y=FNRY(\varnothing):DRAW X,Y,\varnothing :rem l2
30\emptyset FOR K=1 TO H*V-1 :rem 252
31\varnothing IF LOOK(X+T,Y) GOTO 370 :rem 216
32\emptyset IF LOOK(X,Y+T) GOTO 37ø :rem 217
33\emptyset IF LOOK(X-T,Y) GOTO 370 :rem 22\emptyset
340 IF LOOK(X,Y-T) GOTO 37Ø :rem 221
35\emptyset X=3+INT(RND(1)*H)*T:Y=FNRY(|):IF LOOK(X,Y) GOT
    O 350 :rem 170
360 GOTO 310 :rem 102
37\varnothing D=RND(1)*4:IF LOOK(X+DX(D),Y+DY(D))=\varnothing GOTO 37ø
:rem 4
38Ø DRAW X,Y:X=X+DX(D):Y=Y+DY(D):DRAWTO X,Y:NEXT:D
    RAW 2,FNRY(\varnothing):DRAW 36,FNRY(\varnothing) :rem 83
390 WAIT 198,15:GET K$:END :rem 159
8ø\varnothing DATA 2,\varnothing,\varnothing,2,-2,\varnothing,\varnothing,-2 :rem 2\varnothing\varnothing
```

It's important to note that the LOOK function returns only the pen number of the designated point and ignores the associated color. In Program 6-22, even though the barriers are drawn in different colors, they're all detected by the LOOK function as points drawn with pen 1. As with Program 6-21, all you need to do before typing it in and running it is to insure that the BASIC extensions are operating.

```
Program 6-22. PINBALL
For error-free program entry, be sure to use "The Automatic Proofreader," Appendix D.
1\varnothing GRAPHICS 6:POKE 5328Ø,\varnothing:SETPEN 1,15:DRAW Ø,\varnothing TO
    39,\emptyset TO 39,24 тO Ø,24 TO \emptyset,\emptyset :rem 15
20 FOR K=1 TO 30:X=RND(1)* 38+1:Y=RND(1)*23+1:SETPE
    N 1,9*RND(1)+2:DRAW X,Y:NEXT :rem 153
30 MODE 4:DX=1:DY=1:SETPEN 1,1 :rem 22\emptyset
4| X=INT(RND(1)*8\emptyset):Y=INT(RND(1)*50):IF LOOK(X,Y)
    {SPACE}GOTO 4\emptyset :rem 247
5\emptyset DRAW X,Y,\varnothing:X=X+DX:Y=Y+DY:DRAW X,Y,l :rem 77
60 IF LOOK(X,Y+DY) THEN DY=-DY :rem 243
7\emptyset IF LOOK(X+DX,Y) THEN DX=-DX :rem 241
80 IF LOOK(X+DX,Y+DY) THEN DX=-DX:DY=-DY :rem l52
90 GOTO 50
    :rem 7
```

In modes $0,2,4$, and 6 , the LOOK function returns only the values 0 or 1 , because these modes only support an erasing pen and one drawing pen. The multicolor modes support three drawing pens, so in modes $1,3,5$, and 7 , the LOOK function can return values from 0 to 3 . In any mode, the ILLEGAL QUANTITY error will occur if the position is out of range.

Be aware that the LOOK function changes the current pen position, which can affect line drawing and area filling. For instance, let's say that you plot a point at 3,4 and then look at position 8,7 . If the statement DRAWTO 5,6 were now executed, the line would be drawn from the position 8,7 , rather than from the last plotted point at 3,4.

Switching the VIC-II chip to bank 3 affects the sprite pointers and the available definition blocks. The address of the sprite pointers can be calculated with the following formula:
Sprite pointer address $=$ Screen memory address +1016
The screen normally starts at address 1024 . Adding 1024 and 1016 gives 2040, the first of the eight sprite pointers. When the GRAPHICS statement turns on the bitmapped graphics mode, the screen is moved to start at 50176. The sum of 50176 plus 1016 is 51192 , so locations 51192 through 51199 act as the sprite pointers when bitmapped graphics is used. (See Chapters 12-16 for more information on sprites.)

Bank 3 does not contain much extra memory for sprite definition blocks. Blocks $0-15$ are available in normal RAM, and blocks 253 and 254 are available in RAM under the Kernal (you can POKE blocks 253 and 254 but you cannot

PEEK them). These are the only blocks available from BASIC when using the bitmapped graphics routines.

To calculate the beginning address of a definition block in bank 3, use this formula:

## Block address $=49152+64$ * Block number

For most applications, 18 definition blocks should be sufficient. If you need more, you'll have to relocate the bitmap. It's also necessary to move the bitmap when the RAM under the Kernal is needed by another utility. Relocating the bitmap is as easy as four POKE statements. The difficulty lies in choosing where you want to relocate the bitmap.

The memory on the Commodore 64 is divided into four banks of 16 K each. A bitmap requires 8 K , or half a bank, so it would seem that there is a total of eight different places in memory where a bitmap can be placed. Actually, three of these places are not available, either because they conflict with character-set images, or they are needed by the system.

Besides the 8 K for the bitmap, 1 K for screen memory must also be allotted. Screen memory is used to provide color information in the bitmap mode. Since the VIC-II chip can access only one bank at a time, the screen memory must be placed somewhere in the other half of the bank that contains the bitmap. Depending on which bank is being used, there may be from one to eight different places to put the screen memory.

| Bank | Address | Supports <br> Bitmap? | Possible Locations for <br> Screen Memory |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :--- |
| 0 | 0 | No |  |
| 0 | 8192 | Yes | $1024,2048,3072$ |
| 1 | 16384 | Yes | $24576,25600,26624,27648$, <br> $28672,29696,30720,31744$ <br> 1 |
|  | 24576 | Yes | $16384,17408,18432,19456$, <br> 2 |
|  | 32768 |  | No |
| 2 | 40960 | Yes | $32768,21504,22528,23552$ |
| 3 | 49152 | No |  |
| 3 | 57344 | Yes | 49152,50176 |

In bank 3, the bitmap may be placed only in the second half of the bank, starting at location 57344 . The screen can be placed either at address 49152 or at address 50176. The default arrangement of the bitmapped graphics routines is to put
the bitmap at 57344 and screen memory at 50176 . As discussed earlier, this arrangement allows only 18 sprite definition blocks, but it does let you use the full 38 K of BASIC free memory.

Bank 2 supports a bitmap only in the second half of the bank, at location 40960, which is under the BASIC ROM. There are four possible places to put the screen memory. All four are in the area of memory used by BASIC, so using bank 2 means that the amount of free memory will be reduced. The maximum amount of free memory can be obtained by placing screen memory at address 35840 , which allows 33 K of BASIC free memory. Unfortunately, this arrangement allows only three sprite definition blocks, blocks 253-255. By moving screen memory lower, to 32768 , you can also use blocks 16-63.

There are no restrictions when using bank 1 for bitmapped graphics. Either half of the bank can support a bitmap, and a full eight positions are available for placing screen memory. The only problem with using this bank is that it uses a lot of BASIC free memory. A maximum of 21 K free can be obtained by starting the bitmap at location 24576 and screen memory at address 23552 . Sprite definition blocks $0-111$ can be used in this configuration, but it further reduces the amount of free memory available for BASIC.

Since it limits BASIC free memory to only 6 K , bank 0 should be used only as a last resort. Screen memory should be placed at location 1024, which is where it normally resides in the text mode. The other two places are right where the BASIC program is stored. Another problem with using bank 0 is that there's hardly any room for sprite definition blocks. To make bank 0 a little more useful, move the start of BASIC memory up to 16384 so that it comes after the bitmap. This allows 24 K free. Enter the following line in the immediate mode to move the bottom of BASIC memory up to 16384.

## POKE 44,64:POKE 64*256,0:NEW

This line should be entered immediately after you turn the computer on, but before you load any programs.

Once you've chosen the new locations for the bitmap and the screen memory (keeping in mind the fact that they must be in the same bank), you're all set to begin the relocation. Four POKE statements are all that's required. The first value to POKE specifies which bank is being used.

POKE 52474,3-n (where $n$ is the bank number, 0-3)
The next POKE selects a mask value for ROM/RAM flipping.
POKE 52475,253 (for bank 3)
or
POKE 52475,254 (for bank 2)
or
POKE 52475,255 (for bank 1 or 0)
The location of the bitmap is determined by the third POKE value.
POKE 52476,address of bitmap divided by 256
The last POKE specifies the location of screen memory.
POKE 52477,address of screen memory divided by 256
Let's take a look at an example. Assume that you want to relocate the bitmap to bank 2 . The bitmap will start at location 40960 and screen memory at address 35840 . Here are the four POKE statements that would be executed.
POKE 52474,3-2 or POKE 52474,1
POKE 52475,254
POKE 52476,40960/256
POKE 52477,35840/256
POKE 52475,254
POKE 52476,160
POKE 52477,140
Be sure that these POKE statements are executed after the BMG.OBJ file has been loaded by the BMGLOADER program.

The preceding POKE statements relocate the bitmap and screen memory, but they do not inform BASIC of the change. To protect your program and to make sure that it runs correctly, it's a good idea to lower the top of free memory. Determine the lowest address used by the graphics (whether it's the screen memory location or the bitmap), and use that value in the following line.
POKE 56,address divided by 256:CLR
If you're relocating to bank 2 and the lowest address used for graphics is that of the screen memory at location 35840, the line would look like this:

## POKE 56,140:CLR

It's not necessary to lower the top of memory when you're using bank 0 and you've moved the bottom of BASIC memory up.

NMI interrupts don't work reliably when using a bitmap in bank 3. Since the modem uses NMI interrupts, the bitmap must be relocated to a bank other than 3 if a program is to receive characters from the modem while it's drawing bitmapped graphics.

One last item having to do with relocation is a revised formula for calculating the address of a sprite definition block. The formula has been updated to work for all banks.

## Block address = Bank address + 64 * Block number

Bank Address
$0 \quad 0$
$1 \quad 16384$
232768
349152
The bitmapped graphics routines use memory from location 51200 to 53247 . They also share several zero page locations with BASIC, but do not use locations 2 or 251-254.

These bitmapped graphics extensions to BASIC may not work if other extensions have been installed. The bitmapped graphics routines are accessible by BASIC statements for convenience, but if you want, you can call the routines directly by using POKE and SYS statements. Instead of running the BMGLOADER program, enter the following lines to load the graphics routines.
LOAD "BMG.OBJ",8,1 (disk)
NEW
or

## LOAD "BMG.OBJ",1,1 (tape) NEW

Include this next line at the beginning of every program which uses bitmapped graphics.

## $\mathbf{S A}=780: S X=781: S Y=782: S P=783:$ POKE SP,0

You're now set to use bitmapped graphics. The following is a list of all the graphics statements and their equivalents using POKE and SYS.

| POKE and SYS Equivalents |  |
| :--- | :--- |
| GRAPHICS N | SYS 51369 |



All the POKE statements listed for each graphics statement are required, and none should be omitted. For example, even though the pen number is optional in the DRAW statement, it must be specified by POKE SA, pen number when using the equivalent POKE and SYS statements.

The only exceptions to this rule have to do with the SHAPE statement. The $X$ and $Y$ coordinates do not have to be set. If you don't POKE the locations for the coordinates, the shape will be drawn starting at the end of the previous shape. Also, if the shape address has been set previously and you want to draw the same shape again, the address does not have to be set a second time.

Some interesting applications are possible if you eliminate the SYS 51369 in the code equivalent to the GRAPHICS statement. Not performing this SYS call means that the screen will not be cleared. This allows you to switch from bitmap mode to text and back to bitmap without losing the bitmap picture. By using relocation, together with the code equivalent to graphics statements, you can draw on two different bitmaps and flip between them. Program 6-23 shows how. (Make sure that the bitmapped graphics BASIC extensions are enabled before typing in this next program.)

## Program 6-23. MODERNART

For error-free program entry, be sure to use "The Automatic Proofreader," Appendix D.

```
1ØØ GOSUB 61Ø:GRAPHICS 4:POKE 53280,0:SA=780:REM F
    IRST SCREEN :rem 62
11\varnothing SETPEN 1,5:LFILL Ø,4\emptyset TO 40,\emptyset :rem 195
12\emptyset SETPEN 1,4:DRAW \varnothing,45 TO 60,\emptyset:LFILL Ø,49 TO 20,
    4 9 ~ T O ~ 7 9 , 1 0 ~ T O ~ 7 9 , \varnothing ~ : r e m ~ 1 6 8 ~
130 SETPEN 1,8:RFILL 79,2Ø TO 50,49 :rem 74
2\emptyset\emptyset GOSUB 62\emptyset:REM POINT TO SECOND SCREEN BUT DO NO
    T DISPLAY :rem 246
210 SYS 51369:REM CLEAR SECOND SCREEN :rem 155
22\emptyset SETPEN 1,6:LFILL Ø,\varnothing TO 1\emptyset,\emptyset TO 2\emptyset,49:SETPEN 1
    ,7:DRAW 40,0 TO 30,49 :rem 145
23\emptyset SETPEN 1,7:DRAW 4\emptyset,\emptyset TO 30,49:DRAWTO 40,49:LFI
    LLTO 50,\emptyset :rem 216
24\emptyset SETPEN 1,2:RFILL 79,\emptyset TO 60,\emptyset TO 70,49:rem 123
250 GOSUB 600:REM WAIT FOR KEYPRESS :rem 93
260 POKE SA,4:SYS 512Ø0:REM NOW DISPLAY SECOND SCR
    EEN :rem 144
270 GOSUB 600 :rem 175
30\emptyset GOSUB 610:REM FIRST SCREEN :rem 16
310 POKE SA,4:SYS 5120\emptyset:GOSUB 60\emptyset :rem 56
```

| 320 | GOSUB 620:REM | SECOND SCREEN |  | : rem 71 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 330 | POKE SA, $4: S Y S$ | 5120ø:GOSUB 60Ø |  | : rem 58 |
| 340 | K=FRE ( $\varnothing$ ) : GOTO | 300 |  | : rem 131 |
| 600 | WAIT 198,15:GE | ET K\$:RETURN |  | : rem 162 |
| 610 | POKE 52474, $0:$ P | POKE 52475, 253 : POKE | 52476 | 224 : POK |
|  | E 52477,196: RE | TTURN |  | : rem 235 |
| 620 | POKE 52474, 2: | POKE 52475,255:POKE | 52476 | $96:$ POKE |
|  | 52477, 92: RETU | JRN |  | : rem 146 |

Stop this program only when it's displaying the screen with the green, purple, and orange colors, or the bitmap will remain in lower memory.

When using two or more bitmap screens, only one of the screens can be in multicolor mode. Modes 1,3,5, and 7 use color memory starting at location 55296. This memory cannot be shared by different screens. Since this is also used by the text mode, you should not switch from text mode to a multicolor mode without first clearing the screen. Do this only with mode $0,2,4$, or 6 .

When using the POKE statement equivalent to SETPEN, the value for A must be in the range $1-3$. The value for A in the POKE statement equivalent to PEN must be in the range 0-3.

When using the bitmapped graphics routines without adding statements to BASIC, the screen will not automatically revert back to the text mode when the READY. prompt is printed or an error occurs.

## EXTRACT and MERGE

These last two programs are convenient utilities you can use to pull apart and put together various shape files. Both are easy to use and fairly self-explanatory. If you're using tape, make sure that the $\mathrm{DN}=8$ is changed to $\mathrm{DN}=1$ in line 110 of both programs.
"EXTRACT," Program 6-24, is used to extract a group of shapes from a shape file. When you run the program, it asks you for the name of the file from which the shapes will be extracted. Do not include the .SHP extension as part of the filename. The program loads the file and tells you how many shapes the file contains. You can then specify which shapes are to be extracted by entering the numbers for the first and last shapes. Finally, the program requests a filename for saving the extracted shapes. All the shapes in the specified range will
be saved. The original shape file, however, retains all the shapes. They are only extracted.

## Program 6-24. EXTRACT

For error-free program entry, be sure to use "The Automatic Proofreader," Appendix D.
1øØ PRINT CHR\$(147):PRINT " SHAPE FILE EXTRACTION
\{SPACE\}UTILITY" ..... :rem 221
105 PRINT " BY CRAIG CHAMBERLAIN":PRINT ..... :rem 69
110 DN=8:SA=780:SX=781:SY=782:SP=783 ..... :rem 133
120 DEF FNH (N)=INT (N/256):DEF FNL (N)=N-256*FNH (N):LA= $\operatorname{PEEK}(49)+256 * \operatorname{PEEK}(5 \varnothing)+1 \varnothing \varnothing \varnothing \quad: r e m 146$
3øØ F\$="":INPUT " LOAD FILENAME";F\$:IF F\$="" OR LE
$N(F \$)>12$ GOTO 3øø :rem 238$31 \varnothing$ PRINT:GOSUB 565øø:PRINT " LOADED SHAPES ø TO"\{SPACE\}NS:PRINT:rem 142
4øØ FS=-1:INPUT " NUMBER OF FIRST SHAPE";FS:IF FSく
Ø OR FS>NS GOTO 4øø ..... :rem 181
41Ø LS=-1:INPUT " NUMBER OF LAST\{2 SPACES\} ..... SHAPE";
S:IF LS<FS OR LS>NS GOTO $41 \varnothing$ : rem 228
$42 \varnothing$ PRINT ..... : rem 35
5øø FS="":INPUT " SAVE FILENAME";F\$:IF F\$="" OR LEN(F\$)>12 GOTO 5øØ:rem 1
51ø POKE SA,1:POKE SX,DN:POKE SY, $0: S Y S$ 65466:F\$=F\$+".SHP":GOSUB 59øøø:rem 2øø
52ø A=AS(FS)-3:POKE A,LS-FS:POKE SA,251:POKE 251,FNL(A): POKE 252,FNH(A) :rem 42$53 \varnothing \mathrm{~B}=\mathrm{AS}(\mathrm{LS}): \mathrm{B}=\mathrm{B}+\operatorname{PEEK}(\mathrm{B}-2)+256 * \operatorname{PEEK}(\mathrm{~B}-1)$ : POKE SX,FNL(B): POKE SY,FNH(B) :rem 6754ø PRINT:SYS 65496:IF PEEK(SP)AND1 GOTO 591øø
:rem 139
$55 \emptyset$ PRINT " SAVED" B-A "BYTES":END : rem 106
565øø POKE SA,1:POKE SX,DN:POKE SY, $0: S Y S$ 65466:F\$=FS+".SHP":GOSUB 59øøø :rem 5ø
5651ø POKE SA, Ø:POKE SX,LA-256*INT(LA/256): ..... POKE SY
, INT (LA/256) : rem 76
56520 SYS 65493:IF PEEK(SP)AND1 GOTO 591øø :rem 42
56530 NS=PEEK (LA) :DIM AS(NS):LA=LA+1 :rem $1 \varnothing 7$
56540 FOR K=Ø TO NS:AS (K)=LA+2:LA=LA+2+PEEK (LA) +256*PEEK (LA+1):NEXT:RETURN : rem $12 \emptyset$
59øøø FOR K=1 TO LEN(F\$):POKE 584+K,ASC(MID\$(F\$,K)):NEXT:rem 88
5901ø POKE SA,LEN(F\$):POKE SX,73:POKE SY,2:SYS 65469: RETURN: rem 6
591øø P=PEEK(SA):PRINT " ERROR: ";:IF P=4 THEN PRINT "FILE NOT FOUND":END :rem 2øØ
5911ø IF P=5 THEN PRINT "DEVICE NOT PRESENT":END:rem 36: rem 70
"MERGE," Program 6-25, is used to combine shape files. You can load a shape file and append other shape files to create one larger file. The program asks for a filename, loads the file, and reports the number of shapes loaded. It then requests the name of the file to be appended. The shapes from that file will be placed after the shapes in the first file. This can be done several times to merge several files together. When you don't want to append any more files, press the RETURN key in response to the filename prompt. The program asks for a filename to save the file just created.

By loading a file and appending nothing, the MERGE program can be used to copy a shape file from one tape to another tape, or one disk to another disk.

## Program 6-25. MERGE

For error-free program entry, be sure to use "The Automatic Proofreader," Appendix D.
1 Øø PRINT CHR\$(147):PRINT " SHAPE FILE MERGE UTILI
TY" ..... : rem 76
$1 \varnothing 5$ PRINT " BY CRAIG CHAMBERLAIN":PRINT :rem 69
$11 \varnothing \mathrm{DN}=8: \mathrm{SA}=780: \mathrm{SX}=781: \mathrm{SY}=782: \mathrm{SP}=783: \mathrm{BA}=\operatorname{PEEK}(49)+2$56*PEEK (5 $)+1 \varnothing \varnothing \varnothing \quad$ :rem 27
3øØ F\$="":INPUT " LOAD FILENAME";F\$:IF LEN(FS)>12
\{SPACE\}GOTO 3øø :rem 98
310 IF $F \$="$ " THEN END :rem 2ø
$32 \varnothing$ LA=BA:GOSUB 63ø:NA=PEEK(BA):PRINT " LOADED SHA
PES Ø TO" NA :rem 14
$4 \emptyset \varnothing \mathrm{BB}=\mathrm{PEEK}(\mathrm{SX})+256$ *PEEK (SY)-1:PRINT ..... :rem 175
410 F\$="":INPUT " APPEND FILENAME";F\$:IF LEN(F\$)>1
2 GOTO $41 \varnothing$ ..... : rem 254
$42 \varnothing$ IF $F \$="$ " THEN PRINT:GOTO 5øø ..... :rem 212
430 LA=BB:GOSUB 630:NB=PEEK(BB):PRINT " APPENDED SHAPES" NA+1 "TO" NA+NB+1 :rem 193
$44 \varnothing$ POKE BB, $255: N A=N A+N B+1: I F N A<256$ GOTO 4øø:rem 189
$45 \emptyset$ PRINT:PRINT " ERROR: TOO MANY SHAPES":END ..... : rem 241
N(F\$)>12 GOTO 5øø :rem l
51ø GOSUB 6øø:POKE SA,251:POKE 251,BA-256*INT(BA/256): POKE 252,INT(BA/256) :rem 85
$52 \varnothing$ POKE BA,NA:BB=BB+1:POKE SX,BB-256*INT(BB/256):POKE SY, INT (BB/256) :rem 240
530 SYS 65496:IF PEEK(SP)ANDI GOTO $7 \varnothing \varnothing$ ..... :rem 91
540 PRINT " SAVED" BB-BA "BYTES":END ..... :rem 237
6øØ PRINT:POKE SA,1:POKE SX,DN:POKE SY, Ø:SYS 65466 : F $\$=F \$+$ ". SHP" ..... :rem 215

```
61\varnothing FOR K=1 TO LEN(F$):POKE 584+K,ASC(MID$(FS,K)):
    NEXT :rem 241
62Ø POKE SA,LEN(FS):POKE SX,73:POKE SY,2:SYS 65469
    :RETURN :rem 159
630 GOSUB 6ø\emptyset:POKE SA,\emptyset:POKE SX,LA-256*INT(LA/256)
    :POKE SY,INT(LA/256) :rem 52
640 SYS 65493:IF PEEK(SP)AND1 GOTO 7ø\emptyset :rem 90
6 5 0 ~ R E T U R N ~ : r e m ~ 1 2 3 ~
7\emptyset\emptyset P=PEEK(SA):PRINT " ERROR: ";:IF P=4 THEN PRINT
    "FILE NOT FOUND":END :rem 96
710 IF P=5 THEN PRINT "DEVICE NOT PRESENT":END
    :rem 188
72Ø PRINT ST:END
:rem }22
```


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Part 3
Sidplayer

# Introduction to Music and the Sidplayer 

Of all the special chips in the Commodore 64, none is more devoted to one specific purpose than the SID chip. This chip, more formally known as the Sound Interface Device, is solely responsible for producing music and sound effects. It has many features for controlling sound, and has been described as a complete synthesizer on a chip. The only problem is that the SID chip is very complicated. As a result, it's not fully understood by most people, and often not fully used.

Enter "Sidplayer," a music playing and editing utility for the Commodore 64. This music system is designed to make it easy to use the SID chip so that you can realize its full potential. Using Sidplayer, you can make your Commodore 64 produce music of extremely high quality.

To fully appreciate the capabilities of Sidplayer, it's first necessary to have an understanding of how electronic music works.

## Electronic Music

When your ear hears a sound, it is actually detecting vibrations. The rate of vibration is called the frequency and determines the pitch of a sound. In a musical instrument, a metal string, reed, stretched membrane, or air in a tube is what vibrates. The player usually has a method for changing the pitch.

But sounds are not so simple. There are many different kinds of vibrations. When viewed with an oscilloscope, vibrations have another characteristic, called waveform. Square, triangle, and sawtooth are common waveforms. The waveform helps distinguish the sound produced by one instrument, such as a flute, from the sound produced by another instrument, such as a violin.

There's just one more essential characteristic remainingvolume. As a string is plucked or air is blown, the volume changes over a short period of time. This pattern of changing volume levels is called an envelope, and is usually divided into four parts called the attack, decay, sustain, and release. In the
first three parts, the volume rises to a peak level and then falls to a sustain level. When the note is released, the volume fades away to silence.

The frequency, waveform, and envelope are all essential parts of a note. A sequence of notes creates music. Electronic music is merely a method of producing these qualities of sound by electronic means. A device which does this is called a synthesizer. Theoretically, it's possible for a synthesizer to imitate any musical instrument or to produce sounds never heard before.

## The Sidplayer

The SID chip contains three oscillators. Each oscillator acts as one "voice" and can produce a tone in a range of eight octaves, using one of four basic waveforms. The tone is passed through an envelope generator which regulates the volume of that voice. All three voices are then combined into one audio signal, which is controlled by the master volume and sent to the television or monitor speaker.

## Figure 7-1. Producing Electronic Sounds



Figure 7-1 is a simplified description of the actual design of the SID chip, but it does serve our purposes for the moment. Advanced features not mentioned include a filter and options for synchronization and ring modulation.

Sidplayer fully supports all of the features built into the SID chip. As many as three voices can be played at the same time, each with its own pitch, waveform, and envelope. Sidplayer also supports the filter and all of the related filter controls, plus the synchronization and ring-modulation options.

To further extend the power of the SID chip, there are additional features provided by software control, such as vibrato, portamento, transposing, automatic filtering, and much more.

The most important thing, however, is not that Sidplayer has all these features, but that it makes them so easy to use. The music system includes a carefully designed editing program which lets you edit all three voices. Notes can be entered from keyboard or by joystick and are played as they are entered for immediate feedback. Special commands are available to select things like waveform and envelope settings.

Finally, all music created with Sidplayer can be merged with your own BASIC programs. The music will even play while the program is running. This opens up many possibilities, including animated screen displays that change in time with the music.

Some demonstration songs have been provided so that you can hear just what Sidplayer can do. First, however, you'll need to enter two programs. Disk users should enter and save Program 7-1; tape users, Program 7-2. Use the filename PLAYER.

Program 7-3 is a machine language listing that requires the "Machine Language Editor: MLX" program found in Appendix $C$ (this is the same program used to enter "BMG.OBJ" in Chapter 5). Note the starting and ending addresses listed before the program listing. Use these as your responses to MLX's prompts. Program 7-3 should be saved using the filename SID.OBJ. If you're using tape, be sure to save the file on the same tape, right after Program 7-2, and note the number on the tape counter where SID.OBJ begins. Tape users who use an MLX program from another COMPUTE! publication must be sure to change line 763 to match
the listing in this book. (Tape users who have a copy of MLX which does not have a line 763 must use the version of MLX from this book.)

## Program 7-1. PLAYER (Disk)

For error-free program entry, be sure to use "The Automatic Proofreader," Appendix D.

 \{SPACE\}PEEK (SP)ANDI GOTO 710 :rem 12
140 SS=49152: $\mathrm{HK}=49435: \mathrm{PL}=49458: \mathrm{DP}=49629:$ LA=PEEK ( 49 $)+256 * \operatorname{PEEK}(5 \varnothing)+1 \varnothing \varnothing:$ DR=LA $\quad$ : rem 212
150 FOR K=LA TO LA+9ø:READ P:POKE K,P:NEXT:LA=LA+9 $1: \mathrm{HI}=\mathrm{INT}(\mathrm{LA} / 256): L O=\mathrm{LA}-256 * \mathrm{HI}$ :rem $14 \varnothing$
160 GOTO 510 :rem 102
3øø K=FRE( $\varnothing): F \$=" ": I N P U T$ " YOUR REQUEST";F\$:IF LEN (FS)>12 GOTO 3øø :rem 153
$31 \varnothing$ IF F\$="" GOTO $50 \emptyset \quad$ :rem $22 \varnothing$
$32 \varnothing$ PRINT: POKE SA, 1:POKE SX,DN:POKE SY, $\varnothing: S Y S 65466$ : F\$=F\$+".MUS":GOSUB 6øø :rem 48
$33 \varnothing$ POKE SA, $0:$ POKE SX,LO:POKE SY,HI:SYS 65493:IF P EEK (SP)AND1 GOTO $7 \varnothing \emptyset \quad$ :rem 92
4øØ SYS HK:POKE SX,LO:POKE SY,HI:SYS PL:K=PEEK (SX) +256*PEEK(SY):FS=" " :rem 196
$410 \mathrm{P}=\operatorname{PEEK}(\mathrm{K}): \mathrm{K}=\mathrm{K}+1: I F \mathrm{P}$ AND P<>13 THEN $\mathrm{F} \$=\mathrm{F} \$+$ CHR $\$$ ( P ): GOTO $41 \varnothing \quad$ :rem 123
420 PRINT FS:IF P THEN F\$=" ":GOTO 41ø :rem 2øø
430 WAIT 5632ø,16:POKE 198, $0:$ POKE SS,7 :rem 56
$44 \varnothing$ IF PEEK (198) THEN POKE 198, $0:$ POKE SS, $\varnothing$ : rem 6
450 IF PEEK (SS)AND7 GOTO $440 \quad$ :rem 31
$46 \varnothing$ POKE 54276, ø:POKE 54283, $0:$ POKE 5429ø, $0: S Y S$ DP: GOTO 3øø :rem 148
5øø PRINT CHR\$(147):PRINT " SIDPLAYER":PRINT " BY \{SPACE\}CRAIG CHAMBERLAIN":PRINT :rem 177
$51 \varnothing$ FOR K=1 TO 4:POKE 58Ø+K,ASC(MIDS(".MUS",K)):NE XT
:rem 131
520 OPEN $1,8, \varnothing, " \$ ": G E T$ \#1,S\$,S\$:PRINT " ";:TB=1:K= $\varnothing \quad$ :rem $12 \varnothing$
$53 \varnothing$ SYS DR:TB=TB+13:PRINT TAB(TB): :IF TB=4Ø THEN T B=1:PRINT " "; :rem 152
$54 \varnothing$ IF ST= $\emptyset$ THEN $K=K+1: G O T O$ 53 $\quad$ :rem 165
55Ø PRINT:CLOSE 1:SYS 65484:IF K=Ø THEN PRINT:PRIN T " NO MUSIC FILES ON DISK" :rem 237
560 PRINT:GOTO 3øø :rem 46
6øØ FOR K=1 TO LEN(F\$): POKE 584+K,ASC(MID\$(F\$,K)): NEXT :rem 240
610 POKE SA,LEN(F\$):POKE SX, 73:POKE SY, $2:$ SYS 65469 : RETURN :rem 158
$7 \emptyset \emptyset$ IF PEEK (SA) $=4$ THEN PRINT " I DON'T KNOW THAT S ONG": PRINT: GOTO $3 \varnothing \varnothing$
: rem 186
$710 \mathrm{P}=\mathrm{PEEK}(\mathrm{SA}): \operatorname{PRINT} " \mathrm{ERROR:} \mathrm{";:IF} \mathrm{P}=4$ THEN PRINT "FILE NOT FOUND": END :rem 97
720 IF $\mathrm{P}=5$ THEN PRINT "DEVICE NOT PRESENT": END
: rem 189
730 PRINT ST:END :rem 223
800 DATA $162,1,32,198,255,32,207,255,32,207,255,32$ $, 207,255,133,251,32,207,255 \quad:$ rem 206
801 DATA $133,252,32,207,255,164,144,208,62,201,34$, $208,245,160,0,32,207,255,201 \quad:$ rem 238
$8 \emptyset 2$ DATA $34,240,6,153,73,2,2 \emptyset \emptyset, 2 \emptyset 8,243,132,253,32$, $207,255,168,208,250,164,253 \quad$ :rem 20ø
803 DATA $192,5,144,2 \emptyset \emptyset, 162,3,185,72,2,221,69,2,208$ $, 190,136,202,16,244,132,253 \quad:$ rem 195
804 DATA $160, \emptyset, 185,73,2,32,210,255,200,196,253,208$ , 245,96
: rem 247

## Program 7-2. PLAYER (Tape)

For error-free program entry, be sure to use "The Automatic Proofreader," Appendix D.
$\begin{array}{lllll}100 & \text { PRINT CHR\$ (147):PRINT " SIDPLAYER":PRINT " BY } \\ & \text { (SPACE\}CRAIG CHAMBERLAIN":PRINT } & \text { rem } 173\end{array}$
$11 \varnothing$ PRINT " TUNING INSTRUMENTS...":PRINT :rem 245
$12 \emptyset \mathrm{DN}=1: \mathrm{SA}=780: \mathrm{SX}=781: \mathrm{SY}=782: \mathrm{SP}=783: \mathrm{POKE} \mathrm{SA}, 1: \mathrm{POK}$ E SX, DN:POKE SY,l:SYS 65466 :rem 97
$130 \mathrm{~F} \$=" \mathrm{SID} . \mathrm{OBJ":GOSUB}$ 6ØØ:POKE SA, Ø:SYS 65493:IF \{SPACE\}PEEK (SP)AND1 GOTO 7ØØ : rem 11
140 SS=49152: $\mathrm{HK}=49435: \mathrm{PL}=49458: \mathrm{DP}=49629$ :rem 202
150 LA=PEEK (49) + 256* $\operatorname{PEEK}(50)+1 \varnothing \varnothing: H I=I N T(L A / 256): L O$ $=L A-256^{*} \mathrm{HI} \quad$ :rem 141
$3 \varnothing \emptyset K=F R E(\varnothing): F \$=" ": I N P U T$ " YOUR REQUEST";F\$:IF LEN $(F \$)>12$ GOTO $3 \varnothing \varnothing \quad$ :rem 153
$31 \varnothing$ IF $F \$="$ " THEN PRINT:ON F+1 GOTO 3øø,4øØ
:rem 207
$32 \emptyset$ PRINT:F=1:POKE SA, 1:POKE SX,DN:POKE SY, Ø:SYS 6 $5466: F \$=F \$+$ ". MUS":GOSUB 6ØØ 6 rem 30
$33 \emptyset$ POKE SA, Ø:POKE SX,LO:POKE SY,HI:SYS 65493:IF P EEK (SP)ANDl GOTO 7ØØ $\quad$ : rem 92
$40 \emptyset$ SYS HK:POKE SX,LO:POKE SY,HI:SYS PL:K=PEEK (SX) +256*PEEK (SY):F\$=" " :rem 196
$41 \varnothing \mathrm{P}=\mathrm{PEEK}(\mathrm{K}): \mathrm{K}=\mathrm{K}+1: \mathrm{IF} \mathrm{P}$ AND $\mathrm{P}<>13$ THEN $\mathrm{F} \$=\mathrm{F} \$+\mathrm{CHR} \$$ (P):GOTO $41 \varnothing \quad$ :rem 123
$42 \emptyset$ PRINT FS:IF P THEN F\$=" ":GOTO 41Ø :rem 2øØ
430 WAIT 56320,16:POKE 198, $0:$ POKE SS, 7 :rem 56
$44 \varnothing$ IF PEEK (198) THEN POKE 198, $0:$ POKE SS, $\varnothing$ : rem 6
450 IF PEEK (SS)AND7 GOTO 440 :rem 31

```
46Ø POKE 54276,ø:POKE 54283,\varnothing:POKE 54290,ø:SYS DP:
    GOTO 3ø\emptyset :rem 148
600 FOR K=1 TO LEN(F$):POKE 584+K,ASC(MID$(FS,K)):
    NEXT :rem 24\emptyset
61Ø POKE SA,LEN(F$):POKE SX,73:POKE SY,2:SYS 65469
    :RETURN :rem l58
7ø\emptyset PRINT " ERROR" ST:END :rem l7Ø
```


## Let the Music Play

You may want to enter any or all of the three demonstration songs which follow Program 7-3. The first, Program 7-4, is "Bach's Two-Part Invention in A Minor." This is the theme music used by Commodore in their television ads. Save the file using the filename COMMODORE.MUS. The .MUS extension is used to identify all music files. Use the starting and ending addresses noted before this listing, as well as the next two programs, as your responses to MLX's queries.

Program 7-5 is the "March of the Wooden Soldiers." Save this file with the filename WSOLDIER.MUS. The final demonstration, Program 7-6, is an original composition written using the Sidplayer Editor. The filename for this file is ETAL.MUS.

When you run "PLAYER" (whether tape or disk), it displays the message TUNING INSTRUMENTS while it initializes and loads the SID.OBJ file. If you're using disk, the program also lists a directory of all music files on the disk in three columns. In response to the prompt YOUR REQUEST?, you should type the name of the song you want to play. Do not include the .MUS extension. The song loads, the full title and credit information print, and the song starts playing. It will go something like this:

## YOUR REQUEST? COMMODORE <br> TWO PART INVENTION \#13 <br> J.S. BACH <br> COURTESY CRAIG CHAMBERLAIN

When the song is finished, you'll be prompted for another selection. You can enter another song name to load and play another tune.

If you're using disk and the requested file is not on the disk in the drive, PLAYER tells you that it doesn't know that song, and asks for a new selection.

If you press only RETURN in response to the song name prompt and are using tape, the last song will be replayed. If you're using disk, PLAYER prints a new directory. This is useful if the old directory has scrolled off the screen or if you want to switch disks.

To make a song stop playing before its end, hit any key. PLAYER cancels the current song and prompts you for a new selection. To end the program, press RUN/STOP-RESTORE.

The demonstration tunes cover a variety of music, from classical to modern. Enjoy listening to the music produced by Sidplayer.

## Program 7-3. SID.OBJ

To enter this program, you must use "The Machine Language Editor (MLX)," a program found in Appendix C.

## Starting Address: 49349 <br> Ending Address: 51118

Filename: SID.OBJ

|  |  |
| :---: | :---: |
| 49355 |  |
| 49361 | : 213,192,213,192,096,001,092 |
| 9367 |  |
| 49373 | : $0 \varnothing 0,255, \varnothing \varnothing 0, \varnothing 02, \varnothing \varnothing 4, \varnothing 05,231$ |
| 49379 | : Ø07, Ø09, 011,030,024,139,191 |
| 49385 | : 126,250, $066,172,243,230,236$ |
| 49391 | : $143,248,046,134,142,150,078$ |
| 49397 | :159,168,179,189,2ø0,212,072 |
| 49403 | : 225,238,253,140,120,1øø,047 |
| 49409 | : $080,060,040, \varnothing 20,000, \varnothing 00,201$ |
| 49415 |  |
| 49421 | :ø12,ø13,015,017,ø18,ø00,088 |
| 49427 | : 224, øø0, ø04, øø8, ø12,249, 0.04 |
| 49433 | :øø0,245,120,162,0ø2,189,231 |
| 49439 | : 019,003,157,204,192,189,027 |
| 49445 | : 2ø2,192,157,ø19, Ø0 , 202,044 |
| 49451 | : 2ø8,241,142,øøø,192,ø88,146 |
| 49457 | :ø96,169,øø0,141, Ø00,192,135 |
| 49463 | :134,251,132,252,160,196,156 |
| 49469 | :153,øøø,192,136,2ø8,250,232 |
| 49475 | : 141,023,212,141,021,212,049 |
| 49481 | :141, $022,212,169,008,141,254$ |
| 49487 | : 029,192,141,024,212,169,078 |
| 49493 | :144,141,030,192,169,012,005 |
| 49499 | :141,031,192,169,212,133,201 |
| 49505 | :254,162, øø2,169, Ø01,157,074 |
| 49511 | : 033,192,169,004,157,039,185 |



[^8]

[^9]














Q -



## Program 7-4. COMMODORE.MUS

 Editor (MLX)," a program found in Appendix C. Starting Address: 49152
Ending Address: 50849
Filename: COMMODOR

Filename: COMMODORE.MUS

 QHQNQNHQNQHNHQQNNNQQQQQNNHHQQQQQ






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[^10]
## 






 NMNNMNNNNMNNNNMNMNNMNNNMNNはNNGNN



 NNNNMNMNNMNMNNMNNNNMMNNNNNMNMM QQQQQQQQQQQQQQQQQQQQQQQQQQQQQQ

 NMNNNNNNNNNQNNNNNQNNNNNNNNN NNMNNQ


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|  |  |
| :---: | :---: |
|  |  |
|  |  |




Program 7－5．WSOLDIER．MUS
To enter this program，you must use＂The Machine Language


 －NOMQQQQNNNNNのNルNNNののロ

 － $\mathcal{A} \mathbb{Q} \mathbb{Q} \mathbb{Q} \mathbb{Q} \mathbb{Q} \mathbb{Q} \mathbb{Q} \mathbb{Q} \mathbb{Q} \mathbb{Q} \mathbb{N} \mathbb{Q} \mathbb{Q} \mathbb{Q} \mathbb{Q} \mathbb{Q} \mathbb{Q} \mathbb{Q}$



















[^11]| 504 ¢6 | : $074, \boxed{69,083, \varnothing 83, \boxed{9, ~} 076,172}$ |
| :---: | :---: |
| 50412 | : 013,870,873, $070,069,044,063$ |
| 50418 | : $032, \varnothing 84, \varnothing 85, \boxed{66,065,844,1 \varnothing 6}$ |
| 50424 | : $032, \boxed{65,078,868,032, \boxed{0, ~} 091}$ |
| 50430 | : $069, \boxed{22,067, \varnothing 85,083,883,211}$ |
| 50436 | : $073, \boxed{79,878,813,867,879,137}$ |
| 50442 | : $085,082,084, \boxed{69,083,889,246 ~}$ |
| 50448 | : $032, \boxed{22,879,066,869,882,17 \varnothing}$ |
| 50454 |  |
| $5046 \varnothing$ | :ø73,ø78, $883, \varnothing 13, \boxed{0}, 253, \varnothing 16$ |
| Program 7-6. ETAL.MUS <br> To enter this program, you must use "The Machine Language <br> Editor (MLX)," a program found in Appendix C. |  |
|  |  |
| Starting Address: 49152 Ending Address: 49793 Filename: ETAL.MUS |  |
|  |  |
|  |  |
| 49152 |  |
| 49158 | :ø66,øøø, $086, \varnothing 25, \varnothing \varnothing 1, \varnothing 12,196$ |
| 49164 | :øø1,144, øø1,132,øø1,øø8,ø43 |
| 49170 | :ø3ø, øø1, øø1,1ø2, $514, \varnothing \varnothing 3,2 \varnothing 9$ |
| 49176 | : $024,239,024,161,024,162,146$ |
| 49182 | : $020,227,052,162,024,174,177$ |
| 49188 | : $024,239,824,161,020,162,154$ |
| 49194 | : $020,161, \varnothing 2 \varnothing, 174, \boxed{52,172,129}$ |
| $4920 \varnothing$ | :ø3ø, øø2, $24,239, \varnothing 24,161, \varnothing 16$ |
| 49206 | : $024,162, \boxed{20,227,852,162,189 ~}$ |
| 49212 | : ø24,174, ø24,239, $24,161,194$ |
| 49218 | 2ø,239,ø2ø,174,ø2ø,239 |

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|  |  |
| :---: | :---: |
| 49602 | : ø20,138, Ø2ø,141, Ø24,138,163 |
| 49608 | : 052,140, ø2ø,137, $052,149,238$ |
| 49614 | : $052,141,020,138,052,141,238$ |
| 49620 | : Ø24,140, ø24,141, 052,142,223 |
| 49626 | : ø52,140, ø52,141, $620,138,249$ |
| 49632 | : $052,141,052,207, \varnothing 20,142,07 \varnothing$ |
| 49638 | : $052,140, \varnothing \varnothing 8,141, \varnothing 01, \varnothing 15, \varnothing 75$ |
| 49644 | : Ø08, $76, \boxed{1}, 114, \boxed{1}, 079, \varnothing \varnothing 3$ |
| 49650 | : 001,134,166,108,øø1,039,179 |
| 49656 | : 001,059,019,176,001, 002,250 |
| 49662 | : $001, \varnothing 51, \boxed{1, ~} 071, \varnothing 03, \varnothing 0 \varnothing, 125$ |
| 49668 | : $166,012,030,002,054,062,014$ |
| 49674 | : 020,154,048,231,080,166,197 |
| 49680 | : $024,166,020$ |
| 496 | : $024,162, \varnothing 2 \varnothing, 162,048,239,165$ |
| 49692 | : 052,227,016,161,080,162,214 |
| 49698 | : ø24,162, $01,015,001,047, \varnothing 28$ |
| 49704 | : $016,174,166,179,086, \varnothing \varnothing \varnothing, 149$ |
| 49710 | : øø1,212, $666,176, \varnothing 54, \varnothing \varnothing 2, \varnothing 45 ~$ |
| 49716 | :ø30, Ø0 $, \varnothing 52,151,020,149,201$ |
| 49722 | : $652,146, \varnothing 16,150, \varnothing 24,149, \varnothing 83$ |
| 49728 | : $052,159,052,151,020,149,135$ |
| 49734 | : Ø2ø,146, $224,159,052,145,1 \varnothing 4$ |
| 49740 | : Ø20,148, $052,150,052,151,137$ |
| 49746 | : Ø2ø,149, $552,146, \boxed{52,156,145 ~}$ |
| 49752 | : $620,153, \varnothing 52,158, \varnothing 08,159,126$ |
| 49758 | : Ø01, 015, $08,158, \varnothing \varnothing 1,130,151$ |
| 49764 | : Ø01, 079, $344,069, \boxed{44,032,143 ~}$ |
| 49 | : 065,076,034,013, Ø66,089,193 |
| 49776 | : Ø32, $772, \boxed{65, ~} 882,082, \boxed{89, ø 22 ~}$ |
| 49782 | : Ø32, 066, 082, 065, Ø84, Ø84, 019 |
| 49788 | :ø13,ø13,ø13,øøø,ø2ø,153,ø80 |

## Fundamentals of Music Theory

Sidplayer is a lot more than just a music playing program. It's also a complete system for entering and editing music. The Player is accompanied by an Editor which is so easy to use that you don't even have to know how to read sheet music. You may want to skip this section for now and come back to it later. This section offers the rudiments of elementary music theory-it presents the fundamental concepts that will help you get started.

Notation. If a piece is good, the melody will stick in your mind, and you may find yourself humming the tune long after it's finished playing. Sometimes a song can be so good you
can't get it out of your mind. By hearing the song, you've learned it and can play it yourself. Songs such as those sung in native American ceremonies have been passed from generation to generation in just this way. As songs get longer and more complex, however, this method of communicating a song becomes less reliable. This is when it's necessary to make a permanent copy of the song on paper, which is the purpose of sheet music. Today, orchestras can faithfully reproduce the great symphonies of Beethoven. These symphonies have survived for nearly two centuries only because they were written down.

To express music on paper, a special form of notation has been developed. This notation is capable of describing every facet of a piece of music, from the order in which to play the notes to specifics, such as the style in which they are to be played.

Each group of five horizontal lines is called a staff. At the left edge of each staff is a clef symbol. The clef symbol for the top staff indicates that the staff is a treble clef. The bottom staff uses a different clef symbol and is called a bass clef. Together, the two staves form a grand staff, which is most often used for displaying notes. Figure 7-2 illustrates a grand staff.

Figure 7-2. Grand Staff


In the following text, the different characteristics of notes are introduced one at a time. As each characteristic is discussed, the method for expressing it in notation is also shown. Admittedly, music theory is an extremely complicated subject. What follows is only a simplified explanation of the essential concepts and isn't intended as a complete treatment. Once you understand what's presented here, however, you should be able to read a simple piece of sheet music.

Pitch. When an object is vibrating, its vibrations pass through the air and are detected by your ear as sound. Frequency is the measure of the number of vibrations per unit of time. The most common method of specifying a frequency is in terms of vibrations per second. Such a measurement is indicated by the unit hertz, abbreviated Hz .

The frequency of a sound is interpreted by your ear as a pitch. Faster rates of vibration produce higher pitches. Usually, the smaller an instrument, the higher the pitch it can produce. A piccolo can produce a very high pitch, whereas a tuba produces a very low pitch.

Although a wide range of frequencies can be detected by the human ear, only frequencies occurring at specific intervals are commonly used in music. Let's start with one of these pitches and label it C. This pitch has a frequency of 261.63 Hz , or 261.63 vibrations per second. The sequence of pitches continues, with pitches at the following intervals being named D, E, F, G, A, and B.
B 493.88 Hz
A 440.00 Hz
G 392.00 Hz
F 349.23 Hz
E 329.63 Hz
D 293.66 Hz
C 261.63 Hz (Start here)
When you listen to the sequence of pitches in order, they form what's called a scale, but the scale will seem incomplete. One final note, after the $B$, is needed to complete the scale. This note happens to be another C , related to the earlier C , but at a higher pitch. (The actual mathematical relationship is that the new C occurs at 523.25 Hz , exactly twice the frequency of the first.) It doesn't stop here, though. There's another $D$ after the new $C$, and a second $E$ after the new $D$, and so on. In fact, the scale repeats several times, both above and below the original C.
D 1174.70 Hz
C 1046.50 Hz
B $\quad 987.77 \mathrm{~Hz}$
A 880.00 Hz
G $\quad 783.99 \mathrm{~Hz}$
F $\quad 698.46 \mathrm{~Hz}$
E $\quad 659.26 \mathrm{~Hz}$

D 587.33 Hz
C $\quad 523.25 \mathrm{~Hz}$
B $\quad 493.88 \mathrm{~Hz}$
A 440.00 Hz
G $\quad 392.00 \mathrm{~Hz}$
F $\quad 349.23 \mathrm{~Hz}$
E $\quad 329.63 \mathrm{~Hz}$
D 293.66 Hz
C $\quad 261.63 \mathrm{~Hz}$ (Original C)
B $\quad 246.94 \mathrm{~Hz}$
A 220.00 Hz
G $\quad 196.00 \mathrm{~Hz}$
F $\quad 174.61 \mathrm{~Hz}$
E $\quad 164.81 \mathrm{~Hz}$
D 146.83 Hz
C $\quad 130.81 \mathrm{~Hz}$
B $\quad 123.47 \mathrm{~Hz}$
The scale repeats with each C. By examining one sequence, from one $C$ to the next, you can see that it consists of eight pitches. Collectively, these eight pitches are called an octave. To distinguish this set of pitches from the next, the first set is said to occur one octave lower than the second.

Just as the different pitches in an octave are labeled, so are the different octaves. However, instead of using a letter of the alphabet, a number is used. The piano key for the original C is found at about the middle of the keyboard. This C is called middle $C$, and begins octave 4 . Other octaves are numbered relative to the octave containing middle C . The octave immediately above octave 4 is octave 5 . The octaves which are of the most use musically are octaves 1 to 7 .

In music notation, the pitch value of a note is represented by its vertical position when drawn on a staff. Thus, C5 (C of the fifth octave) is indicated by placing the note between the second and third lines of the treble staff. The next higher pitch, D5, is indicated by placing the note above the position for C5, except that this time the note is placed on the line. The positions for all notes alternate between being on a staff line or between staff lines, for the entire grand staff. See Figure 7-3 for an illustration.
Figure 7-3. Grand Staff
$1-$
$0-$
0
0
0


One special case is middle C. The staff line for C4 is placed halfway between the treble and bass staves. The pitches around middle C must take this variation into account. The separation of the two staves creates some space used for messages and special symbols which give additional information to the performer.

Another special situation is when a note is so high or low in pitch that it goes off the grand staff. In such instances, additional staff lines, called leger lines (see Figure 7-4), are added. The pitch of notes drawn on leger lines is still determined in the normal way, by counting staff lines and seeing whether the note is placed on or between lines.

Figure 7-4. Leger Lines


By using the grand staff and leger lines, eight octaves (octaves $0-7$ ) can be displayed.

Sharps and flats. Eight octaves, each containing 7 different pitches, would seem to make a total of 56 pitches. Actually, there are some intermediate pitches between some of these notes. These are called sharps and flats.

| C |  |
| :---: | :---: |
|  |  |
| A-sharp | B-flat |
|  | A |
| G-sharp | A-flat |
|  | G |
| F-sharp | G-flat |
|  |  |
|  |  |
| D-sharp | E-flat |
|  |  |
| C-sharp | D-flat |

A note is sharp if its pitch is a half step above normal. A note is flat if the pitch is a half step below the normal pitch. Notes that are not sharp or flat are said to be natural. Figure 7-5 shows some of the natural notes on the piano keyboard.
Figure 7-5. Piano Keyboard


Two important observations should be made. First, every sharp note is equivalent to a flat note. C-sharp and D-flat both denote the same pitch. The difference lies in the viewpoint, whether the intermediate pitch is a half step above C or a half step below D.

Thus far, we've been using the words sharp and flat for accidental pitches. Another way to indicate that a note is sharp or flat is to use a special symbol. The symbol for a sharp note looks like a slanted pound sign ( $\eta$ ), while the symbol for a flat note looks something like a lowercase letter $B$ (b). The natural symbol is normally not used in front of natural notes.

To show that a note on the grand staff is a sharp or flat note, the appropriate accidental symbol is placed just before the note. The C-sharp and B-flat notes in Figure 7-6 are signified with these symbols. Sharps and flats indicated in this way last only one measure.

Figure 7-6. Accidentals


Including the sharps and flats, one octave consists of 12 different pitches. With eight octaves, the total is now 96 different pitches. Most songs use only notes that come from this palette of 96 pitches.

Key signatures. Just because there are 96 pitches available, does that mean that each one will be used in a song? No, a song may not play in every octave, nor every note within a particular octave. Perhaps it uses just a subset of the 12 pitches within one octave. The selection of notes is determined by the key in which the music is written.

The topic of pitch was introduced by starting with a C scale. This is a sequence of notes, starting on $C$, that continues for one octave. Let's examine the relationship of these notes to the 12 in the entire octave. If the distance between each of the 12 pitches is called a half step, the sequence of notes forming the C scale is determined by the following steps: whole, whole, half, whole, whole, whole, half-where a whole step equals two half steps.

| $\begin{aligned} & C \\ & B \\ & / B^{b} \\ & A \\ & / A b \\ & G \\ & / G b \\ & F \\ & E \\ & / E b \end{aligned}$ |
| :---: |
|  |  |
|  |  |
|  |  |
|  |  |
|  |  |
|  |  |
|  |  |
|  |  |
|  |  |

Now apply that sequence of steps again, but this time start the scale at note A.

```
A
G
F
E
D
C
B
A (Start here)
```

This scale contains three sharp notes, as opposed to the earlier scale which contained none. The sharp notes replaced their natural counterparts. This scale is said to be written in the key of $A$. A song written in the key of A will normally use only this set of pitches in each octave. This means that we're back to a situation where we have to deal with only seven pitches per octave.

You can start a scale on any note, and for every starting note, there is a different combination of sharp or flat notes used. Here's another example, this time using flats:
Bb
A
G
F
Eb
D
C
Bb (Start here)
This is the key of B-flat. The notes were determined by using the sequence of half and whole steps given earlier. The key of B-flat contains two flat notes, B-flat and E-flat. The notes B-natural and E-natural will not normally be used by a song written in the key of B-flat.

Table 7-1 is a complete listing of all the major keys. The keys with less than five sharps or flats are the ones used most often.
Table 7-1. Keys

Key Notes

| C | C | D | E | F | G | A | B | C | 0 |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| G | G | A | B | C | D | E | F\# | G | 1\# | (F\#) |
| D | D | E | F | G | A | B | C\# | D | 2 | (F\#, C\#) |
| A | A | B | CH | D | E | FH | G\# | A | 3\# | ( F \#, C $\#, \mathrm{G}$ \# ) |
| E | E | F | FH | A | B | C\# | D\# | E | 4 | (F\#, CH, G\#, D\#) |
| B | B | CH | DH | E | F\# | G\# | A\# | B | 5 | ( $\mathrm{FH}, \mathrm{CH}, \mathrm{G} \#, \mathrm{DH}, \mathrm{A} \#$ ) |
| F | F | G\# | A ${ }^{\#}$ | B | C\# | DH | E\# | F\# | 6 | ( F H, CH, GH, DH, AH, E\#) |
| CH | CH | DH | E\# | F | G\# | A $\#$ | B ${ }^{\text {\# }}$ | CH | 7 | (F\#, CH, G\#, DH, A\#, E\#, B\#) |
| F | F | G | A | Bb | C | D | E | F | 1 b | (Bb) |
| Bb | Bb | C | D | Eb | F | G | A | Bb | $2 b$ | ( B b, Eb) |
| Eb | Eb | F | G | Ab | B ${ }^{\text {b }}$ | C | D | Eb | 36 | ( $B 6, E b, A b$ ) |
| Ab | ${ }^{\text {Ab }}$ | B $b$ | C | D | Eb | F | G | Ab | 46 | ( $B$ b, E b , Ab, Db ) |
| D | D | Eb | F | Gb | Ab | Bb | C | Db | $5 b$ | ( $B$ b, E b , Ab, Db, Gb ) |
| G | Gb | Ab | Bb | Cb | Db | Eb | F | Gb | 66 | ( $B$ b, E $b, A b, D b, G b, C b)$ |
| C | Cb | D | Eb | Fb | Gb | Ab | Bb | Cb | 76 | $(B b, E b, A b, D b, G b, C b, F b)$ |

If you study Table 7-1 carefully, you'll notice some patterns. For example, each key which contains sharp notes contains $F \sharp$. The key of $G$ has $F \#$ as its only sharp note. The key of $D$ keeps the $F \#$ but adds $C \#$. Each successive key adds one more sharp note, while retaining all the other sharp notes from before. This pattern works in the same way for keys containing flat notes, starting with the note $B^{b}$.

Most of time you can determine the key in which a piece of music is written by counting the number of sharp or flat symbols near the clef symbols on the grand staff. If no sharp or flat symbols appear there, the music is written in the key of C. If one sharp symbol is displayed, the piece is written in the key of G. Two sharp symbols mean that the key of $D$ is to be used, and so on. Likewise, one flat symbol indicates the key of F, two indicate the key of B-flat, on up to seven flat symbols, which indicate the key of C-flat.

Just as the number of sharp or flat symbols is important, so is their position. The sharp symbol for $F \#$ is always placed on the line that designates note F. Furthermore, when a sharp symbol is put next to the clef symbol, it has the effect of automatically placing a sharp symbol in front of every note on that line. A sharp symbol on line F means that all notes placed on the grand staff in F positions are to be played as F-sharps. Of course, the same is true when flats are used. A flat symbol placed near the clef on the line for $B$ means that all $B$ notes should be played as B-flats.

Sharp and flat symbols placed after a clef symbol is called a key signature. The use of a key signature saves a lot of work when writing music, because it's no longer necessary to write a sharp or flat symbol in front of every note that needs one.

Figure 7-7 contains some examples of key signatures. Since all keys that contain sharps contain $F \#$, all of these keys have a sharp symbol at the F position. Each successive key adds a sharp symbol at a new position while retaining all the old ones. Also notice that a sharp or flat on one line affects not only the notes on that line, but the corresponding notes in the octaves above and below as well.

Figure 7-7. Key Signatures


Key of $\mathbf{E}$
Key of $\mathbf{F}$


Duration. The vertical position of a note on the grand staff determines its pitch. The horizontal direction of the staff indicates time. A sequence of notes is played in order from left to right, just as text is read from left to right. By putting the pitches together in a pleasing order, you'll create a melody, the basis for a song.

Pitch, however, is only one major characteristic of a note. Another important quality of a note is its duration. In a song, notes are not always played at the rate of one note every beat. Sometimes a note may be played for two beats. Other times, two notes might be played within the span of one beat, meaning that each note is half a beat long. Thus, every note on the staff is going to have to specify not only its pitch, but also its duration in terms of beats.

The duration of a note is indicated by its shape. The standard note you've been using thus far is formally called a quarter note, and is drawn with a stem and a filled-in oval at the bottom. If we assume a quarter note plays for a duration of one beat, then twice that length, two beats, is indicated by a half note, which looks like a quarter note except that the oval is not filled in. Twice the length of a half note is a whole note, which plays for four beats and looks like a half note without a stem.

In the other direction, for durations less than one beat, the symbol for a quarter note is used, but flags are added at the top of the stem. An eighth note plays for half a beat and has one flag. A sixteenth note has two flags. Four sixteenth notes are equal in duration to one quarter note. Thirty-second and sixty-fourth notes do exist, but they're not used very often. Figure 7-8 shows these notes, and how they're written. Take a moment to look over it.

Figure 7-8. Duration

| 4 beats | Whole Note | 0 | 1/2 beat | Eighth note |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 2 beats | Half note | $\delta$ | 1/4 beat | Sixteenth note |
| 1 beat | Quarter note | d | 1/8 beat | Thirty-second note |

The following combinations are all equivalent in duration to one whole note.


One convention in displaying durations less than one beat is to combine notes of equal duration in sets. Two eighth notes can be drawn by extending the flag from the first one to the top of the stem of the second one. This can also be done with sixteenth notes, except that two lines connect the tops of the stems, because sixteenth notes have two flags.


Notes of different durations can be combined. The notes shown on the left are the same as those shown on the right.


Notes can even be drawn upside down. This is done only when the notes would appear near the top of a staff. The oval portion of the note stays in the same place, so the pitch is not affected. Drawing a note upside down does not affect its duration either.


Dotted notes. With just a few different durations, it's possible to create a variety of different rhythms. But there are still some durations that cannot be expressed using only the notes you've seen so far. For example, how do you show that a note should be played for three beats? Situations like this require the use of dotted notes.

When a dot is placed after a note, it means that the note should be played for one and a half times the normal duration. Given a dotted half note, the half note portion is two beats, and half of that is one beat, for a total of three. A dotted whole note plays for six beats (four beats for the whole note and two beats for the dot). And a dotted quarter note? That plays for one and a half beats.

Using the dot, here are some more note combinations which total four beats.


Notice that the dot always appears to the right of the note. If you see a dot placed above or below a note, it has a different meaning and does not affect the note's duration. These dot placements are explained a bit later.

Measures. A song is just a long sequence of notes of different pitches and durations. To make it easier to deal with pitches, they're separated into groups called octaves. Likewise, to make it easier to work with a sequence of notes, the notes are often divided into groups called measures, with each measure consisting of the same number of beats. A common number of beats per measure is four.

In sheet music, a measure is formed by placing a vertical line called a bar between each group of notes on the staff.


Measures are used mainly for organization and reference. It's much easier to refer to a note as being the second note in the twenty-third measure than it is to refer to the one hundred forty-seventh note.

Each measure must have the same total duration. Since this total duration is often four beats, or one whole note, you can see why the note for one beat is called a quarter note.

Tempo. You've seen that the length of a note is expressed in beats, and that notes can be organized into groups called measures, which all have the same number of beats. The question is, how long is a beat?

A beat is a unit of time. The shorter the amount of time for each beat, the faster they'll occur. If the time is longer, the beats won't occur as often.

The rate at which the beats occur is called the tempo. The faster the tempo, the more quickly the notes are played. At a slower tempo, each beat lasts for a longer amount of time. Another way to look at it is to say that for a fixed amount of time, such as one minute, there will be more beats at a fast tempo than there will be at a slow tempo.

The relationships of quarter notes to half notes and other notes still hold; a half note will always be twice as long as a quarter note. It's just the actual time lengths that change.

The standard method of measuring a tempo is to specify the beats per minute. An average tempo is about 100 beats per minute. A tempo of 60 means that there will be 1 beat every second, which is rather slow. A tempo of 150 is more than 2 beats every second, which is relatively fast.

The tempo is a very important part of a song. A beautiful melody can be ruined if it's played too fast or too slow. Therefore, sheet music usually indicates the proper tempo. At the top of the sheet music you should find the letters M.M., followed by a number. This number indicates the beats per minute, and defines the tempo that should be used in playing the song.
M.M. 100


Another way to show the tempo is to replace the M.M. with a quarter note and an equal sign. The quarter note is used because it represents one beat. Either way works just as well.


Using a number for the tempo is convenient because it can be used when setting a metronome. But there's another method of specifying the tempo. Often you'll see words such as adagio or allegro on sheet music. What do they mean? Just like numbers, they specify tempo. Here's a list of most of the tempo terminology, in order from slowest to fastest:

| lento | Very slow |
| :--- | :--- |
| grave | Slow, solemn |
| largo | Broad |
| adagio | Leisurely |
| andante | Walking |
| andantino | A little faster walk |
| moderato | Moderate |
| allegretto | Rather fast |
| allegro | Fast |
| vivace | Lively |
| presto | Very fast |
| prestissimo | As fast as possible |

These values may be modified by one of the following words:
molto Very
meno Less
piu More
The tempo notation moderato indicates medium speed, which roughly corresponds to M.M. 100.

Rests. Pitch and duration are the two most important parts of a note. There's something similar to a note, however, which has only duration and no pitch. It's called a rest. For the specified amount of time, no tone is produced.

There's a different rest symbol for each duration. Because the idea of pitch does not apply, the vertical position of a rest does not matter, so it's usually placed in the middle of the staff. A whole rest is drawn as a small block placed right below
the second staff line. A half rest looks the same except that the block is placed on top of the third staff line. A quarter rest is a symbol that defies description. Eighth, sixteenth, and thirtysecond rests are all drawn as slanted stems with the proper number of flags to the left of the stem. Figure 7-9 shows the rest symbols.

Figure 7-9. Rests

| Whole rest | Eighth rest | y |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Half rest | Sixteenth rest | y |  |
| Quarter rest |  | Thirty-second rest | y |

Here are some combinations of notes and rests. They've been divided into measures to show that each group has a total duration of four beats.


Ties and slurs. Another special symbol is called the tie symbol. Two notes are tied together when connected by a symbol that looks like a curved line or arc. The tie means that the two notes are to be played together as one long note, with no break in volume. Thus, two quarter notes tied together will play just like a half note.


The reason for using ties is that the effect of a tie can extend across one measure or beat into another. In the following two sequences of notes, each sequence sounds the same when played, but the first one cannot be divided into measures.


The next example demonstrates the use of a tie to create a note five beats long.


Another application of the tie symbol is to connect notes of different pitches. In this case, the tie is called a slur and may be used within a measure as well as between two measures. Playing two quarter notes slurred together is like playing a half note that changes its pitch halfway through playing.


Sometimes a very long tie symbol is used over a long stretch of notes. This produces a smooth, legato effect when .the notes are played.


Volume. Yet another major characteristic of a note is its volume. Some parts of a song can be emphasized if they're played loudly. Other parts may be subdued by being played quietly. The level of loudness or softness of a piece of music is referred to as dynamics.

Dynamics are indicated on sheet music by letters which appear between the two staves of the grand staff. These letters are listed below, in order from loudest to softest.
fff (fortississimo)
ff (fortissimo)
f (forte)
mf (mezzo forte)
mp (mezzo piano)
p (piano)
pp (pianissimo)
ppp (pianississimo)

These volume levels range from very very loud (fff) to very very soft (ppp). Extremes such as ffff or pppp are not used very often.

The term dynamics should not be confused with the concept of an envelope, which describes the changes in volume as an individual note is played.

Multiple voices. You've seen the essential characteristics of individual notes and how notes can be combined into groups called measures. The music can then be sung or played on an instrument. The next step is to have several voices or instruments playing at the same time.

A set of notes for one singer or one instrument is generally referred to as one voice. With two voices playing simultaneously, one voice can play a melody while the other voice plays a bass part to give a little more body to the song. If a third voice is added, it can be used for harmony or for percussion effects, like drums or cymbals.

Each voice is independent of the others and can play its own notes of different pitches and durations. This brings up only one problem; there must be a way of keeping the voices synchronized. They should start together and end together.

Fortunately, the concept of tempo and the use of measures solve this problem. The voices may be independent, but one thing they must have in common is the tempo. The tempo establishes a beat which all voices can follow. The notes in each voice are divided into measures. Then, even though the durations within a measure may differ for each voice, at least the voices will always be on the same measure at any given instant. Figure 7-10 shows this concept.

Figure 7-10. Multiple Voices, Example 1


The horizontal direction of the grand staff corresponds to time. Because multiple voices are synchronized according to tempo, it's possible to represent more than one voice on just one grand staff. Within each measure, the notes for all of the voices are drawn. It's a rather simple matter to determine which notes go with which voice. Usually, the topmost notes are for the first voice, the notes below those are for the next voice, and so on, with the bottommost notes assigned to the last voice.

Figure 7-11. Multiple Voices, Example 2


## Summary

- Notes are shown on a grand staff which consists of the treble and bass staves. Each staff has its own clef symbol.
- The most important characteristics of a note are its pitch and duration.
- Pitches occur in groups called octaves. Each octave contains the pitches labeled C, D, E, F, G, A, and B, plus five intermediate pitches called sharps and flats.
- Only some of the pitches in each octave are used, depending on the key in which the music is written.
- Pitch is indicated by the vertical position of a note on the grand staff. The note may be drawn on a staff line or between staff lines.
- An accidental (a sharp or flat symbol) may be placed immediately before the note to indicate that the note is a sharp or a flat.
- A key signature is indicated by placing sharp or flat symbols near the clef symbol.
- Durations are specified in terms of beats. Common units of duration are whole note, half note, quarter note, and so on, down to sixty-fourth note.
- Durations are indicated by the shapes of the notes.
- Placing a dot after the note means that its duration should be one and a half times normal.
- Notes are organized into groups of equal total duration called measures.
- Measures are indicated by a single vertical line, called a bar, that crosses the staff lines.
- The rate at which the beats occur is called the tempo and is measured in terms of beats per minute.
- The tempo is indicated by an M.M. marking at the beginning of the music.
- A rest is similar to a note in that it plays for a certain duration, but it produces no tone so it has no pitch.
- Rests are indicated by special symbols, one for each duration.
- An arc-type symbol connecting two notes is used to indicate a tie or slur.
- The general volume level of a piece of music is specified by dynamics.
- Dynamics are indicated by letters that appear between the two staves.
- The notes for one singer or one instrument form one voice.
- Several voices can be represented on the same grand staff.
- When played, multiple voices stay synchronized because they share the same tempo.


## The Editor

You've been introduced to the Sidplayer, which plays songs. You've even seen some of the elements of music. But in order to play your own songs or tunes, you have to create them.

That's what the "Editor" is for. It's used to enter, edit, and debug up to three voices of a song. The program contains features which make music editing easy. Since there are so many features and the program can appear to be rather intimidating the first time you use it, be assured that you'll see exactly how each feature works.

The first step, however, is to create a working editor program. It's in two parts.

Type in Program 8-1, "EDITOR," using the "Proofreader" from Appendix D. Save it using the filename EDITOR. If you're using the Datassette, change the statement $\mathrm{DN}=8$ in line 1 to $\mathrm{DN}=1$ before you save the program. Be sure to make note of the starting and ending number indicated by the tape counter.

## Program 8-1. EDITOR

For error-free program entry, be sure to use "The Automatic Proofreader," Appendix D.

```
1 DN=8:GOTO 92ø0:REM EDITOR77 BY HARRY BRATT 10/26
    /84' :rem 250
5 JV=PEEK(56320):JB=1-(JV AND 16)/16:JV=JV AND 15:
    RETURN :rem 180
8 POKE CY,3:PRINT:POKE CX,18-8*AC:PRINTAC$(AC+1):R
    ETURN :rem 143
10 PRINTCHR$(19)CHRS(146)Cl$;:POKE CX,25:PRINT"MEM
    : "FMCHR$(157)"{6 SPACES}":RETURN :rem 5
12 POKE 54283,129:POKE 54283,32:RETURN :rem 122
19 V\emptyset=NT:V1=AC:V2=OC:V3=LN:V4=RS+2*SP:V5=TY:V6=1
                                    :rem 47
2Ø H=PEEK(MM+CN):IFHAND3 THEN SP=1:RS=\emptyset:TY=\varnothing:RETUR
    N :rem 196
22 SP=0:LN=7-(HAND31)/4-.5*((HAND32)=32):TY=- ((HAN
    D64)=64) :rem 185
24 H=PEEK(MM+CN+1):IF H=\varnothing THEN RS=1:GOTO 28
                                    :rem 176
26 RS=\emptyset:NT=(HAND7) -1 :OC=7-(HAND56)/8:AC=(HAND192)/
    64-2
    :rem 58
28 RETURN :rem 74
```

$3 \emptyset$ POKE CY,21:PRINTCØ\$:POKE CX,X*5:H=PEEK(MM+CN):I
F H AND 3 GOTO 36 ..... :rem 70
31 IF RS THEN PRINT"(R)"Y\$;:GOTO 33 ..... :rem 204
32 PRINTCØ\$NT\$CHRS(ASC(AC\$)+162*(ASC(AC\$)=194))OC\$
Y\$; ..... :rem 201
33 PRINTLN\$LM\$TY\$(TY); ..... :rem $12 \varnothing$
34 IF V6 THEN NT=VØ:AC=V1:OC=V2:LN=V3:RS=V4AND1:SP= (V4AND2) /2:TY=V5:V6=ø:rem 17Ø
35 RETURN ..... :rem 72
36 POKE 251, PEEK (MM+CN+1-(HAND2)/2): POKE 252,-((PEEK (MM+CN)AND3)<>1):SYS 1232 :rem 4337 PRINTS $(\operatorname{PEEK}(252)+1)$ Y\$CHR\$ (157) ; : QI=ASC (MIDS (S, $\operatorname{PEEK}(252)+1))-65 \quad$ :rem 255
38 IF ABS $(\mathrm{V}(\mathrm{QI}))<9 \varnothing$ THEN QJ=PEEK(251):GOSUB8Ø:GOTO34:rem 24
39 QJ=PEEK (MM+CN+1)+256*PEEK(251):GOSUB 80:GOTO 34:rem 104
$4 \emptyset$ POKE 1216+SC,PK:SC=3:POKE 1219,1:PK=14:GOTO 51Ø: rem 56
45 GOSUB 5:IF JB=ø THEN RETURN ..... :rem 239
47 GOSUB 5:IF JB THEN 47 ..... :rem 15
48 JB=1:RETURN ..... : rem 128
$5 \emptyset$ FOR K=ø TO 6:AC\% (AK\% (ABS (K+6* (KY < $\varnothing))$ )) $=(K<A B S(K$
Y) ) *SGN (KY) : NEXT: RETURN ..... : rem 235
60 LN $\$=\operatorname{CHR} \$(196+$ LN $): L M \$=\operatorname{CHR} \$(46+14 *(L N=I N T(L N))): R$ETURN:rem 218
65 NT\$=CHR\$(67+NT+7*(NT>4)):AC\$=CHR\$(194+AC):OC\$=RIGHT\$ (STRS (OC), 1): RETURN:rem 64
$70 \mathrm{~K}=\mathrm{J}-\operatorname{INT}(\mathrm{J} / 256) * 256: \mathrm{J}=(\mathrm{J}-\mathrm{K}) / 256:$ RETURN ..... :rem 57
80 IF QI<>2 GOTO 84 ..... :rem 226
82 IF QJAND1 THEN PRINT-(11-INT(QJ/16)+12*(QJ/2AND7));:RETURN:rem 50
83 QJ=INT(QJ/16)+12*(7-(QJ/2AND7)):GOTO 87 : rem 86
84 IFQI=9 THEN QJ=(QJAND3584)/2+(QJAND255)+((QJAND
256 ) $=256$ ) * $2 ø 48$ :GOTO 87 ..... :rem 24
85 IF QI>1Ø THEN ON QI-1Ø GOTO $88,88,9 \emptyset, 9 \emptyset, 91,92$
: rem 197
$86 \mathrm{IF} \mathrm{V}(Q \mathrm{I})<\emptyset$ THEN $Q J=Q J+256 *(Q J>127)$ ..... :rem 2
87 PRINT MIDS(STR\$(QJ),2+(QJ<ø));:RETURN ..... :rem 138
88 IF QJ=ø THEN PRINT"N";:RETURN :rem 170
89 PRINTFW\$ (QJ-1,QI-11);:RETURN ..... :rem 179
90 PRINTNU\$ (QJ,QI-13); ..... :rem 59
91 RETURN ..... : rem 74
92 QJ=QJ-256*(QJ=ø):QJ=INT(144ø0/QJ):GOTO 87:rem 30
$2 \varnothing \varnothing$ REM INPUT SBR ..... :rem 237
210  ..... :rem 146
215 GET B\$:IF B\$="" GOTO 215 ..... :rem 95
$22 \varnothing \mathrm{~B}=\mathrm{ASC}(\mathrm{B} \$): I F \mathrm{~B}=13$ OR $\mathrm{B}=141$ THEN PRINT" "; :RETURN
$23 \emptyset$ IF B<>2Ø OR LH=Ø GOTO $24 \emptyset$ :rem 179
232 LH=LH-1:A\$=LEFT\$ (AS,LH-(LH=Ø)) :rem 122
235 PRINTCHR (157)"\{2 SPACES\}"CHR\$ (157)CHR\$ (157)CHRS(164)CHRS(157);:IF LH=Ø THEN A\$="" :rem 46
237 GOTO 215:rem 109
240 IF LH=MX-(ASC(AS+" ")=45) GOTO 215 :rem 140
245 IF B=45 AND (FA AND 1) AND LH=ø GOTO $27 \varnothing$
:rem 103
$25 \emptyset$ IF $\mathrm{B}>47$ AND $\mathrm{B}<58$ GOTO $27 \varnothing$ ..... :rem 161
260 IF B<32 OR B>9ø OR (FA AND 2)=ø GOTO 215
: rem 8Ø
$27 \varnothing \mathrm{~A}=\mathrm{A}=\mathrm{B}+\mathrm{B}: \mathrm{LH}=\mathrm{LH}+1:$ PRINTBS;:POKE 212, $0:$ PRINTCHRS(164)CHR\$ (157);:GOTO 215:rem 215
$50 \emptyset$ REM ** MAIN JOYSTICK PART ** :rem 237
$5 \varnothing 1$ IF NN $<\varnothing$ THEN NT= $: O C=4: L N=3: R S=\varnothing: S P=\varnothing: G O T O 507$: rem 145
$5 \emptyset 2$ IF GK=ø GOTO $5 \emptyset 7$ ..... :rem 250
503 TN=CN:FOR X=(TN/2-3)*(TN<5) TO 7-(4-(NN-TN)/2)*- ( (NN-TN) < 7 ):rem 173
$504 \mathrm{CN}=\mathrm{TN}-6+2 * \mathrm{X}: \mathrm{GOSUB} 19: G O S U B 60: G O S U B 65: G O S U B 30: \mathrm{NE}$$\mathrm{XT}: \mathrm{CN}=\mathrm{TN}+2$ * (TN>NN): rem 72
505 GOSUB2Ø:CN=TN ..... :rem 38
507 GOSUB 555:GOSUB 545 ..... :rem 19
$509 \mathrm{LQ}=\varnothing$ ..... :rem 168
51ø GOSUB5:GET K\$:IF K\$="" THEN K\$=" ":IF JV=15 AND JB=ø GOTO $51 \varnothing \quad$ :rem 83
511 IF JB OR ASC(K\$)=13 GOTO 6øØ ..... :rem 90
512 IF JV<>15 THEN POKE 198, Ø:GOTO 53ø :rem 14
513 ON ABS(ASC(K\$)-132) GOTO 8øøø,7øøø,41øø,4øøø,4Ø50,406ø:rem 119
EN AC=K-3:GOTO 554:rem 101
515 IF K\$>"@" AND K\$<"H" THEN NT=ASC(K\$)-67:NT=NT-$7 *(N T<\varnothing): R S=\varnothing: S P=\varnothing:$ GOTO 553:rem 242
516 IF K\$>"/" AND K\$<"8" THEN OC=VAL(K\$):RS=ø:SP=Ø:GOTO 553:rem 140
517 IF K\$>"G" AND K\$<"X" THEN K=KL\%(ASC(K\$)-72):IFK>-1 THEN LN=K:GOTO 542 :rem 126
518 IF' K\$="8" THEN LN=2:GOTO 542 ..... : rem 155
519 IF K\$="." AND LN>ø AND LN<6 THEN LN=INT(LN)+.5* (1-(LN*2) ANDI):GOTO 542 :rem 162
520 IF (ASC(K\$) AND 127)=2ø GOTO 9øØ ..... :rem 236
521 IF K\$="R" THEN RS=1-RS:TY=Ø:GOSUB555:GOTO 51ø: rem 51
522 IF K\$="/" THEN TY=1-TY:RS=ø:GOSUB555:GOTO 51Ø: rem 25
523 IF ASC(K\$)=17 OR ASC(K\$)=29 THEN JV=28-ASC(K\$):GOSUB650:JV=15: rem 81
524 IF K\$="M" THEN LQ=1:GOTO 740 ..... :rem 175
525 IF ASC(K\$)=221 OR ASC(K\$)=219 THEN K=220-ASC(K \$):LQ=1:GOTO 725
526 IF ASC (K\$)=147 GOTO 98ø :rem 118
529 GOTO 510 :rem lll
530 IF JV>12 THEN RS=Ø:GOTO 55ø :rem 182
$535 \mathrm{~K}=.5$ * ( (JV>8) - (JV<8) ) : LN=LN+K:IF LN=.5 OR LN=6. 5 THEN LN=LN+K
540 LN=LN+7.5* (LN>7)-7.5* (LNくØ) :rem 161
542 GOSUB12:IF SP GOTO 554 :rem 193
543 GOSUB 545:GOTO 51ø :rem 195
545 POKE CY,17:PRINT:POKE CX,21:IF SP THEN PRINTCØ \$"--"SPC(2)"-------":RETURN :rem 182
547 POKE CY,17:PRINT:POKE CX,21:GOSUB 6Ø:PRINT Cø\$ LN\$LMSSPC(2)LN\$ (LN):RETURN :rem 126
$550 \mathrm{NT}=\mathrm{NT}+(\mathrm{JV}=13)-(\mathrm{JV}=14) \quad$ :rem 152
552 IF NT<ø OR NT>6 THEN OC=OC-(JV=14)+(JV=13):NT= 3*(1-SGN(NT)) :rem 253
553 AC=AC\% (NT):IF SP=Ø THEN GOSUB 555:GOTO 51Ø :rem 42
554 SP=ø:GOSUB555:GOSUB545:GOTO 510 :rem 104
$555 \mathrm{Fl}=\emptyset:$ POKE CY,9:PRINTCØ\$:POKE CX,16:IF RS THEN \{SPACE\}PRINT"(R)":GOTO 567 :rem 8
556 IF SP THEN PRINT"---":GOTO 567 :rem 11ø
557 IF OC>7 OR (OC=7 AND NT=6 AND AC=-1) THEN OC=7 :NT=6:AC=Ø :rem 184
558 IF OC<ø OR (OC=ø AND NT=Ø AND AC=1) THEN OC=Ø: $\mathrm{NT}=\varnothing: A C=\emptyset \quad$ :rem 105
559 POKE 78ø, (1-RS)*(NT+1+8*(7-OC)+64*(AC+2)):SYS \{SPACE\}1396 :rem 59
560 POKE CY,9:POKE 54276,64:GOSUB 65:PRINT:rem 19ø
565 POKE CX,16:PRINTCø\$NT\$" "AC\$:POKE CY,14:PRINT: POKE CX, 17
:rem 2
567 POKE CY,14:PRINT: POKE CX,17:IF RS OR SP THEN P RINT"-":GOTO 576
:rem 81
568 PRINTOC\$
: rem 230
576 POKE CY, 19:PRINT:POKE CX,9:PRINTC3\$CHR\$(146-12 8*RS) "REST"CHR\$ (146); :rem 194
577 PRINT" <--SELECT--> "CHRS(146-128*TY)"TIE":IF \{SPACE\}F1 THEN RETURN $\quad$ :rem 99
579 IF AL=AC AND RS=ø AND SP=ø THEN 582 :rem 24
$58 \emptyset$ PRINTC $3 \$: H=A C: A C=A L: G O S U B$ 8:AC=H:IF RS OR SP T HEN AL=2: RETURN
:rem 187
582 AL=AC:PRINTCI\$:GOSUB 8:RETURN :rem 88
$6 \varnothing \emptyset$ REM ** BUTTON PRESSED ** :rem 2ø
$605 \mathrm{FG}=\varnothing \quad$ : rem 149
$61 \varnothing$ GOSUB 5:IF JB=ø THEN 68ø :rem 219
620 IF JV=15 THEN $61 \varnothing \quad$ :rem 48
625 FG=1:IF JV<13 GOTO 61ø :rem 113
632 POKE 1216+SC, PK :rem 28
$635 \mathrm{~K}=(\mathrm{JV}=13)-(\mathrm{JV}=14): S C=S C+K: S C=S C-K *(S C=5): S C=S C$ +6*((SC>6)-(SC<1)): :rem 138


```
775 AC=AC+K:AC=AC+3*(SGN(K))*(ABS (AC)=2):IF SP=\varnothing THEN GOSUB 555:GOTO 760
780 SP=\varnothing:GOSUB 555:GOSUB 545:GOTO 760 :rem 112
8\emptyset\emptyset REM ** REST <--> TIE ** :rem 24
810 GOSUB 45:IF JB GOTO 40 :rem 116
815 IF JV<>11 GOTO 825 :rem 129
82\emptyset RS=1-RS:TY=\varnothing:GOTO 84\varnothing :rem 226
8 2 5 ~ I F ~ J V < > 7 ~ G O T O ~ 8 1 0 ~ : r e m ~ 8 1 ~
830 TY=1-TY:RS=\emptyset:GOTO 840 :rem 235
840 IF SP=\varnothing THEN GOSUB 555:GOTO 40 :rem 96
845 SP=\varnothing:GOSUB555:GOSUB545:GOTO 40 :rem 57
9øø REM ** INS/DEL ** :rem 19
91\varnothing K=- (ASC (K$)=2\emptyset) :rem 214
92\emptyset IF CN>NN OR (FM=\emptyset AND K=\emptyset) THEN ON SQ+1 GOTO 9
    70.7375 :rem 185
923 GOSUB12:IN=IN-K*2+1:IN=IN-(IN<\emptyset) :rem 124
925 IF K=\varnothing THEN POKE CY,21:PRINT:POKE CX, 35:PRINTZ
    $(|); :rem 2ø8
927 POKE CY,21:PRINT:POKE CX,15:PRINTZ $(1-K);
    :rem 211
930 IF K GOTO 939
    :rem }8
932 FOR I=\emptyset TO 2 STEP 2:J=MM+CN+I:GOSUB 7\emptyset:POKE 25
    I+I,K:POKE 252+I,J:NEXT I :rem 196
936 J=NN-CN+2:GOSUB 70:POKE 781,K:POKE 782,J:SYS 1
    ø24:NN=NN+2 :rem 13
938 FM=FM-1:ON SQ+1 GOTO 97Ø.7375 :rem 23
939 IF CN=NN GOTO 950 :rem 117
940 FOR I=\emptyset TO 2 STEP 2:J=MM+CN+2-I:GOSUB 70:POKE
    {SPACE}251+I,K:POKE 252+I,J:NEXT I :rem 34
942 J=NN-CN:GOSUB 70:POKE 781,K:POKE 782,J:SYS 1ø2
    4 :rem 161
950 NN=NN-2;FM=FM+1:IF NN-CN<8 OR IN>4 THEN ON SQ+
    1 GOTO 970,7375 :rem 83
960 TN=CN:CN=CN+8:X=7:GOSUB19:GOSUB60:GOSUB65:GOSU
    B3ø:CN=TN:ONSQ+1GOTO 97ø,7375 :rem 243
970 GOSUBl\varnothing:GOTO 51\varnothing :rem 138
980 PRINTCHR$(19)SPC(25)Cl$"CLEAR TO END?":rem 132
982 GET K$:IF K$="" GOTO 982 :rem 135
985 IF K$<>"Y" GOTO 995 :rem 155
990 FOR K=1 TO 5:POKE CY,21:PRINT:POKE CX,15:PRINT
    Z$(\varnothing);:NEXT
    :rem 133
992 FM=FM+(NN-CN+2)/2:NN=CN-2:IN=\varnothing :rem 22\emptyset
995 GOSUBI\varnothing:GOTO 510 :rem 145
4øø\emptyset REM ** ENTER MEASURE ** :rem 224
4ø1\emptyset IF MI THEN GOSUB 5\emptyset :rem 23\emptyset
4015 MZ=MZ+1+1|\varnothing\emptyset*(MZ>999):J=MZ:GOSUB7\varnothing :rem 49
4ø2\emptyset POKE MM+CN,J*64+30:POKE MM+CN+1,K:B=1:GOTO 73
        \emptyset\varnothing
    :rem 156
4050 K=\emptyset:GOTO 4065 :rem 195
4060 K=NN+2 :rem 75
```


7207 GOSUB5:GETK\$:K=ASC (K\$+" "):IF K<>17 AND K<>29 GOTO 7209 : rem 218
$72 \varnothing 8 \mathrm{JV}=-7$ * (K=29) -11* (K=17):SQ=1:GOSUB650:SO=0:POKE CY, 3:PRINTC6\$: GOTO 7207: rem 113
7209 IF (KAND127)=20 THEN SQ=1.1:GOTO 9øØ : rem 181
$7211 J V=-J V *(J V<15)-(J V=15) *(15+(K=73)+2 *(K=77)+4 *$
(K=74)+8* (K=75) ) : rem 175
7212 IF JV<l5 THEN GOSUB12:GOTO 7216 ..... : rem 242
7213 IF (JB OR K\$=CHR\$(13)) AND NOT (FM=Ø AND CN>NN) GOTO $725 \emptyset$: rem 150
7214 IF K\$<>CHR\$ (133) GOTO 7207 ..... : rem 56
7215 POKE 53255, Ø:GK=Ø:GOTO 9ØØØ ..... : rem 211
$7216 \mathrm{UX}=\mathrm{UX}+(\mathrm{JV}=11)-(\mathrm{JV}=7): U X=\mathrm{UX}+\mathrm{N}(\mathrm{UY}+1) *(\mathrm{UX}=\mathrm{N}(\mathrm{UY}+1$)) -6 * (UX< ):rem 94
7217 UY=UY+(JV=14)-(JV=13):UY=UY+11*(UY=11)-11* (UY< $\varnothing$ ):rem 51
7218 IF UY>9 THEN POKE 53255, $:$ POKE 53288,13:GOTO \{SPACE 7350 : rem 137
7219 IF $N(U Y+1)<=U X$ THEN UX=N (UY+1)-1 ..... :rem 81
7220 GOTO 72ØØ ..... :rem 205
7250 K=ASC (MID\$ (S\$,NN(UY)+UX+1))-65:POKE CY,1:PRIN T:POKE CX, $21:$ PRINTCHR\$ (18) ; ..... :rem 80
7255 IF K>1Ø THEN PRINTV\$(K-ll):GOTO 7265 : rem ..... 244
$726 \emptyset$ PRINT"(";-(V(K)<Ø)*(V(K))"TO"ABS (V(K))")"
: rem 185
7265 POKE CY, 5:PRINT: POKE CX, 21 ..... : rem 90
7267 MX=LEN (STR\$ (ABS (V(K))))-1:FA=-(V(K)<ø)
:rem 167
7270 PRINTCHR\$ (18)"ENTER:"; $\operatorname{GOSUB} 200: I F A S="$ " GOT07001: rem 75
$7280 \mathrm{~J}=\mathrm{VAL}(\mathrm{A} \$): \operatorname{IF} \mathrm{ABS}(\mathrm{J})>\mathrm{ABS}(\mathrm{V}(\mathrm{K}))$ OR (K=16 AND J<56) GOTO 7ØØ1: rem 4ø
7282 IF K=16 THEN J=INT (18ØØ/J+.5)*8:J=-J* (J<256)
: rem 75
7283 IFK=9THENPOKEMM+CN+1,JAND255:POKE MM+CN, (JAND1792 ) /8+1Ø-16* ( $\mathrm{J}<\emptyset$ ) : GOTO $73 \varnothing \varnothing$: rem 58
7284 IF K<>2 THEN J=J-256* (JくØ):GOTO 7289 : rem 163
7286 H=16* (-11* (J<Ø) +12* (J/12-SGN (J)*INT (ABS (J)/12)): rem 252
$7287 \mathrm{~J}=\operatorname{INT}(\mathrm{H}+2 *(-7 *(\mathrm{~J}>=\varnothing)-\operatorname{SGN}(\mathrm{J}) * \operatorname{INT}(\mathrm{ABS}(\mathrm{J}) / 12))-($$J<\emptyset)+.5) \quad$ :rem 106
7289 IF K=6 THEN MZ=J ..... : rem 132
$729 \emptyset$ IF ABS (V(K)) $>9 \emptyset$ GOTO 7295 ..... : rem 49
7292 POKE MM+CN,1:POKE MM+CN+1, PEEK (1278+NN (UY) +UX$)+M(K) * J: G O T O$ 73ØØ $\quad$ :rem 168
$7295 \mathrm{Jl=K:IF} \mathrm{~J}<\emptyset$ THEN J=-J* (V (C) J 1) +1 ..... : rem 163
7297 GOSUB 70:POKE MM+CN, PEEK (1278+NN(UY) +UX) +M (J1)*J: POKE MM+CN+1,K: rem 219
$730 \emptyset$ IF NN<CN THEN NN=NN+2:FM=FM-1:IF B=1 ..... THEN GOSUB10: rem 71
$73 \varnothing 3$ IN=IN+ (IN>Ø) :rem 185
7305 POKE CY, 22:PRINT:POKE CX,16:PRINT"\{4 SPACES $\}^{\prime \prime}$
;:REM 4 SPACES :rem 223
$731 \varnothing$ X=3:GOSUB3Ø:POKE CY, 21:PRINT:PRINTZ\$ ( 0$) ;: C N=C$
$\mathrm{N}+2 \quad: r e m 2$
7315 IF NN-CN<8 OR IN>4 GOTO 7320 :rem 220
$7316 \mathrm{TN}=\mathrm{CN}: \mathrm{CN}=\mathrm{CN}+8: \mathrm{X}=7: \mathrm{GOSUB19}: \mathrm{GOSUB6} \mathrm{\varnothing}: \mathrm{GOSUB65}: \mathrm{GOS}$
UB30:CN=TN
: rem 115
7320 ON 1-( $\mathrm{B}=13$ )-2* ( $\mathrm{B}=1$ ) GOTO 7001,7215,510:rem 67
7350 POKE CX, $21:$ PRINT" 17 SPACES $\}$ ": REM 17 SPACES
:rem 179
7355 GOSUB5:GETK\$:K=Ø:IF K\$ <>"" THEN K=ASC(K\$):K=K
$-57 *(\mathrm{~K}=17)-46 *(\mathrm{~K}=29) \quad$ : rem 94
$7356 \mathrm{JV}=-J V *(\mathrm{JV}<15)-(\mathrm{JV}=15) *(15+(\mathrm{K}=73)+2 *(\mathrm{~K}=77)+4$ *
$(K=74)+8 *(K=75)) \quad: r e m 185$
7357 IF JV=7 OR JV=11 THEN SQ=1:GOSUB650:SQ=Ø:POKE
CY, $3:$ PRINTC6\$:GOTO 7355
: rem 73
7358 IF JV=13 OR JV=14 THEN FOR K=1 TO 1ØØ*-(K\$=""
):NEXT:GOSUB12:GOTO 7217 :rem 255
7360 IF K\$<>"" THEN IF (ASC(K\$)AND127)=20 THEN SQ=
1:GOTO 9ØØ :rem 139
7365 IF K\$=CHR\$ (133) GOTO 7215 : rem 1
737 GOTO $7355 \quad$ :rem 222
7375 K=SQ:SQ=Ø:POKE CY, 3:PRINTC6\$:ON 1-(K>1) GOTO
\{SPACE\} 7355,7207
: rem 94
$750 \emptyset \mathrm{NV}(\mathrm{VC})=\mathrm{NN}: \mathrm{CN}(\mathrm{VC})=\mathrm{CN} \quad$ :rem 182
$751 \varnothing$ IF VC=3OR (VC=2 AND NV (3) $=-2$ ) OR (VC=1 AND NV (2)
$=-2$ AND $\mathrm{NV}(3)=-2)$ GOTO $7530 \quad$ :rem 36
$752 \emptyset J=K 5-N V(3)-4+(V C=1) *(N V(2)+4): G O S U B 70:$ POKE 2
51,K:POKE 252,J :rem 32
$7525 \mathrm{~J}=\mathrm{MM}(1)+\mathrm{NV}(1)+4-(\mathrm{VC}=2) *(\mathrm{NV}(2)+4):$ GOSUB $7 \varnothing:$ POK
E 253,K: POKE 254,J :rem 194
$7527 \mathrm{~J}=\mathrm{NV}(3)+4-(\mathrm{VC}=1) *(\mathrm{NV}(2)+4):$ GOSUB 70: POKE 781,
K: POKE 782,J:SYS 1024
:rem 138
$753 \varnothing \mathrm{MM}(2)=\mathrm{MM}(1)+\mathrm{NV}(1)+4: M M(3)=M M(2)+N V(2)+4$
: rem 88
7535 GOSUB8690 :rem 43
79ØØ POKE 241, PEEK (241)OR128:POKE 53251, ø:POKE 532
81,10
:rem 201
7905 POKE 1140, 255:POKE 1145,240:POKE 1160,K8:POKE
1165,K9:SYS 1138 :rem 84
7910 POKE 53280,10:POKE 53281,1:POKE 53249, 0:POKE
\{SPACE\} $53253, \varnothing$ : RETURN
: rem 5
80ØØ IF IN GOTO 510 :rem 189
8001 GOSUB $750 \emptyset \quad$ :rem 21
8ØØ5 POKE 78Ø,9:SYS 1596:POKE 53269, Ø:GOTO 8225
: rem 32
$8010 \mathrm{P} \$=\operatorname{CHR} \$(18)+"\{39$ SPACES $\} ":$ REM 39 SPACES

8015 P1 $=$ CHR (162):FOR K=1 TO 4:Pl\$=P1\$+P1\$:NEXT:P $1 \$=\mathrm{Pl} \$+\mathrm{LEFT}(\mathrm{Pl} \$, 6) \quad$ : rem 233
$8 \emptyset 2 \emptyset \mathrm{P} 2 \mathrm{~S}=\operatorname{CHR} \$(192): \mathrm{P} 2 \$=\mathrm{P} 2 \$+\mathrm{P} 2 \$+\mathrm{P} 2 \mathrm{~S}: \mathrm{P} 2 \$=\mathrm{P} 2 \$+\mathrm{P} 2 \$+\mathrm{P} 2 \$$ +P 2 \$
: rem 54
81øØ PRINTCHRS(147); :rem 127
8110 FOR K=1 TO 6:PRINTCHR (150)P\$:NEXT :rem 223
8120 PRINTCHR (18)" "C7\$LEFT\$(P\$,39) :rem 161
8130 FOR K=1TO13:PRINTCHR\$(18)CHR\$(150)" "C7\$" "CB \$" "SPC(34)" "C7\$" ":NEXT :rem 45
8140 PRINTCHRS(150)CHR\$(18)" "C7\$LEFT\$(P\$,39);
:rem 198
8141 FOR K=ø TO $96 \emptyset$ STEP 4ø:POKE 55335+K,1ø:POKE 5 1239+K,160:NEXT
: rem 223
8142 POKE CY, 19:PRINT :rem 247
8145 FOR K=1 TO 4:PRINT:PRINTCHR (150)LEFT\$ (P\$,4)C 2 SLEFT $\$(P \$, 35)$ CHR $\$(15 \emptyset) "\{2$ SPACES\}"; :rem 219
8146 NEXT : rem 18
$815 \emptyset$ PRINTCHR (19)C6\$SPC(13):PRINTCHR\$ (18)K1\$P2\$K2 $\$ \quad:$ rem 184
8152 PRINTSPC(13):PRINTCHRS (18)CHR\$(221)" SID PLAY ER "CHR\$(221) :rem 57
8154 PRINTSPC(13):PRINTCHR (18)K3\$P2\$K4\$ :rem $1 \varnothing 3$
8162 POKE CY,6:PRINT:POKE CX,3 :rem 4ø
8165 PRINTCBSLEFT\$ (P\$,7)Pl\$LEFT\$ (P\$,7) :rem 157
8170 FOR K=1 TO 11:PRINTSPC(3)LEFT\$(P\$,7)CHR\$(146) $\operatorname{MID}(P \$, 2,22) \operatorname{LEFT} \$(P \$, 7): \operatorname{NEXT} \quad: r e m 171$
8175 PRINTSPC(3)LEFT (PS,7)CHR\$ (146)P1\$LEFT\$(P\$,7) :rem 76
818Ø POKE CY,7:PRINTC6\$ :rem 99
8190 FOR K=ø TO 5:PRINTSPC(10)K+1;CHR\$(157)") "M\$( K):PRINT:NEXT:RETURN :rem 77

8225 GET K\$:IF K\$<"l" OR K\$>"6" GOTO 8225 :rem 219
823ø J=ASC(K\$)-48:POKE CY,5+J*2:PRINT:PRINTSPC(14) CHR\$(18) C2\$M\$(J-1) :rem 163
$826 \emptyset$ ON J GOTO 89øø,85øø,845ø,84øø,83øø,5øøø
: rem 151
83øø REM ** DIRECTORY ** :rem 12
8310 IF DN=1 GOTO 8øø5 :rem 97
8312 POKE 78ø,1:POKE 781,8:POKE 782,0:SYS 65466:PO KE 581,36
: rem 172
8314 POKE 78ø,1:POKE 781,69:POKE 782,2:SYS 65469:S YS 65472
: rem 143
8316 POKE 581,46:POKE 582,77:POKE 583,85:POKE 584, 83 :rem 26
8318 PS=CHRS(18)+"\{39 SPACES\}":REM 39 SPACES
: rem 248
832ø POKE CY, 3:PRINT:POKE CX,15:PRINTCHR (18)Cø\$"D IRECTORY:"
:rem 16ø
833ø POKE CY, 6:PRINT:PRINTSPC(3)CB\$CHR\$ (18)LEFT\$ (P 1\$,16)CHR\$(187)CHR\$(172);
: rem 72
8335 PRINTLEFT\$(P1\$,16) ..... : rem 56
$834 \varnothing$ FOR K=1 TO 11:PRINTSPC(3)MID\$(P\$,2,16)CHR\$(18) CHRS ( 161 ) CHR\$ (146) CHRS (161);:rem 16
8345 PRINTMID\$(PS,2,16):NEXT ..... : rem 142
835 PRINTSPC ( 3 ) LEFT\$ (P1\$,16) CHR\$ (18) CHR\$ (19б)CHR\$( 188 ) CHR ( 146 )LEFT\$ (P1\$,16):rem 254
$8355 \mathrm{~J}=\varnothing$ :K=ø:POKE CY,7:PRINTCØ\$ ..... :rem 68
8360 POKE CX,18*K+3:SYS 1710:H=PEEK(251)+256*PEEK (252):IF ST<>め GOTO 8376: rem 254
8365 POKE CX,18*K+15:PRINTLEFT ("\{2 SPACES\}", - (H<1øø)-( $\mathrm{H}<1 \varnothing)$ ); H:rem 139
$8373 \mathrm{~J}=\mathrm{J}+1: \mathrm{IF} \mathrm{J}>1 \varnothing$ THEN J=Ø:POKE CY,7:PRINT:K=1-K:IF K=Ø THEN K=-1:GOTO 838Ø :rem 16
8374 GOTO 8360 ..... : rem 224
8376 CLOSE l:SYS 65484 ..... : rem 195
8380 POKE 198, $0:$ POKE CY, 3:PRINT:PRINTSPC(7)CHR\$ (18)CøS"PRESS ANY KEY ";: rem 143
8382 IF K<ø THEN PRINT"TO CONTINUE": $G O T O 8385$: rem 169
8383 PRINT"FOR MAIN MENU";:POKE CY,19:PRINT
:rem 133
8384 PRINTTAB(12)LEFTS ("\{BLU\}\{RVS\}\{2 SPACES\}",2-(H<1øø)-(H<1ø))H"\{LEFT\} BLOCKS FREE\{2 SPACES\}"
: rem ..... 97
8385 WAIT 198,15 :rem 65
8387 POKE CX,7:PRINTCHR\$ (15ø)LEFTS (P\$,3ø : rem 89
$839 \varnothing$ IF K>=ø GOTO 8øø5 ..... : rem 95
8395 K=Ø:GOTO 833Ø ..... :rem 210
84Øø REM ** SAVE :rem 135
: rem 194
8404 FOR I=6 TO 2 STEP -2:J=NV(4-I/2)+4:GOSUB 7ø:POKE MM(1)-I,K:rem 150
8406 POKE MM(1)-I+1,J:NEXT :rem 222
84ø8 POKE CY, 3:PRINT:PRINTTAB(1ø)CHR\$(18)Cø\$" CHANGE TEXT LINES? ": rem 80
8410 WAIT 198,15:GET AS:ON 1-(AS="N")-2*(AS="Y") GOTO 841ø,8428,8414: rem 141
8414 POKE 780,9:SYS 1596:GOSUB 8490 ..... :rem 161
8418 MX=32:FA=2:FOR K=ø TO 3:POKE CY,2ø+K:PRINT:POKE CX, 4:PRINTCHR\$ (18)C2\$; :rem 133
$842 \varnothing$ GOSUB2øø:TXS (K)=AS:NEXT ..... :rem 161
8424 POKE 780,3:SYS 1596 ..... : rem 13
8428 POKE CY, 3:PRINT:POKE CX,6:PRINTI\$;:POKE CX,17:MX=12:FA=2:GOSUB 2ø $\varnothing$: rem 47
8429 IF AS="" GOTO 8øø5 : rem 82
8430 POKE 780,1:POKE 781,DN:POKE 782,ø:SYS ..... 65466:A \$=AS+".MUS" : rem 62
8432 POKE 78ø, LH+4:FOR K=ø TO LH+3:POKE TP+K,ASC(MID (AS,K+1)): NEXT: rem 3

8434 J=TP:GOSUB70:POKE 781,K:POKE 782,J:SYS 65469 :rem 102

$8436 \mathrm{~J}=\mathrm{MM}(1)+\mathrm{NV}(1)+\mathrm{NV}(2)+\mathrm{NV}(3)+12:$ POKE CY, $2:$ rem 95 8438 FOR $K=\varnothing$ TO 3:IF TX\$(K)="" GOTO 844ø :rem 11 8439 FOR I=1 TO LEN(TX\$(K)): POKE J, ASC(MID\$(TX\$(K) , I) ): $J=J+1:$ NEXT $\quad$ rem $2 \varnothing 4$
844ø POKE J,13:J=J+l:NEXT:POKE J, $\varnothing: J=J+1: G O S U B 7 \varnothing:$ POKE 781,K:POKE 782,J :rem 80
8446 GOSUB 8495:SYS 65496:POKE 648,2øø:PRINT:IF PE EK(783)ANDI THEN GOSUB86øø :rem 105
8448 GOTO $8 \varnothing \varnothing 5$ :rem 222
845ø REM ** LOAD ** :rem 125
8452 POKE CY, $3:$ PRINT:POKE CX,6:PRINTIS;:POKE CX, 17 :FA=2:MX=12:GOSUB $2 \varnothing \varnothing$ :rem 44
8456 IF AS="" GOTO $8 \varnothing 05$ :rem 82
8460 AS=A\$+".MUS":POKE 780,1:POKE 781,DN:POKE 782, Ø:SYS 65466 :rem 65
8462 POKE 78ø,LH+4:FOR K=ø TO LH+3: POKE TP+K,ASC(M IDS(AS,K+1)):NEXT :rem 6
8464 J=TP:GOSUB7ø:POKE 781,K:POKE 782,J:SYS 65469: POKE CY,1
:rem 203
8466 POKE 78ø, $0: J=M M(1)-6: G O S U B 7 \varnothing:$ POKE 781,K:POKE \{SPACE\}782,J:GOSUB 8495:SYS 65493 :rem 59
8468 POKE 648,2øø:PRINT:IF PEEK (783)ANDI THEN GOSU B86øø:GOTO 8560
:rem 216
$847 \varnothing$ FOR J=6 TO 2 STEP-2 $\operatorname{sNV}(4-J / 2)=\operatorname{PEEK}(M M(1)-J)+2$ 56*PEEK (MM(1)-J+1)-4: NEXT :rem 153
$8474 \operatorname{MM}(2)=\operatorname{MM}(1)+N V(1)+4: \operatorname{MM}(3)=\operatorname{MM}(2)+N V(2)+4: C N(1)$ $=\varnothing: \mathrm{CN}(2)=\varnothing: \mathrm{CN}(3)=\varnothing \quad$ :rem 145
8476 FOR K=ø TO $3: T X \$(K)=" ": N E X T: K=\varnothing: J=M M(3)+N V(3)$ +4 :rem 113
8478 IF $\operatorname{PEEK}(J)=\emptyset$ GOTO $8483 \quad$ :rem 167
$848 \varnothing$ IF $\operatorname{PEEK}(J)=13$ THEN $\mathrm{J}=\mathrm{J}+1: \mathrm{K}=\mathrm{K}+1:$ GOTO 8478
:rem 215
8482 TX\$(K)=TX\$(K)+CHR\$(PEEK(J)):J=J+1:GOTO 8478
: rem 221
8483 POKE 780,9:SYS 1596 : rem 24
8484 GOSUB8490:POKE CY, 20:FOR K=ø TO 3:PRINTC2\$:PO KE CX,4:PRINTCHRS(18)TX\$(K); :rem 92
8485 NEXT:POKE 780, 3:SYS 1596 :rem 141
$8486 \mathrm{FM}=\operatorname{INT}((\mathrm{K} 5-\mathrm{MM}(3)-\mathrm{NV}(3)-2) / 2)-1: I F \quad \mathrm{FM}>=\varnothing$ GOTO \{SPACE \}8øø5
:rem 130
8487 POKE CY, 3:PRINTCø\$:POKE CX,1ø:PRINTCHR\$(18)"I NSUFFICIENT\{2 SPACES\}MEMORY"
:rem 26
8488 WAIT 198,255:GET K\$:GOTO 8560 :rem 74
8490 POKE CY, 20:FOR K=ø TO 3:PRINTC2\$:POKE CX,4:PR INT CHRS(18)RIGHT\$(I\$,16);
:rem 81
8492 PRINT RIGHT\$(I\$,16);:NEXT:RETURN :rem 37
8495 POKE 648,188:PRINT "E3习":RETURN :rem 51

85øø POKE CY,3:PRINT:POKE CX,1ø:PRINTCø\$CHR\$(18)" \{SPACE\}VOICE 1-3 (OR CLR) "; :rem 193
8505 GET A\$:IF A\$="" GOTO 8505 :rem 209
$8507 \mathrm{VC}=\mathrm{VAL}(\mathrm{A} \$): \operatorname{IF} \operatorname{ASC}(\mathrm{A} \$)=147$ GOTO 8560 :rem 126
$851 \varnothing$ IF VC<lORVC>3 GOTO 8øø5 :rem $2 \varnothing$
8519 REM ** OH DEAR.\{2 SPACES\}THIS IS IT.
:rem 227
$852 \varnothing$ IF VC=30R(VC=2 AND NV(3)=-2) OR(VC=1 AND NV(2) $=-2$ AND NV(3)=-2) GOTO 854ø :rem 4ø
$853 \varnothing \mathrm{~J}=\mathrm{MM}(\mathrm{VC}+1):$ GOSUB 7ø: POKE 251,K:POKE 252,J :rem 72
$8535 \mathrm{~J}=\mathrm{K} 5-\mathrm{NV}(3)-4+(\mathrm{VC}=1) *(\mathrm{NV}(2)+4):$ GOSUB 7ø:POKE 2 53,K: POKE 254,J
:rem 43
$8537 \mathrm{~J}=\mathrm{NV}(3)+4-(\mathrm{VC}=1) *(\mathrm{NV}(2)+4):$ GOSUB 7ø:POKE 781, K:POKE $782, \mathrm{~J}:$ SYS $1 \varnothing 24$ :rem $14 \varnothing$
$854 \varnothing$ MM=MM (VC): NN=NV(VC):CN=CN(VC) :rem 8 8
855ø РОКЕ 53269,15:GK=1:GOTO 9øøø :rem 18
8560 РОКЕ 780,9:SYS 1596:GOSUB849ø :rem 163
8565 POKE 780,3:SYS 1596:FOR K=1 TO 3:TX $(\mathrm{K})=" \mathrm{l}$ : NV ( K ) $=-2: \mathrm{CN}(\mathrm{K})=\varnothing: \mathrm{NEXT}: T X \$(\varnothing)=" \mathrm{n} \quad$ :rem 89
857ø MM (2) $=$ MM ( 1 ) +2 : MM ( 3 )=MM (1) +4 :GOSUB869ø :rem 72
$8575 \mathrm{FM}=\mathrm{INT}((\mathrm{K} 5-\mathrm{MM}(1)) / 2)-67:$ GOTO 8øø5 :rem 58
86øø K=PEEK (780): POKE 780,9:SYS 1596 :rem 230
8605 POKE CY, $3:$ PRINTCØ\$:PRINTCHRS(18); :rem 24
8610 IF K=4 THEN POKE CX,13:PRINT"FILE NOT FOUND": GOTO $862 \varnothing$ :rem 126
8612 IF K=5 THEN POKE CX,11:PRINT"DEVICE NOT PRESE NT":GOTO 862ø :rem $18 \varnothing$
8614 POKE CX,15:PRINT"ERROR -"ST :rem 152
862ø GET K\$:IF K\$="" GOTO 862ø :rem 225
8630 RETURN :rem 177
8690 FOR K=1 TO 3: POKE MM(K)+NV(K)+2,1:POKE MM(K)+ NV $(K)+3,79:$ NEXT: RETURN $\quad$ rem 168
89øø REM PLAY OPTION :rem 196
$891 \varnothing$ FOR $\mathrm{I}=6$ TO 2 STEP -2:J=NV (4-I/2)+4:GOSUB 7ø:P OKE MM(1)-I,K
: rem 152
8915 POKE MM(1)-I+1,J:NEXT :rem 227
892ø POKE CY, 3:PRINT:POKE CX,6:PRINTCHRS (18)CøS"PL AY VOICES:";
: rem 251
8925 B=Ø:FOR K=1 TO 3: POKE CX,16+K*5:PRINTK;CHR\$ (1 57)"?"CHR\$(157);
:rem 140
8930 GET AS:IF AS="" GOTO 893ø :rem 213
8935 ON 1-(AS="Y")-3*(ASC(A\$)=13)-2*(A\$="N") GOTO \{SPACE\} $8930,8937,8938,8939 \quad: r e m 160$
$8937 \mathrm{~B}=\mathrm{B}+2 \uparrow(\mathrm{~K}-1)$ :PRINT" ";:NEXT:GOTO 8940 : rem 88
8938 PRINTCHR (157)CHR\$ (157)CHR\$(150)"\{3 SPACES \}"C ø\$;:NEXT:GOTO 894ø :rem 6
8939 POKE 198,2:POKE 631,89:POKE 632,89:GOTO 8937
894Ø POKE 198, Ø:SYS 49435:J=MM(1)-6:GOSUB 70:POKE\{SPACE\} 781,K:POKE 782,J:SYS 49458 :rem 236:rem 109
8950 IF PEEK (198) THEN GET K\$:J=(K\$="\{F7\}"):POKE 49152.0
: rem 79
8955 IF NOT PEEK (56320)AND16 THEN POKE 56325,22-PEEK (678): GOTO 8960 :rem 1448956 POKE 56325, SGN (15-PEEK (56320) AND15)* (132-4*PE$\operatorname{EK}(678))+66-\operatorname{PEEK}(678) * 2 \quad$ :rem 169
$896 \emptyset$ IF PEEK (49152)AND7 GOTO 895Ø ..... : rem 250
897ø SYS 49629:POKE 54276, ø:POKE 54283, $:$ POKE 5429Ø, Ø : rem 70
8972 POKE 56325,66-PEEK (678)*2:IF PEEK (49152)=Ø AND $J=\emptyset$ GOTO 898Ø :rem 1518974 FOR K=1 TO $3: H=\operatorname{PEEK}(49289+K): J=\operatorname{PEEK}(49274+K)+$256 * $\operatorname{PEEK}(49277+K)-M M(K)-2 \quad: r e m 113$
8975 IF J>=-2 AND J $<=N V(K)+2$ GOTO 8977 ..... : rem 219
$8976 \mathrm{~J}=\operatorname{PEEK}(49292+\mathrm{H})+256 * \operatorname{PEEK}(493 \varnothing 4+\mathrm{H})-\mathrm{MM}(\mathrm{K})-2: \mathrm{H}=\mathrm{H}$-1: GOTO 8975: rem 174
8977 IF (BAND2 $\uparrow(K-1))=\varnothing$ THEN $J=C N(K)$ ..... : rem 174
$8978 \mathrm{CN}(\mathrm{K})=\mathrm{J}: \mathrm{CN}(\mathrm{K})=\mathrm{CN}(\mathrm{K}) *-(\mathrm{CN}(\mathrm{K})>=\varnothing): N E X T$ : rem 94
8980 IF $\operatorname{PEEK}(49152)=\emptyset$ GOTO $8 \emptyset \emptyset 5$ ..... : rem 868981 POKE CX, 6:PRINTCHR\$ (18)CHR\$ (150)"\{28 SPACES $\}$ ";:REM 28 :rem 1198982 POKE CX, $6:$ PRINTCHR\$ (18) C2 $\$$ PES (PEEK (49152)/8-1)" ERROR";: rem 117
8984 PRINTCHR\$ (145) ; : POKE CX, 16:PRINT"VOICE"PEEK (49184) +1CHR\$ (157)":" :rem 242
8986 WAIT 198,255:GET A\$:GOTO 8Ø05 ..... : rem 61
9ØØØ POKE 53280, 2:POKE 1140,127:POKE 1145,1:POKE 1160,147:POKE 1165,4:SYS 1138 :rem 115
9ØØ2 POKE 53288,1:GOTO 913Ø ..... :rem 161
9ØØ4 PRINTCHR\$ (147) ; ..... :rem 131
$901 \emptyset$ Pl\$ = C6\$ + CHR $(18)+$ CHR $(161)+C 7 \$$ : rem 13
$9012 \mathrm{P} \$=\mathrm{CHR}$ ( 162 ) : $\mathrm{P} \$=\mathrm{P} \$+\mathrm{P} \$+\mathrm{P} \$: \mathrm{P} 2 \$=\mathrm{P} \$+\mathrm{P} \$+\mathrm{P} \$+\mathrm{P} \$+\mathrm{P} \$: \mathrm{P}$ 6\$=CHR\$ (146) : rem 32
9014 P3\$=C6\$+P6\$+CHRS (161):P4\$=CHR\$ (192):P\$=CHRS (29) : P7\$=CHR\$ (221): rem 247
+CHR\$(18)+" "+P\$+" "+P\$+" " : rem 162
9017 P5\$=P5\$+P\$+C7\$+" "+P6\$+C6\$+CHR\$(161) : rem 2339050 PRINT CHR\$ (146)Cl\$"\{5 SPACES\}VOICE:
\{14 SPACES $\}$ MEM: " :rem 237
$9051 \mathrm{P}=\mathrm{CHR}(183): \mathrm{P}=\mathrm{P}=\mathrm{P}+\mathrm{P}$ ..... : rem 1089052 PRINT SPC(5)C7\$P\$P\$P\$P\$SPC(12)P\$P\$P\$P\$P\$: rem 21
9054 POKE CX, 6:PRINTCl\$"KEY:"; : POKE CX, 22:PRINT"MEASURE:": rem 234
9057 PRINT:PRINTC3\$:FOR AC=-1 TO 1 STEP 2:GOSUB 8:NEXT: PRINTCl\$:AC= $\varnothing$ : GOSUB 8
: rem 44

9185 PRINTABS(KY)CHRS(157)CHR\$(193-2*(KY<ø))" ("KY S(KY+7)")"; :rem 42
919ø POKE CX,30:PRINTMID\$("ON OFF",4-M1*3,3)
:rem 197
:rem 17ø
9199 GOTO 5øø
92øø PRINT "\{CLR\}":PRINT " SIDPLAYER EDITOR":PRINT " BY HARRY BRATT":PRINT :rem 3ø
921ø POKE 78Ø,1:POKE 781,DN:POKE 782,1:SYS 65466
:rem 105
922ø A\$="EDITOR.OBJ":FOR K=1 TO 1ø:POKE 584+K,ASC( MID (AS,K)) :NEXT :rem 217
9230 POKE 78ø,1ø:POKE 781,73:FOKE 782,2:SYS 65469
:rem 119
9240 POKE 78ø.ø:SYS 65493:IF PEEK(783)AND1 THEN PR INT " ERROR":END :rem 189
4øøøø REM *** INITIALIZATION *** :rem 252
41øøø POKE 251,DN:POKE 5328Ø,7:POKE 53265,8:K=PEEK (49)+256*PEEK (5ø) +4ø96 :rem 138
41ø1ø POKE 1ø20, PEEK(55):POKE 1ø21, PEEK(56):POKE 5 5,KAND255:POKE 56,K/256:CLR :rem 25
$41 \varnothing 12$ K5=PEEK (1ø20)+256*PEEK(1ø21) :rem 26
$41 \varnothing 13 \mathrm{~K}=\varnothing: \mathrm{J}=\varnothing: \mathrm{I}=\varnothing: \mathrm{H}=\varnothing: \mathrm{JV}=\varnothing: \mathrm{LN}=3: \mathrm{CX}=211: \mathrm{CY}=214: \mathrm{AC}=\varnothing$ : SC=3: PK=14:NN=-2:NT=Ø:OC=4 :rem 54
41014 DIM KY\$(14),S\$(36),SS\$(36),V(16),M(16),NV(3) , CN (3), MM (3), PES(5),V\$(5) :rem 64
41015 DIM FWS (6,1),NU\$(1,1),KL\%(15) :rem 235
$41017 \operatorname{MM}(1)=\operatorname{PEEK}(55)+256 * \operatorname{PEEK}(56)+6: \operatorname{MM}(2)=\operatorname{MM}(1)+2:$ $\operatorname{MM}(3)=\operatorname{MM}(1)+4: \operatorname{DN}=\operatorname{PEEK}(251) \quad$ :rem 158
$41 \varnothing 18$ FM=INT ((K5-MM(1))/2)-67:NV(1)=NN:NV(2)=NN:NV (3) $=\mathrm{NN}$
:rem 205
$41 \varnothing 19 \mathrm{CN}(1)=\mathrm{K}: \mathrm{CN}(2)=\mathrm{K}: \mathrm{GN}(3)=\mathrm{K}: \operatorname{POKE} 648,2 \varnothing 0: \operatorname{POKE} 53$ 272,36:Z=PEEK(56576) :rem 101
41ø2ø FOR TP=1ø24 TO 1137:READ J:POKE TP,J:NEXT:TP $=1827$
:rem 126
41ø21 POKE 251,98:POKE 252,199:POKE 253,114:POKE 2 54,4:SYS 103ø : rem 83
41022 POKE 781,30:POKE 782,7:SYS 1813:POKE 657,128
:rem 156
41ø23 K8=PEEK(788):K9=PEEK(789): POKE 1213,K8:POKE \{SPACE \} 1214, K9
:rem 176
41024 FOR K=1 TO 36:READ S\$(K), SS\$(K):NEXT : rem 27
$41 \varnothing 25$ NN $(\varnothing)=\varnothing:$ FOR K=1 TO 1 $\varnothing: \operatorname{READ} \operatorname{SC}(K), N(K): N N(K)$ $=$ NN $(\mathrm{K}-\mathrm{l})+\mathrm{N}(\mathrm{K}):$ NEXT $\quad$ rem 249
 CHR ( 31 ) : C7\$=CHR\$ (158)
$41027 \operatorname{CBS}=\operatorname{CHR}(154): C 2 \$=\operatorname{CHR} \$(28) \quad:$ rem 156
$41 \varnothing 28 \mathrm{Kl} \$=\operatorname{CHR}(176): \mathrm{K} 2 \$=\operatorname{CHR} \$(174): \mathrm{K} 3 \$=\operatorname{CHR}(173): \mathrm{K} 4$ $\$=$ CHR $\$$ ( 189 )
:rem 23ø
$41 \varnothing 30$ FOR K= $\varnothing$ TO $18: \operatorname{READ} \operatorname{AC}: \operatorname{AC} \$(\varnothing)=A C \$(\varnothing)+C H R \$(A C)$ : NEXT: AC=Ø
:rem 235
$41 \varnothing 32$ FOR K=1 TO 2:AC\$(K)=LEFT\$ (AC\$ (ø), 9) +CHR\$ (193 $+\mathrm{K})+\mathrm{RIGHT}(\mathrm{AC}(\varnothing), 9):$ :NEXT $\quad$ rem 13
$41 \varnothing 34$ FOR K=ø TO 5:READ M\$(K):NEXT :rem 79
41035 IF DN=1 THEN M\$(4)="(NOT AVAILABLE)":rem 245
41ø6Ø GOSUB 9øø4:POKE 780,5:SYS 1596:GOSUB 7ø04:PO KE 780,7:SYS 1596 :rem 189
41ø64 GOSUB 8ø1ø:POKE 78ø,3:SYS 1596:POKE 5328ø,1ø
:rem 181
41Ø7Ø POKE 56578, PEEK(56578)OR3:POKE 56576,(PEEK(5 6576 )AND252) :rem 161
41ø8ø POKE 251,ø:POKE 252,2ø8:POKE 253,ø:POKE 254, 2ø8:POKE 781, $0:$ POKE 782,8 :rem 228
41ø85 POKE 56334, PEEK(56334)AND254: POKE 1, PEEK(1)A ND251:SYS 1024 :rem 35
41ø9Ø FOR K=ø TO 223:READ J:POKE 53768+K,J:POKE 54 792+K,255-J:NEXT :rem 123
41095 POKE 1,PEEK(1) OR 4:POKE 56334, PEEK(56334) O R 1 :rem 242
41122 FOR K=ø TO 7:READ LN\$ (K):NEXT K :rem 231
41125 FOR K=53248 TO 53254 STEP 2:POKE K, $0: N E X T: P O$ KE 53264, $\varnothing \quad$ :rem 216
41130 POKE 52216,48:POKE 52217,49:POKE 52218,50:PO KE 52219,49:POKE 53276,11 :rem 194
41135 POKE 53287,7:POKE 53285,6:POKE 53289, $0:$ POKE \{SPACE\}53290,13 :rem 55
41138 POKE 53275,10:POKE 53277,10:FOR K=52224 TO 5 2415:POKE K, $\varnothing$ :NEXT
:rem $15 \emptyset$
4114ø J=52225: POKE J,85:FOR K=1 TO 6:POKE J+K*3,1ø 5:NEXT: POKE J+21,85 :rem 27
$41142 \mathrm{~J}=52288: \mathrm{FOR} \mathrm{I}=\emptyset \mathrm{TO} 1: F O R \mathrm{~K}=\emptyset$ TO l:POKE $\mathrm{J}+\mathrm{K}$ *3 $+I * 57,85:$ POKE $J+K * 3+I * 57+1,85 \quad$ :rem 146
41143 NEXT:NEXT:FOR K=6 TO 54 STEP 3:POKE J+K,106: POKE $J+K+1,169:$ NEXT
:rem 197
41145 J=52398: POKE J,63: POKE J+3,127:POKE J+6, 255: POKE J+9,254: POKE J+12,124 :rem ll $\varnothing$
41147 FOR I=J-3ø TO J-3 STEP 3:POKE I,1:NEXT
: rem 14ø
 (17) $+\mathrm{P} \$: \mathrm{Z} \$(\varnothing)=\mathrm{P} \$$
:rem 12ø
$41162 \mathrm{P} \$=\operatorname{CHR} \$(148)+" \quad "+\operatorname{CHR} \$(157): P \$=P \$+P \$+P \$+P \$+P \$$ $: P \$=P \$+C H R \$(17)+P \$: Z \$(1)=P \$ \quad: r e m 208$
41165 Y\$=CHRS(157):Y\$=Y\$+Y\$+Y\$+CHRS(17)+" "
41175 FOR K=Ø TO 14•READ KYS(K)
41177 IF K<6 THEN KY\$(K)=KY\$(K)+"C" :rem 99
41178 TF K>12 THEN KY (K)=KY (K) ""A" :rem 182
:
4118Ø FOR K=Ø TO 6:READ AKq(K):NEXT $\quad$ :rem 144
41185 TY\$( $)="\{2$ SPACES $\} ": T Y \$(1)="+\mathbb{K}-刃 " \quad$ :rem 155
41196 I $\$=\operatorname{CHR} \$(18)+$ CHR $(150)+" F I L E N A M E: ~ "+C H R \$(146)$ +CHR\$ (161) +Cø\$

41197 I $\$=I \$+$ "\{16 SPACES $\} ":$ REM 16 SPACES :rem 208 41220 S\$="QFDOFPDDPLEDNEFNADADFMKENNBFHJCGNFPF"
:rem 28
41225 FOR K=ø TO 16:READ $V(K), M(K): N E X T$ :rem 125
$4123 \varnothing$ FOR K=ø TO 5:READ V\$(K):NEXT :rem 86
41235 FOR K=ø TO 6:READ FW\$ (K, Ø), FW\$ (K,l):NEXT
:rem 229
41237 FOR K=ø TO 1:READ NU\$ $(K, \varnothing), N U \$(K, 1): N E X T$
: rem 238
$4124 \varnothing$ GOSUB5 $0: A L=2 \quad$ :rem 22

4125Ø FOR K=Ø TO 5:READ PE (K):NEXT :rem 151
$4135 \emptyset$ FOR K=ø TO 15:KL\% (K)=-1:NEXT :rem 75
$4136 \varnothing$ FOR K=ø TO 5:READ I,J:KL\% (I-8) $=\mathrm{J}:$ NEXT
: rem 127
$4137 \emptyset$ POKE 53281,1:POKE 53265,27 :rem 145
49999 GOSUB8690:GOTO 8øø5 :rem 175
611øø DATA $142,112,4,140,113,4,165,253,56,229,251$, $170,165,254,229,252,168,138$ :rem 209
61101 DATA 205,112,4,152,237,113,4,144,35,160,0,17 4,113,4,240,14,177,251,145 :rem 128
$611 \varnothing 2$ DATA $253,2 \varnothing \varnothing, 2 \varnothing 8,249,230,252,230,254,202,2 \emptyset 8$ , 242,174,112,4,240,8,177,251 :rem 242
61103 DATA $145,253,2 ø \varnothing, 2 ø 2,208,248,96,173,113,4,16$ 8,101,252,133,252,152,24,101 :rem 240
61104 DATA $254,133,254,172,112,4,240,9,136,177,251$ , 145,253,192, $0,208,247,174 \quad:$ rem 164
61105 DATA $113,4,240,16,198,252,198,254,136,177,25$ $1,145,253,192,0,2 \varnothing 8,247,2 \varnothing 2$ :rem 221
61106 DATA 2ø8,240,96,177,2 :rem 56
61150 DATA TEM, SET,UTL,UTILITY SET,VOL,SET,BMP,BUM P
: rem 34
61151 DATA HED, HEAD,TAL, TAIL, CAL, CALL, DEF, DEFINE, E ND, END
:rem 166
61152 DATA F-M, MODE,AUT,AUTO,RES,RESONANCE,FLT, THR OUGH,F-S,SWEEP,F-C,CUTOFF :rem 91
61153 DATA F-X, EXTERNAL,ATK,ATTACK,DCY,DECAY,SUS,S USTAIN, RLS, RELEASE
:rem 198
61154 DATA PNT,R POINT,WAV,SET, P-W, P WIDTH,P-S,P S WEEP, SNC, SYNC, RNG, RING MOD :rem 7
61155 DATA VDP,VIB DEPTH,VRT,VIB RATE, POR, PORTAMEN TO, DTN, DETUNE,TPS,TRANSPOSE : rem 76
61156 DATA MS\#, MEASURE \#,3-O,VOICE 3 OFF,FLG,FLAG, HLT, HALT, AUX, AUXILIARY
:rem 126
61157 DATA TEMPO,2,VOLUME,2,REPEAT,2,PHRASE,3,FILT ER, 3,FILTER,4, ENVELOPE, 5
:rem 138
61158 DATA WAVEFORM,5,FREQ,5,MISC,5 :rem 91
61190 DATA 162,162,162,18,17,157,157,157,32,193,32 ,146,17,157,157,157 :rem 99
61192 DATA $183,183,183 \quad$ :rem 73
61194 DATA PLAY MUSIC,EDIT MUSIC,LOAD MUSIC FILE,S AVE MUSIC FILE,DISK DIRECTORY
:rem 158
61195 DATA QUIT : rem 99
$612 \emptyset \varnothing$ REM *** CHR DATA :rem $2 \emptyset 8$
61201 DATA $1 \varnothing 8,254,1 \varnothing 8,254,108, \varnothing, \varnothing, \varnothing, 96,124,1 \varnothing 8,1 \varnothing$8,124,12, $0,0 \quad$ :rem 203
61202 DATA $192,192,240,216,24 \varnothing, \varnothing, \varnothing, \varnothing$ ..... :rem 214
61203 DATA $3 \varnothing, 27,3 \varnothing, 27,3 \varnothing, 123,248,24 \varnothing, 3 \varnothing, 27,30,27$,$24,120,248,24 \varnothing \quad$ :rem 52
$612 \varnothing 4$ DATA $3 \varnothing, 27,24,24,24,12 \varnothing, 248,24 \varnothing$ :rem 16$612 \emptyset 5$ DATA $24,24,24,24,24,12 \emptyset, 248,240,12,12,12,12$,12,124,204,248: rem 43
,110.0:rem 169
61207 DATA $0,24,60,102,126,102,102,102$ ..... : rem 4761208 DATA 255, $0, \varnothing, \varnothing, 255, \varnothing, \varnothing, \varnothing, \varnothing, \varnothing, \varnothing, \varnothing, 255, \varnothing, \varnothing, \varnothing$
:rem 243
61209 DATA $\varnothing, \varnothing, \varnothing, 7,12,24,24,24, \varnothing, \varnothing, \varnothing, 128,192,192,1$92,192: rem 167
$6121 \varnothing$ DATA 255,13,15,6,255,14,27,27,255,128,ø,0,25$5, \varnothing, \varnothing, \varnothing \quad: r e m 218$
61211 DATA 255,49,55,55,255,54,24,12,255,224,176,152,255,216,216,240 :rem 34
61212 DATA $255, \varnothing, 24,25,15, \varnothing, \varnothing, \varnothing, 255,96,96,192, \varnothing, \varnothing$,$\varnothing$, $\varnothing$
:rem 15
61213 DATA 255,48,96,112,255,112,ø, Ø,255,96,51,51, 255,48,51,99
: rem 253
61214 DATA $255, \varnothing, 1,3,255,28,112, \varnothing, 255,192,128,0,25$ $5, \varnothing, \varnothing, \varnothing, 3, \varnothing, \varnothing, \varnothing, \varnothing, \varnothing, \varnothing, \varnothing$
: rem 184
61215 DATA $96,96,48,48,28,15,3, \varnothing, 6,6,12,12,56,240$, 192.0
:rem 149
$6130 \varnothing$ DATA 32ND\{3 SPACES\},16TH\{3 SPACES\}, EIGHTH ,Q UARTER, HALF\{3 SPACES\}, WHOLE\{2 SPACES\},UTILIT Y,ABS SET
:rem 175
61306 DATA $C, G, D, A, E, B, F, C, G, D, A, E, B, F, C$
:rem 125
61310 DATA 3, $0,4,1,5,2,6 \quad: r e m 13 \varnothing$
61450 DATA $15,8,127,256,-95,256,15,16,-127,256,255$ , 256,999,64,16383,4,2ø47,32 :rem 253
61452 DATA $-2 \varnothing 47,16,4 \varnothing 95,16,7,32,7,32,1,8,1,8, \varnothing, \varnothing$, 9øø, 256 :rem 234
61454 DATA $1=\mathrm{L} 2=\mathrm{B} \quad 4=\mathrm{H}, \varnothing=\mathrm{N}$ l=T 2=S $4=\mathrm{P},(\quad \varnothing=\mathrm{NO} / \mathrm{l}=$ YES ), ( $\varnothing=$ UP / l=DOWN ) :rem 231
61456 DATA ( $\varnothing=Y E S$ ), ( 56 TO 9øØ ) :rem 243
61458 DATA L,T,B,S,LB,TS,H,P,LH,TP,BH,SP,LBH,TSP,N O,UP, YES, DWN
:rem 94
61460 DATA CLOBBER,ILLEGAL DURATION,DURATION OVERF LOW, STACK UNDERFLOW :rem 254
61462 DATA STACK OVERFLOW,UNDEFINED PHRASE CALL
:rem 164
61470 DATA 20,0,19,1,17,3,8,4,23,5,21,6 :rem 103

Once the Editor has been saved, load the "MLX"' program from Appendix C. MLX is the same program you used to create "BMG.OBJ" and "SID.OBJ." If you already have a copy of MLX from another COMPUTE! publication, you can use it to enter the listings in this book. Tape users using another version of MLX must change line 763 to match the MLX listing in this book. (Tape users who have a copy of MLX which does not have a line 763 must use the version of MLX from this book.)

In order to avoid retyping the same data you entered for SID.OBJ, you'll reload the SID.OBJ file through MLX and append the additional data (actually, you'll be overwriting about 72 bytes and adding more than 650 others). Be sure to follow these directions carefully in order to get a working copy of the Editor.

Load and run MLX, and answer the prompts as follows:

## Starting Address: 49349

Ending Address: 51736
If you're using a Datassette, insert the tape which contains a copy of SID.OBJ, created in Chapter 7, and fast-foward past the Sid Loader program to the beginning of SID.OBJ (you should have earlier noted the tape counter number for the start of this file).

If you're using disk, just insert the disk containing SID.OBJ in your drive.

The cursor should be waiting for input on line 49349. Press the L key while holding down the SHIFT key. When you see the prompt for a filename, enter SID.OBJ and press RETURN. Next, respond with T or D for tape or disk. SID.OBJ will load into memory.

When MLX has finished loading SID.OBJ and the prompt returns for line 49349 , press the N key while holding down the SHIFT key. You'll be asked for a new address: Enter 51041 and press RETURN.

Using the listing of Program 8-2, enter in the data as you would any other MLX listing. When you're finished, save the program using the filename EDITOR.OBJ. Tape users should save the program immediately following program 8-1, EDITOR.
(The Editor uses most of the memory space from 49152 to 53247. For this reason you cannot run other utilities which use this memory, such as the DOS wedge, when using the Editor.)





Program 8-2. EDITOR.OBJ
To enter this program, you must use "The Machine Language Editor (MLX)," a program found in Appendix C. Be sure to read the directions above before entering this program.
51041 : Ø96,120,169,127,141,013,251

 $51 \varnothing 59: \varnothing 27,141, \varnothing 17,2 \varnothing 8,169,147, \varnothing 56$ $\stackrel{\wedge}{\infty}$ $\underset{\sim}{\mathrm{N}}$ ก $\infty$






[^13]
## Using the Editor

To use the Editor, plug a joystick into port 2. Then load Program 8-1, EDITOR, and type RUN. The EDITOR.OBJ file automatically loads and the screen blanks while the program initializes. The Editor is a graphically complex program, using redefined characters, sprites, and raster scan interrupts, so it takes awhile to initialize. When the program is ready, it displays a main menu.

1) PLAY MUSIC
2) EDIT MUSIC
3) LOAD MUSIC FILE
4) SAVE MUSIC FILE
5) DISK DIRECTORY or
6) (NOT AVAILABLE)
7) QUIT

## EDIT Music

Press the 2 key to select EDIT, and then the 1 key to choose voice 1 . The display changes to show the editing screen.

The first thing you'll notice is that it's divided into different levels. The top level shows the current voice number and the amount of free memory remaining. The next level displays the current key signature and tells whether the measure feature is on or off. The level below that has one of the three accidental symbols highlighted.

The next level is the main level, where notes are selected. The main level displays the current pitch in three different forms: as a note on the grand staff, as a piano key, and as a letter and octave number. The current duration is indicated by a symbol and a word. The level below this main level is used for entering rests and ties. The bottom level contains a box in which entered notes appear.

In the main level, the method of using the joystick is:

1. Push the stick up or down to change the current pitch.
2. Push the stick left or right to change the current duration.
3. Press and release the joystick button to enter a note.

While you're in the main level, pushing the stick up or down changes the pitch. The quarter note on the grand staff moves, the next key on the piano is indicated, and the written display changes. A full eight octaves is available by pushing the joystick.

Take a moment to enter a few notes. Just select a pitch and press the joystick button. A note appears in the box in the bottom level and then scrolls to the left. The note looks like a quarter note, the current duration, and has the note name and octave number written above it. As you enter more notes, each one displays in the box-all notes scroll to the left to make room for the next.

If you press the button without changing the pitch, the entered note is set at the same pitch as the previous note.

To change the duration, push the stick left or right. Notice that all durations also have a dot option, except the thirtysecond note. Now press the button. The note which shows in the box is in the current pitch, but has a new duration.

For the moment, ignore the durations marked UTILITY and ABS SET.

Now that you've entered a few notes, you might like to hear your musical creation. Return to the main menu by pressing the function key f1. Then press the 1 key for PLAY, followed by the RETURN key to play the voice. When the voice is through, the program waits for a new selection from the main menu.

To continue editing, press the 2 key to select EDIT and then the 1 key to choose voice 1 again. The display switches back to the editing screen, and the notes that you've entered appear in the same position as before.

As notes are entered, the previous notes are scrolled to the left. Since the bottom level can display only a few notes, notes have to scroll off the screen. Sometimes you'll want to scroll those notes back onto the screen to review them. Scrolling can be done manually by using the two cursor keys.

Press the cursor key on the left (ignore the up and down markings). All the notes scroll to the right. The note which scrolled off the screen appears at the left edge, and the most recently entered note moves back into the box. Every time you press this cursor key, the notes scroll one position.

As the notes move, the current pitch and duration change to reflect each note which appears. You can scroll as far as you want. Scrolling stops when you come to the beginning of the voice.

Press the cursor key on the right to scroll in the opposite direction. Scrolling stops at the end of the voice.

Replacing notes. It's easy to correct a mistake made while entering notes. Use the cursor keys to scroll the notes until the one which needs to be changed appears in the box. Select the correct pitch and duration and press the button. The old note is replaced with the new one. You can then scroll back to the end of the voice and continue entering notes.

Insert. If you miss a note and need to insert one, scroll the notes until the insertion point is reached. The note in the box will be to the right of the inserted note. Next, press SHIFTINST/DEL. The note in the box and all notes to its right scroll to the right, creating a blank in which you can enter a note.

If necessary, you can insert several blanks. The only thing you cannot do while blanks exist is scroll or return to main menu. You must fill in all of them to make the voice complete before adding new notes at the end.

Delete. To get rid of an extra note or blank, just press the DEL key (the unSHIFTED INST/DEL key). The note or blank in the box is deleted, and the notes to its right scroll to the left to fill in the gap.

When deleting notes, remember that the keyboard is buffered for up to ten keystrokes. If you press the DEL key a second time, before the Editor is finished deleting the first note, a second note will also be deleted.

Clear. The clear feature is used when you want to delete all the notes from the current note to the end of the voice.
This allows you to delete several notes at once. Press SHIFTCLR/HOME. Since clearing can be disastrous when done accidentally, there's a confirmation prompt. Press the Y key to erase the note currently in the box and all the notes to its right, or hit the N key to cancel the clear.

By scrolling to the beginning of the voice and using SHIFT-CLR/HOME, you can erase the entire voice.

Moving to the beginning or end of the voice. To move to the beginning or end of a voice, use the function keys f2 and f4, respectively. Pressing SHIFT-f1 will immediately take you to the beginning of the voice. Likewise, pressing SHIFT-f3 takes you to the end of the voice.

Accidentals. Figure 8-1 shows three symbols, called accidentals, that are often found in sheet music.

Figure 8-1. Accidentals

When you find one of these symbols placed before a note in the sheet music, it means that the pitch of the note should be adjusted up or down slightly. Say, for instance, that you find an $F$ note with a sharp in front of it, something like Figure 8-2.

Figure 8-2. F-sharp


This means that you should enter the note with the pitch F-sharp instead of just a natural F. To do so, use the joystick to move to pitch F, then press the + key (it's on the top row of the keyboard) to select the sharp before you press the button to enter the note.

A sharp increases the pitch of a note. The pitch F-sharp is halfway between pitches $F$ and G. A flat, on the other hand, decreases a note's pitch. To make a pitch flat, press the - key (right beside the + key). If you see a flat symbol before a note, you must move to the pitch, hit the - key, then press the button to enter the note.

To cancel a sharp or flat, press the English pound sign (£) to select the natural pitch.

Key signature. Sometimes you'll find one or more sharp or flat symbols at the left edge of the staff, next to the clef symbol. They might look like this:

Figure 8-3. Key Signatures


These symbols form the key signature. The number of sharps or flats in the key signature determines the key in which the music is written. As shown in Figure 8-3, the key of D has two sharps, and the key of E-flat has three flats.

The presence of a sharp or flat in a key signature means that all notes at that position on the staff should be treated as if they had a sharp or flat symbol in front of them. (See Chapter 7 for more details on this and all other aspects of music notation.) For example, a sharp appearing at the position for F in a key signature means that all F notes, in all octaves, should be entered as F-sharps.

Since having to remember which notes should have a sharp or flat can make note entry much more difficult, the Editor has a feature to help. All you have to do is tell the Editor how many sharps or flats are in the key signature, and the Editor automatically selects the appropriate pitches for you.

Look at the level near the top of the screen which displays the number 0 and the letter $C$. The number tells how many sharps or flats are in the current key, and the letter gives the name of the key. The default key is C , which has no sharps or flats.

Let's say that the key signature shows two sharp symbols, at the positions for F and C. Press SHIFT-+ (plus key) twice to select this key signature. The display changes to show two sharps in the key of D. Now when you push the joystick, the pitches $F$ and $C$ are automatically sharped.

To select a key with more sharps, press SHIFT-+ as necessary. To reduce the number of sharps or to select a key with flats, press SHIFT-- (minus key). Keep pressing until the desired number of sharps or flats is displayed.

If the key has been set and you come across an accidental symbol in front of a note, that accidental overrides what was set by the key signature. You'll have to use the,+- , or $£$ key to change the pitch for that note.

Rest. A voice does not have to play notes constantly. A rest tells a voice how long it should be silent. Rests have duration but no pitch. Different rest symbols are used for different durations. Figure 8-4 illustrates these symbols.

Figure 8-4. Rests

| Whole rest | Eighth rest | y |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Half rest | Sixteenth rest | y |
| Quarter rest | Thirty-second rest | y |

To select a rest, press the R key. The note name in the main level alters to read ( R ), and the word REST in the level below the main level displays in reverse letters. All notes now entered will be rests.

The Editor cannot display the duration symbols for rests. Rests of different durations can be selected by pushing the stick left or right, but the Editor will still display the duration symbols for normal notes.

The rest mode stays in effect until canceled. To cancel it, either press the $R$ key again, or push the stick up or down to change the pitch.

Tie/slur. Two notes are tied or slurred when they're connected by a symbol which looks like an arc. When the symbol joins two notes of the same pitch, it's called a tie. If the two notes have different pitches, the symbol is called a slur. Notes tied or slurred are played with no break in volume.

Figure 8-5. Ties and Slurs


A tie or slur is selected by pressing the / key (near the right on the bottom row of the keyboard). The word TIE in the level below changes to reversed letters. The next note entered is followed by a curved symbol, indicating a tie or slur.

Unlike the rest mode, the tie/slur mode is automatically canceled after a note is entered. To cancel it without entering a note, press the / key a second time.

## Special Options

In addition to notes, the Editor lets you enter commands to control things like tempo, volume, waveform, and envelope. Since quite a variety of commands are supported, there's no room to display the choices on the editing screen, so a separate screen is used. Press the function key f 3 to switch from the editing screen to the special option screen.

The commands are organized by headings like TEMPO and WAVEFORM. Each command has its own three-letter abbreviation. One of the commands is displayed inside a box, which you can move by pushing the joystick. If the box is moved off the end of one row or column, it wraps around to the other side.

The window in the upper-right corner of the screen displays the full name of the current command. This display changes as the box is moved from one command to another.

To enter a command, first press the joystick button. The window then shows the number range for the selected command. All commands require that a number be entered from the keyboard. Once a number is typed and the RETURN key is pressed, the command is actually entered. The command name and the number show up in the bottom row, the command and the previous notes scroll to the left, and the display returns to the editing screen. If you want to enter another command, you have to press f3 again.

There'll be times when you'll want to enter two or more commands-having to return to the special option screen each time can be inconvenient. Fortunately, there's a way to enter a command without having the display switch back to the editing screen. After you press the button and type the number, press SHIFT-RETURN instead of RETURN. The command is entered, but the screen doesn't change.

If you accidentally press the button on the wrong command, press only RETURN without typing a number. The command is not entered, and you'll be able to choose another.

Commands can be scrolled, inserted, and deleted, just like notes. The INST/DEL key can also be used while you're in the special options screen.

To return to the editing screen without entering a command, press the f 1 key.

We'll discuss just three commands here. The other commands are for advanced applications and are explained in later chapters.

Tempo. The tempo determines how quickly the notes are played; it is normally specified at the beginning of a song by one of the two methods shown in Figure 8-6.

Figure 8-6. Set Tempo


The TEM command, used to set the tempo, is usually placed at the beginning of a voice. The number part of the command is the desired tempo value. In the preceding example, this number was 100 .

There are some restrictions regarding which tempo values can be used. Sidplayer supports only a limited number of tempo values, and of those, some do not permit the use of certain durations. Not all tempo values support sixteenth or thirty-second notes, or dotted whole notes. Table 8-1 shows all the available tempo values and their restrictions.

Those tempos which do not support a sixteenth note do not support a dotted eighth note. Likewise, those tempos which do not support thirty-second notes do not support dotted sixteenth notes.

Tempo values 81 and below do not support dotted whole notes, but this is no major problem. A dotted whole note can be simulated by tying a half note to the whole note.

When you type the number for the TEM command, the Editor uses the closest available tempo value. For example, if you type 160 , the command TEM 163 is actually entered because tempo 160 is not available.

In most cases, it doesn't matter if the exact tempo is not available. There's little difference between M.M. 160 and M.M. 163. The only complication would be if the song used sixteenth or thirty-second notes, which are not supported in

## Table 8-1. Tempo Values and Restrictions

Tempo Restrictions
900 No thirty-second notes
600 No sixteenth or thirty-second notes
450 None
360 No sixteenth or thirty-second notes
300 No thirty-second notes
257 No sixteenth or thirty-second notes
225 None
200 No sixteenth or thirty-second notes
180 No thirty-second notes
163 No sixteenth or thirty-second notes
150 None
138 No sixteenth or thirty-second notes
128 No thirty-second notes
120 No sixteenth or thirty-second notes
112 None
105 No sixteenth or thirty-second notes
100 No thirty-second notes
94 No sixteenth or thirty-second notes
90 None
85 No sixteenth or thirty-second notes
81 No thirty-second notes
78 No sixteenth or thirty-second notes
75 None
72 No sixteenth or thirty-second notes
69 No thirty-second notes
66 No sixteenth or thirty-second notes
64 None
62 No sixteenth or thirty-second notes
60 No thirty-second notes
58 No sixteenth or thirty-second notes
56 None
M.M. 163. If that was the case, the tempo value 150 would have to be used.

If you try to use durations like sixteenth notes in a tempo which does not support them, the Editor prints the error message ILLEGAL DURATION when the voice is played. If this should happen, press any key to acknowledge the error, and then change the tempo to one that does support the duration.

Sometimes a word like adagio or allegro is used in place of a number. In these situations, you have to choose the appropriate tempo value based on the information given in Chapter 7.

If the sheet music does not specify any tempo at all, just use whichever tempo sounds best to you. If you don't enter a TEM command, M.M. 100 is used.

Volume. Like tempo, the general volume level (dynamics) of a song is also usually indicated at its beginning. The level is specified with the letters $p$ for piano (soft) and $f$ for forte (loud).

The master volume of the SID chip can range from 0 to 15 , with 15 being the loudest and 0 being off. This volume level is set by the VOL command.

Here are the suggested volume levels for various dynamics markings.

## Dynamic Volume

fff 12
ff $\quad 11$
$\mathrm{f} \quad 10$
mf 8
$\mathrm{mp} \quad 7$
$\mathrm{p} \quad 5$
pp $\quad 4$
ppp 3
It's recommended that you not use volume levels above 12 , because they can cause notes to distort. If the sheet music does not specify a volume, do not enter a VOL command. The default volume level of $8(\mathrm{mf})$ will then be used.

Measures. Notes are organized into groups called measures. Measures help the performer keep in time with other players and are convenient when trying to locate a particular note in a song.

Figure 8-7. Measures


To help keep your place in a voice, measure markers are available with the MS\# command. This command is entered with a number ranging from 0 to 999.

Measures in sheet music usually are not numbered, so you'll have to number them yourself. Start at the first measure and write the number 1 above it. Number the next measure 2, and so on, for the length of the song. Then, before you enter the notes for each measure, enter the appropriate measure marker.

Measure markers have no effect when a voice is played and are used strictly for editing purposes. The use of measure markers is optional but recommended, especially in longer songs.

To enter measure numbers from the editing screen, press the function key f7. The Editor enters the next measure marker, using the number one greater than the previous marker. If the last measure entered was 3 , pressing $f 7$ enters MS\# 4. This allows you to enter measure markers without going to the special option screen and without typing numbers.

The usual procedure when entering a sequence of measures is to go to the special option screen to set the starting measure number, and then to use $\mathrm{f7}$ to enter successive measure markers.

The real advantage in using measure markers is that the Editor can search for a specific measure marker and move to that point in the voice. This is like moving to the beginning or end, except that now you can quickly move to any location in the voice.

To search for a measure, press the f5 key when in the editing screen. The free memory display changes to a prompt asking for a measure number. Enter the number. The Editor searches the voice from the beginning until it finds the requested measure. If the measure is found, the Editor moves to that marker. If the Editor does not find the measure before it reaches the end of the voice, the Editor simply moves to that position.

If you hit the f5 key accidentally and don't notice the measure number prompt, the joystick and keyboard may seem to be locked up. To recover, just press the RETURN key to cancel the search.

## Function Key Summary

At this point it might be good to review the uses of the function keys.
f1 If in editing screen, return to main menu.
If in special options screen, return to editing screen.
f3 Go to special option screen.
f5 Search for measure.
f7 Enter next measure marker.
f2 Move to beginning of voice.
f4 Move to end of voice.
(Note: Figure 8-9 is a cut-out that you can place over the functions keys, and is located at the end of this chapter.)

## Entering a Melody

Now that you know something about how the Editor works, how about trying to enter a short song? Just follow this step-by-step example, and you'll have one. Use the sheet music shown as Figure 8-8.

Figure 8-8. Blues


Make sure the Editor is on your screen. Erase the entire voice by moving to the beginning (function key f2) and using SHIFT-CLR/HOME.

The sheet music indicates a tempo of M.M. 180. Go to the special option screen (function key f3) and move to the TEM command. Press the joystick button and type 180, but do not press RETURN. Since you're going to enter a second command, press SHIFT-RETURN instead. This prevents the display from returning to the editing screen when the command is entered.

No volume level is specified, so ignore setting the volume with a VOL command. When the voice is played, the default level of 8 will be used.

You're almost ready to enter the first measure, so move down to the MS\# command (the fastest way to get there is to push the stick up and wrap around to the bottom), press the button, and enter the number 1. You can press RETURN this time, because you won't be entering any more commands.

One last thing you need to do before entering notes is set the key. The song is written in the key of G, shown by the key signature displaying one sharp. Select the key of G by pushing SHIFT-+ until the key signature display indicates one sharp.

Select the quarter note duration and enter the first four notes. They are G5, G5, D5, and E5. You've just entered the first measure.

Press the function key f 7 to enter the command MS\# 2 (beginning the next measure). Type in the next four notes. You'll notice that because of the current key, the F-sharp is automatically selected for the last note instead of F-natural.

Measure 3 begins with a quarter rest. After you press f7 for the next measure marker, press the R key to turn on the rest mode. The rest will be entered when you press the button. The rest mode will still be on, though it's canceled when you move down to enter the note E5.

Measures 4 and 5 are pretty straightforward. Measure 6, however, is different. The notes are eighth notes, not quarter notes, so you'll have to change the duration. The last of these eighth notes has a sharp symbol by it, changing the pitch for that note from C-natural to C-sharp, so you'll have to press the + key to select the sharp.

You may also notice that this measure plays for only two beats, instead of the usual four beats. The fraction $2 / 4$ shows
a change in time signature, an advanced topic which is explained later.

Measure 7 and the following measures are back in 4/4 time. Remember to change the duration back to a quarter note.

The notes in measure 8 are followed by ties, so press the / key to turn on the tie mode before you enter each note.

The last measure, the ninth, should be easy since it contains only one note. Once this note has been entered, the voice is ready to be played.

## Error Checking

Sometimes a few mistakes may be made when entering a song. The Editor can find some, like the use of a sixteenth note in a tempo that does not support sixteenth notes, but it cannot find others, such as wrong pitches. Fortunately, the Editor has some features that make it easy to track down mistakes and correct them.

Autostop. If you're playing a voice and the Editor stops with the ILLEGAL DURATION error, the Editor points to the note which caused the error. This means that when you switch to the editing screen, the notes move so that the one with the illegal duration appears in the box.

Manual stop. Playing can also be stopped at any time by pressing the $f 7$ key. When you then go to the editing screen, the note in the box will be the one playing at the moment you hit the key. This feature can be convenient when you're playing a song and you hear a "bad" note.

If you press any key other than $f 7$ while a song is playing, the playing stops, but the Editor leaves the voice alone and doesn't move to the note being played.

Fast forward. Another feature is a fast forward mode. This can be useful when you're entering a long song. Perhaps the beginning of the song plays fine, but some later parts need work. When you choose PLAY from the main menu, playing always starts at the beginning of the song. There's no way to start somewhere in the middle.

With the fast forward mode, you still have to start at the beginning, but you can make it play much faster. If you hold the joystick button down while playing a song, the song plays at three times the normal speed. Playing will return to normal as soon as you release the button.

Slow down. A slow mode is also available. If you let go of the button and push the stick in any direction while playing a song, it slows down to one-third normal speed. Use this feature when you want to listen carefully to a sequence of complicated notes.

## Saving the Music

Select this item from the main menu when you want to save a music file to tape or disk. It's a good practice to save your work frequently.

The Editor asks if you want to change the old text lines. The text lines are displayed in the window at the bottom of the main screen. If you've just entered a new song, there will be no text lines, so press the $Y$ key to enter new ones.

The text lines are used to give the title of the song, to identify the composer, and to credit the person who entered the song. Up to four lines of text are allowed. The standard format for the text lines is one or two lines for the title, one line for the composer, and one line for the acknowledgment.

Enter the lines one at a time. Each can hold up to 32 characters. If you don't need all four lines, press RETURN to enter a blank line.

After the text lines have been entered, the Editor requests a filename. Enter one up to 12 characters long, then press RETURN. Do not include the .MUS extension as part of the filename. If you're saving to disk, be sure to choose a filename not already in use. If you're saving to tape, note the exact filename used and the counter number where the SAVE begins. The program will not prompt you to press the PLAY and RECORD buttons.

The saving begins once the filename has been entered. When the SAVE is completed, the Editor clears the main menu and waits for your next instruction.

Disk drive errors such as FILE EXISTS and DISK FULL are not reported by the Editor. Always check the red drive light after a SAVE to make sure that it isn't flashing. The only error that the program does report is DEVICE NOT PRESENT, which can happen if the drive is turned off. If this error does occur, press any key to acknowledge it, turn the drive on, and try again. This time, however, you won't have to change the text lines.

To cancel a SAVE, press only RETURN in response to the filename prompt.

## Loading a Song

This main menu item is used to load a music file from tape or disk into memory. Type the filename of the desired file (excluding the .MUS extension), and press RETURN. Tape users will not be prompted to press PLAY. The Editor loads the song, replacing the one currently in memory.

Note that loading a song erases the one in memory. If you want to preserve the song currently in memory, save it to disk or tape before loading a new one.

If you're using disk and the requested file is not on the disk, the Editor will report the FILE NOT FOUND error.

If you're using tape and enter an incorrect filename, or if you position the tape past the beginning of the data, the program will fail to locate the song. If you believe you entered a filename that is on the tape, but the program fails to find the song, stop the tape and rewind it to a position before the beginning of the data and press PLAY again. The only other way to recover from an incomplete LOAD from tape is to turn the computer off, reload the Editor, and start over.

After the song is loaded, the text lines in the window are updated. The Editor is ready for you to select another item.

If you accidentally choose LOAD, don't type a filename and just press RETURN. The song in memory will not be erased.

## What's on the Disk?

This prints a disk directory on the screen. The names of all files with the .MUS extension on the disk are listed in two columns. Printing the directory is useful when you want to check if a filename is already in use or if you want to see how many blocks are free.

The Editor won't let you choose this item if you're using the Datassette (assuming you changed $\mathrm{DN}=8$ to $\mathrm{DN}=1$ as you should have).

## Using All Three Voices

You've seen how to enter, edit, and debug one complete voice. But as you know, Sidplayer can play up to three voices at the same time. To access the other two voices, press the 2 or 3 key after choosing EDIT from the main menu.

The voices are completely independent. Editing done on one voice does not affect the others. For instance, you can add
some notes to voice 2 and completely erase voice 3, but when you return to voice 1 , you'll find it unchanged.

When it comes to playing, however, the voices are not entirely independent. Multiple voices must share the same tempo and master volume. The TEM and VOL commands can be used on any voice, but they affect all three. If the tempo is set on voice 1, voices 2 and 3 use that same tempo. It's not possible for one voice to play at one tempo while another voice plays at another. The same idea applies to the master volume.

When you choose PLAY from the main menu and press RETURN, the Editor plays all three voices. If one of the voices runs out of notes before the others, that voice stops but the others continue.

It's possible to play individual voices. Instead of pressing RETURN after choosing PLAY, press the Y or N key for each voice. The Editor plays only those voices which were selected by pressing the $Y$ key.

One problem with playing individual voices involves tempo. If the TEM command is used only on voice 1 , and voice 1 is not played, the tempo will not be set for the other voices.

When you save or load a file, all three voices are saved or loaded, even if some of the voices are empty.

To clear all three voices at once, press the 2 key in the main menu to select EDIT, then press SHIFT-CLR/HOME.

Program 8-3 is an enhanced version of the blues rhythm given earlier. Voices 2 and 3 are used to add bass and percussion parts. You may wish to load this song into the Editor and examine the individual voices. Voice 1 should be identical to the voice in the earlier demonstration. Voices 2 and 3 use advanced commands explained in later chapters.

## Program 8-3. BLUES

To enter this program, you must use "The Machine Language Editor (MLX)," a program found in Appendix C.
Starting Address: 49152
Ending Address: 49403
Filename: BLUES.MUS

```
49152 : Ø90,øøø,054,øø0,072,00ø,216
49158 :øØ6,08ø,ø30,øø1,016,149,ø32
49164 : Ø16,149,016,146,016,147,246
4917ø :ø30,ø02,016,149,016,149,124
49176 :016,149,016,084,030,003,066
```

|  |  |
| :---: | :---: |
| 49188 | :ø16,146,030,.øø4,016,147,139 |
| 49194 | :ø16,147,ø16,147,016,146,018 |
| 49200 | : $030, \varnothing 05, \varnothing 16,145, \varnothing 16,145,149$ |
| 49206 | :ø16,157,016,158,030,006,181 |
| 49212 | : $020,145, \varnothing 20,145,020,145,043$ |
| 49218 | : 020, 081, ø30, $007,016,146,110$ |
| 49224 | : $016,146,016,158,016,159,071$ |
| 49230 | :ø30, ø08, $080,146,080,145,055$ |
| 49236 | : $080,159,080,158,030,009,088$ |
| 49242 | :ø12,157,012,ø0ø, 001,079,095 |
| 49248 | :006, $080,001,071,001, \boxed{12,011}$ |
| 49254 | :ø01,160,001,132,001,008,149 |
| 49260 | : $030, \varnothing 01,054,016,020,173,146$ |
| 49266 | :ø01,ø15,03ø,ø03,054,ø16,233 |
| 49272 | :ø20,171, 001,015,030,005,106 |
| 49278 | : $054,011, \boxed{20,169,001, \varnothing 15,140}$ |
| 49284 | : $200,1 \boxed{5,030,007,054,016,108 ~}$ |
| 49290 | : Ø20,170, 0 ¢1, $015,030,009,127$ |
| 49296 | : $012,181,012,000, \boxed{1,079,173}$ |
| 49302 |  |
| 49308 | :001,096,001,132,001,104,235 |
| 49314 | :ø38, 0ø1, Ø30, øø1, Ø01, Ø06,239 |
| $4932 \emptyset$ | : Ø16, $000, \varnothing 16,141,016, \varnothing 0 \emptyset, 101$ |
| 49326 | :ø16,141,ø16,øøø, $20,141,252$ |
| 49332 | : 20 ,141, 20 , $0 \varnothing \varnothing, \varnothing 20,141, \varnothing 1 \varnothing$ |
| 49338 | : Ø2ø,141, $20 ., \varnothing \varnothing \varnothing, \varnothing \varnothing 1, \varnothing 47,159$ |
| 49344 | : Ø30, øø , øø1, øø2, ø30, Ø05, 07 |
| 49350 | :ø16,øøø,ø16,141, $16, \varnothing \varnothing \varnothing, 131$ |
| 49356 | : $016,141, \varnothing 30, \varnothing \varnothing 6, \varnothing 2 \emptyset, \varnothing \varnothing 0,161$ |
| 49362 | : $20,141, \varnothing 20,141, \varnothing 2 \varnothing, 141,181$ |
| 49368 | : $030,007, \varnothing 01, \boxed{12,001,079,080}$ |
| 49374 | : 066,076, 085, 069, Ø83, Ø13,102 |
| 49380 | : Ø67, 082, $665,073, \boxed{1, ~ ¢ 32,106 ~}$ |
| 49386 | : Ø67,072,065,077,066,069,138 |
| 49392 | : $082,076, \boxed{65,073,078,013,115}$ |
| 49398 |  |

## Keyboard Note Entry

The Editor has been designed to use the keyboard, as well as a joystick, for note entry. If you prefer to use the keyboard, or if you just don't have a joystick, follow these instructions.

- Press a letter key from A to $G$. The current note name will change to that letter.
- To change the octave, press a digit key from 0 to 7.
- The duration can be set by pressing one of the following keys:

W Whole
H Half
Q Quarter
8 Eighth (E is used for a note name)
S Sixteenth
T Thirty-second

- Press the period (.) key if you want a dotted note. Press the key again to cancel the dot.
- Press the RETURN key to enter a note. This is like pressing the joystick button.
- In the special options screen, use the letters $I, J, K$, and $M$ to move the box up, left, right, or down. Press RETURN to select a command.


## Complete Joystick Editing

If you prefer to use only the joystick to edit, you can. Many of the things done with the keyboard can also be done with the joystick.

Accidentals, rests, and ties can be selected; the joystick can also be used to change the current key and to scroll the notes. But before any of these things can be done, you must first change the levels.

To move from the main level to a different level, press the joystick button and hold it down while you push the stick up or down. The different levels of the screen are highlighted, in order. Release the button to stop on a particular level.

Once you're in a level and have released the button, push the stick left or right to change whatever that particular level controls. For example, if you end up on the level which displays the current key, all the keys will be shown when you push the stick left or right. When you come to the key that you want, press the button to return to the main level.

On the accidental level, the flat, natural, and sharp symbols can be selected one at a time. Wraparound is supported, so if the current accidental is flat, pushing the stick left will switch to sharp. Again, press the button to return to the main level.

The level for selecting a rest or tie works a little differently. As soon as you push the stick left (for rest) or right (for tie), that feature is selected and the Editor automatically returns to the main level. To turn off the rest or tie mode, move to this level and select rest or tie again.

Move to the bottom level and push the stick left or right to scroll the notes. Be aware that keyboard items, including the INST/DEL key, do not work when you're in this level. Press the button to return to the main level.

## Leaving the Editor: QUIT

When you're done with the Editor, choose QUIT from the main menu. The prompt CONFIRM? appears. Press the Y key to return to BASIC, or press N to continue editing.

The RUN/STOP key has been disabled for your protection, so you cannot press this key to stop the program. Pressing RUN/STOP-RESTORE will not work either.

One final word of caution: Remember to save your work before you choose QUIT.

This concludes the description of the Sidplayer Editor. You should now be able to enter, edit, and debug a simple piece of sheet music. Music stores and libraries offer a wide variety of classical and contemporary sheet music that will give you plenty of practice.

Once you feel comfortable with the Editor, you may wish to move on to the advanced features explained in the following chapters.

Figure 8-9. Function Key Cutout

| SIDPLAYER |  |
| :---: | :---: |
| UNSHIFTED | SHIFTED |
| 1. MAIN MENU | 2. <br> BEGINNING <br> OF <br> VOICE |
| 3. SPECIAL OPTIONS SCREEN | 4. END OF VOICE |
| 5. <br> MEASURE SEARCH |  |
| 7. MEASURE MARKER |  |
|  |  |

## Making Music

## Waveforms

The timbre of a sound is what distinguishes a middle $C$ played on a saxophone from a middle $C$ played on a cello. The main thing that controls a sound's timbre is the type of vibration which produces the sound. There are a few basic types of vibrations, or waveforms. These types are named according to their shape when viewed with an oscilloscope.

Triangle waves (Figure 9-1) produce soft, mellow tones. The flute is an example of an instrument which produces triangle waves.

## Figure 9-1. Triangle



Figure 9-2 shows a waveform for a bright, buzzy tone. Brass instruments produce waves that are basically sawtooth waves. (This is sometimes called a ramp waveform.)

Figure 9-2. Sawtooth


Figure 9-3 illustrates a square wave. This waveform sounds rich and hollow, and can be heard from the clarinet.

Figure 9-3. Square


The pulse wave alternates between high and low states. The amount of time during one cycle that the wave is high is called the width, or duty cycle, of the wave. Square waves have a pulse width of 50 percent. When the width is reduced, the wave becomes more rectangular. The waveform shown in Figure 9-4 might be produced by an oboe or bassoon.

Figure 9-4. Rectangular


Pulse waves with a very narrow pulse width sound thin and reedy. Pulse waves with widths greater than 50 percent sound just like pulse waves with widths less than 50 percent. For example, a pulse wave with a 40 percent width sounds the same as a pulse wave with a 60 percent pulse width.

Figure 9-5. More Rectangular


Another type of waveform has no definite shape because it's completely random. It's called noise (Figure 9-6) because it is the waveform associated with white noise, the sound you hear when a television station goes off the air. Noise is useful for producing percussion effects, such as snare drums.

Figure 9-6. Noise


Another useful waveform, the sine wave, unfortunately is not supported by the SID chip.

The waveforms introduced here are just the basic types. Actual instruments produce more complicated waveforms that may not conform exactly to one of these types.

Setting the waveform. The special option screen in the Editor has a row of commands which pertain to waveforms. Three of these commands are introduced in this chapter. The first command, labeled WAV, is used to select the waveform for a voice.

When you press the joystick button to choose the WAV command, the window in the upper-right corner displays some extra information. The desired waveform has to be specified in the form of a number, so the window shows you the number for each waveform.
0 N Noise
1 T Triangle
2 S Sawtooth
4 P Pulse
After you type the number and press RETURN, the command which appears in the box displays the letter instead of the number.

Each of the three voices can have its own waveform.
Try changing waveforms. Load Program 8-3, "BLUES," from the Editor and play voice 1 with various waveforms.

Pulse width. If you choose the pulse waveform, you may also want to use the P-W command to set the pulse width.

The numeric range for this command is from 0 to 4095 , with 2048 being a perfect square wave. Values smaller or larger than 2048 produce rectangular waves.

As you approach the limits of 0 or 4095 , the waves become so narrow that the volume begins to decrease. The pulse wave is inaudible when the pulse width is set to 0 or 4095 . In most cases, only width values from 100 to 4000 are used.

Try playing a voice with different numbers for the P-W command to hear the effects of the various widths. Just as each voice has its own waveform, each voice also has its own pulse width. Changing the pulse width for one voice will not affect the others.

Pulse width sweeping. An advanced feature of Sidplayer is that it can change the pulse width during a note. When this feature is turned on, the pulse width starts at the specified value, but increases or decreases for the duration of the note. The width is then reset back to the specified value at the beginning of the next note.

The effect of pulse width sweeping is to add a sense of motion to the sound. A common way to use sweeping is to set the pulse width at 2048 and have it increase slowly so that the sweeping is barely noticeable. Another technique is to set the pulse width at 1000 and have it increase rather quickly. You'll hear the sound go from a rectangular wave to a square wave as the width reaches 2048, and then back to a rectangular wave as the width continues to increase.

The P-S command controls pulse width sweeping. Values from 1 to 127 turn on the sweeping. The larger the value, the faster the width increases. Values from -1 to -127 do the same thing, except that they cause the width to decrease. Try 10 for starters. Using the number 0 with the P-S command turns off the sweeping.

If the pulse width is allowed to sweep past 4095, it wraps around to 0 . The same thing happens if the width is decreasing and sweeps past 0 . When the width wraps around, the effect on the tone is quite noticeable and usually isn't desirable. In most cases the wraparound can be avoided by changing the values for the pulse width, the sweep rate, or the direction.

One interesting use of pulse width wraparound is to set the sweep rate at 127 , the maximum value. This produces a raspy tone.

If one note is tied to another note, the pulse width is not
reset when the second note starts playing. The sweeping continues with no break.

When you turn sweeping off with the command P-S 0 , the pulse width won't be reset to the specified value at the beginning of the next note. If you want the pulse width to be reset, use the P-W command to set the width again.

Here is a list of the default waveform settings.
WAV $\mathbf{P}$
P-W 2048
P-S 0
This gives you a square wave with no sweeping. That's the type of waveform used if none of the waveform commands are placed at the beginning of a voice.

Waveform demonstrations. To close this section, here are two demonstration programs. The first one uses triangle, sawtooth, and pulse wave settings. The second one uses only the pulse wave, but with different pulse widths, plus the use of sweeping.

## Program 9-1. FSONATINA.MUS

To enter this program, you must use "The Machine Language Editor (MLX)," a program found in Appendix C.
Starting Address: 49152
Ending Address: 50675
Filename: FSONATINA.MUS

```
49152 : 238,002,234,øø1,200,000,163
49158 : Ø06,096,ø01,174,012,00ø,039
49164 :øø1,044,øø1,\varnothing96,ø01,228,127
49170 : Ø01,12ø,øø1,ø39,054,øø2,235
49176 :ø38,øø3,016,148,ø20,148,141
49182 : Ø2Ø,148,ø88,148,088,147,157
49188 : Ø88,146,088,145,088,223,ø46
49194 : 088,158,088,157,088,156,009
492ø\varnothing : Ø38,\varnothing05,\varnothing2Ø,155,\varnothing20,156,186
492ø6 : Ø20,157,020,158,080,145,122
```



```
49218 :ø30,øø1,ø01,228,016,149,235
49224 : Ø2\varnothing,149,02Ø,149,088,149,135
49230 : Ø88,148,088,147,088,146,015
49236 : Ø88,145,088,223,088,158,1ø6
49242 : Ø88,157,038,øø5,020,156,ø42
49248 :ø2Ø,155,020,156,02ø,157,112
49254 : Ø38,0ø3,016,158,ø3\varnothing,\varnothing01,ø92
49260 : Ø\varnothing1,118,088,145,024,158,130
49266 : 088,145,088,158,020,156,0ø1
```

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| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| $\infty$ | $\infty$ | 0 |




[^15]

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## Envelopes

Dynamics describe the general volume of a song, as set by the master volume, but do not describe the changes in volume which occur while an individual note is playing. These changes in volume over the course of a note are referred to as the envelope of the note.

When a note first starts playing, the volume must increase from no volume to the peak volume established by the dynamics. The speed at which the volume rises is called the attack rate.

The volume then diminishes slightly until it reaches an intermediate volume level called the sustain level. The rate at which the volume falls from the peak level to the sustain level is called the decay rate.

Toward the end of a note, the note will be released and the volume will begin to fade away, at a speed called the release rate.

A good way to understand the four stages of the envelope is to graph them as shown in Figure 9-7.

Figure 9-7. ADSR Envelope


This standard envelope is sometimes also called an ADSR envelope, because of the attack, decay, sustain, and release sequence.

Not all instruments have the same ADSR values. Each instrument has its own characteristic envelope. In electronic music, the ability to control the envelope of a voice lets you more closely approximate a particular instrument.

There are two basic types of envelopes. One type is used for sustaining instruments. These include string instruments which are played with a bow, and wind instruments.

The other type is for nonsustaining instruments. String instruments which are plucked and percussion instruments such as drums are examples of nonsustaining instruments.

Sustaining envelopes. For an example of a sustaining envelope, let's consider a person playing a violin. At the beginning of a note, the player has to dig in with the bow to start the string vibrating. This is the attack.

Once the sound has started, the player does not have to apply quite so much pressure to the string, and the volume is reduced a little. This is the decay part of the envelope.

As the player continues to bow, a constant volume level is maintained. This is the sustain level.

At the end of the note, the player stops the bow, but the string continues to vibrate for a moment until the sound fades away completely. The instant when the player stops the bow is called the release, and the rate at which the volume fades away is the release rate.

The whole process works similarly for a wind instrument, such as a flute. The player has to blow with a little extra force to start the air vibrating, and then eases off slightly. The air continues to vibrate for a moment after the release, when the player stops blowing.

Nonsustaining envelopes. Nonsustaining instruments have completely different envelopes. The most important characteristic of these instruments is that they are struck. The instrument is hit or plucked once for each note. No continual force is applied, so the volume is never sustained.

Most percussion instruments have nonsustaining envelopes. These instruments include drums, bells, and others like wood blocks. They usually have very fast attack rates. The decay rate varies from one instrument to another. The sound of a snare drum decays rather quickly, but the sound of a gong takes a long time to decay. Since there is no sustain, there is no sustain part to the envelope, and the envelope can be called an $A D R$ envelope.

Figure $9-8$ shows two graphs that illustrate nonsustaining envelopes.

Setting the envelope. The special option screen has five commands that are used to configure the envelope.

The ATK command lets you choose one of 16 attack rates. The rates are numbered $0-15$. At rate 0 the attack takes

Figure 9-8. ADR Envelope

just a fraction of a second (two milliseconds to be precise), while at rate 15 the attack takes eight seconds.

The DCY command is used to set the decay rate. Again, the rates are numbered $0-15$, with 0 being the fastest, but the range is a little different. The decay takes 6 milliseconds at rate 0 , and 24 seconds at rate 15.

Use the SUS command to set the sustain level. If the sustain level is set to 0 , the volume decays to no volume. If the level is set at 15 , the volume doesn't decay at all and stays at the peak volume set by the master volume control. Values between 0 and 15 correspond to evenly spaced volume levels between zero and peak volume. When you're using a nonsustaining envelope, the sustain level must be set to 0 .

The RLS command sets the release rate. The rates, numbered $0-15$, are the same as those for the DCY command. If you're using a nonsustaining envelope, the release rate should be set to the same value as the decay rate.

The release point. The one remaining command is PNT, which is used to set the release point. In order to understand how to use this command, it's first necessary to know how Sidplayer handles durations.

Sidplayer deals with note durations in terms of time units called jiffies. One jiffy lasts about $1 / 60$ second. Table 9-1 shows the jiffy length of each note duration in each tempo.

Table 9-1. Tempo

| M.M. | W | H | Q | E | S | 32 | 64 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 900 | 16 | 8 | 4 | 2 | 1 | - | - |
| 600 | 24 | 12 | 6 | 3 | - | - | - |
| 450 | 32 | 16 | 8 | 4 | 2 | 1 | - |
| 360 | 40 | 20 | 10 | 5 | - | - | - |
| 300 | 48 | 24 | 12 | 6 | 3 | - | - |
| 257 | 56 | 28 | 14 | 7 | - | - | - |
| 225 | 64 | 32 | 16 | 8 | 4 | 2 | 1 |
| 200 | 72 | 36 | 18 | 9 | - | - | - |
| 180 | 80 | 40 | 20 | 10 | 5 | - | - |
| 163 | 88 | 44 | 22 | 11 | - | - | - |
| 150 | 96 | 48 | 24 | 12 | 6 | 3 | - |
| 138 | 104 | 52 | 26 | 13 | - | - | - |
| 128 | 112 | 56 | 28 | 14 | 7 | - | - |
| 120 | 120 | 60 | 30 | 15 | - | - | - |
| 112 | 128 | 64 | 32 | 16 | 8 | 4 | 2 |
| 105 | 136 | 68 | 34 | 17 | - | - | - |
| 100 | 144 | 72 | 36 | 18 | 9 | - | - |
| 94 | 152 | 76 | 38 | 19 | - | - | - |
| 90 | 160 | 80 | 40 | 20 | 10 | 5 | - |
| 85 | 168 | 84 | 42 | 21 | - | - | - |
| 81 | 176 | 88 | 44 | 22 | 11 | - | - |
| 78 | 184 | 92 | 46 | 23 | - | - | - |
| 75 | 192 | 96 | 48 | 24 | 12 | 6 | 3 |
| 72 | 200 | 100 | 50 | 25 | - | - | - |
| 69 | 208 | 104 | 52 | 26 | 13 | - | - |
| 66 | 216 | 108 | 54 | 27 | - | - | - |
| 64 | 224 | 112 | 56 | 28 | 14 | 7 | - |
| 62 | 232 | 116 | 58 | 29 | - | - | - |
| 60 | 240 | 120 | 60 | 30 | 15 | - | - |
| 58 | 248 | 124 | 62 | 31 | - | - | - |
| 56 | 256 | 128 | 64 | 32 | 16 | 8 | 4 |

The number of jiffies for a whole note is different for each tempo. This number is repeatedly cut in half to give durations like half note, quarter note, and so on. After a certain point, some numbers cannot be evenly divided by two, which is why some tempos do not support sixteenth or thirty-second notes.

The PNT command determines how many jiffies from the end of a note the volume should be released. For an example, let's say that the release point is set at 6 and the current tempo is M.M. 100. A quarter note in this tempo is 36 jiffies long. For the first 30 jiffies, the volume goes through the attack, decay, and sustain phases of the envelope. Then the
voice will be released, and for the last 6 jiffies the volume falls from the sustain level to no volume.

The range of the PNT command is $0-255$, but usually only very small values are used. Values like 3,4 , and 5 work best. It's preferable not to set the release point too high, or notes of short duration won't be heard. For instance, in M.M. 100, an eighth note is 18 jiffies long. If the release point was set at 20 jiffies, an eighth note would be released as soon as it started playing. The volume would never havea chance to rise, and the note would not be heard.

For best results, always make sure that the release point is less than the duration of the shortest dote in the song.

If you're using a nonsustaining enfelope, the PNT command must be used to set the release point at 1.

Here are the default values for the envelope. This configuration produces an organ effect.
ATK 2
DCY 0
SUS 15
RLS 5
PNT 4
If some default settings are satisfactory but others are not, you have to change only the ones that need new values.

Also, remember that you can change the envelope at any point in a song. For example, a voice may briefly switch to a nonsustaining envelope to play a few notes and then switch back.

Each voice can have its own envelope, but it's recommended that the attack rate be nearly the same for all three voices.

Experiment with different envelopes. Load BLUES and try different envelope settings on the first voice.

Sometimes in sheet music you may see what appears to be a very long tie symbol spread over several notes. This symbol indicates that the notes are to be played smoothly, in one breath or one bow movement. The term legato is used to describe this type of effect.

A sequence of notes can be played in a legato style by using the command PNT 0 . When the release point is set to 0 , notes are never released. This saves you from having to put a tie on each note.

Another style of playing is called staccato, and is the opposite of legato. A dot placed above or below a note in sheet music means that the note should be played in a quick, light, choppy manner.

One way to produce this effect on Sidplayer is to set the release point as large as possible. A more reliable method is to switch to a nonsustaining envelope.

A nonsustaining envelope is also a good choice when you want to play a series of short, fast notes. The release point usually has to be set very small to play these notes, and if a sustaining envelope is used, the notes may sound too legato. Using a nonsustaining envelope insures that the notes will be played distinctly and will not be run together.

## Envelope Example

The following song, "Theme and Variation" by Beethoven, uses a wide variety of envelopes.

## Program 9-3. Theme and Variation

To enter this program, you must use "The Machine Language Editor (MLX)," a program found in Appendix C.

## Starting Address: 49152 <br> Ending Address: 49877 <br> Filename: T\&V.MUS

```
49152 : 054,øø1,176,øøø,148,øøø,123
49158 : Ø06,192,001,052,054,002,057
49164 : Ø01,022,020,159,020,159,137
49170 :116,158,092,159,092,145,012
49176 : Ø20,155,020,092,020,157,232
49182 : Ø24,154,024,\varnothing\varnothing\varnothing,\varnothing20,158,154
49188 : Ø24,154,024,\varnothing\varnothing\varnothing,020,159,161
49194 : Ø24,154,024,øø\emptyset,001,047,036
492øø : 020,145,020,159,016,158,054
49206 : 001,018,020,092,020,155,104
49212 : 016,154,0\varnothing1,\varnothing08,001,015,255
49218 : Øø1,ø2\emptyset,0ø1,104,054,002,248
49224 : Ø2\emptyset,146,02Ø,146,084,146,122
4923ø :ø24,145,ø24,øøø,12ø,159,ø38
49236 : 092,158,120,159,092,145,082
49242 :084,159,020,158,020,147,166
49248 : 020,147,084,147,024,146,152
49254 : 024,00\varnothing,120,145,092,159,13\varnothing
49260 : 120,145,992,146,084,145,072
49266 : 024,159,024,00ø,001,018,084
49272 :020,145,020,158,016,157,124
```


 QNQHNQQHNHHNOQHQQHQHQQNHQNNHQNQ



 QQQQQQQQQQQQQQQQQQQQQQQQQQQQQQQ NNQNNQN

 - . . . . . - - - -










 - - QQQQQQQQQQQQQQQQQQQQQQQQQQQQQQQ










## The Filters

Sometimes it's not enough to set the waveform and envelope of a voice in order to imitate the sound of a particular instrument. It may also be necessary to control the harmonic content of the voice by using the filter.

When an oscillator generates a tone, it produces not only the requested pitch, but some harmonics as well. Harmonics are frequencies related to the main pitch. The first harmonic is the frequency of the main pitch and is also called the fundamental frequency. The second harmonic has a frequency twice the fundamental frequency. The frequency of the third harmonic is three times that of the fundamental frequency, and so on.

Because the volume of the fundamental frequency is always greater than the volume of the other harmonics, the main pitch detected by your ear is that of the fundamental frequency. The harmonics, however, give the tone its timbre.

Since each instrument has its own characteristic timbre, the ability to control the harmonic content of a voice can be helpful in emulating a particular instrument. The filter is used to remove selected frequencies from a tone. This enables you to emulate a whole new variety of instruments.

The SID chip's filter has three main control parameters that must be set before the filter can be used. These parameters are the mode, the cutoff frequency, and the resonance.

Filter mode. The filter mode determines which types of frequencies are removed from a tone. The most commonly used mode is the low-pass mode. This mode allows only the frequencies below a certain frequency, called the cutoff frequency, to pass through the filter. Any frequencies above the cutoff are attenuated (greatly reduced in volume) so that they are seemingly removed from the tone.

The low-pass filter mode (illustrated by Figure 9-9) produces full-bodied tones. The opposite of the low-pass mode is the high-pass mode, in which frequencies below the cutoff are suppressed while frequencies above the cutoff are passed through unaltered.

The high-pass mode causes tones to sound tinny or buzzy.

## Figure 9-9. Low-Pass Filters



Figure 9-10. High-Pass Filters
High
frequencies
Cutoff
Low
frequencies


High-pass filter

One other filter mode is the band-pass mode. In this mode, only the frequencies near the cutoff are passed through the filter. All other frequencies are attenuated. The band-pass mode produces thin, open tones.

Figure 9-11. Band-Pass Filters

| High |
| :--- |
| frequencies |

Cutoff

| Low |
| :--- |
| frequencies |



Band-pass filter

Use the F-M command to set the filter mode. This command works similarly to the WAV command. When you press the joystick button for $\mathrm{F}-\mathrm{M}$, the window displays a number for each filter mode.

## 1 L Low pass <br> 2 B Band pass <br> 4 H High pass

Type the number of the desired mode and press RETURN to enter the command. The letter indicating the filter mode appears as part of the command.

You can even select combinations of filter modes. Just add the appropriate numbers together. For example, choosing 5 sets the filter for both low- and high-pass modes. This combination is also called the band reject or notch mode.

Filter cutoff. The cutoff frequency of the filter acts as a dividing line. In low-pass mode, for example, frequencies above the cutoff are attenuated while frequencies below the cutoff are passed through unaltered. But consider what happens when the pitches of notes in a song fall right around the cutoff frequency. Notes having pitches below the cutoff are played correctly, but notes with pitches above the cutoff are not heard.

What you need is a way to set the cutoff higher or lower. The ideal setting is to place the cutoff right above the highest note to be played. That way, all of the fundamental frequencies will be below the cutoff, so all of the notes will be heard. Most of the harmonics will still be above the cutoff, so they'll be removed from the tone.

The F-C command is used to set the filter cutoff. The range of this command is $0-255$, with 0 the lowest and 255 the highest. The standard practice is to start with a value between 0 and 255, play the voice, and then move the cutoff up or down as necessary.

Resonance. The effect of resonance is to produce a sharper tone by emphasizing, or peaking, the frequencies in the tone that are close to the cutoff. Actually, the resonance control of the SID chip is not very effective and acts mainly as a way to control the volume of the voice being passed through the filter.

Use the RES command to set the resonance level. The number for this command ranges from 0 (no resonance) to 15 (maximum resonance). In most cases the value 15 is best, but
sometimes you may want to use a smaller value to produce a muted effect.

Passing a voice through the filter. Once you've configured the filter by using the F-M, F-C, and RES commands, use the FLT command to indicate that the voice should be passed through the filter. This command works a little differently from the others. Unlike the previous commands which support a number range, the FLT command gives you a simple choice of either yes (1) or no (0). Enter 1 to indicate that you want the voice to be passed through the filter.

Here's an example showing how you might use the filter. Start with the following commands.

## F-M L

F-C 255
RES 15
FLT Y
Next, enter a few notes. A simple scale is sufficient. When you play the voice, it should play normally. In low-pass mode with the filter cutoff set at the maximum value, all frequencies are passed through the filter.

Now, lower the cutoff by reducing the number for the F-C command, and play the voice again. Do this a few times, each time reducing the F-C command number by about 20 or so. The effects of filtering should gradually become more noticeable.

To stop the filtering, enter the FLT command with the number 0 to indicate that you don't want the voice to be passed through the filter. You don't have to change the mode, cutoff, or resonance settings.

## FLT N

If you want the voice to be passed through the filter later in the song, enter the FLT command with the number 1. The earlier filter settings will still be in effect, but can be changed if necessary.

Autofilter. Trying to find a proper setting for the filter cutoff can often be inconvenient and time-consuming. As an alternative to the F-C command, Sidplayer offers a special feature called the autofilter mode. When the autofilter mode is turned on, the filter cutoff is automatically set according to the pitch of each note. Since the cutoff is calculated for each note, all notes, high and low, produce the same filtering effect.

To turn on the autofilter mode, select the command AUT
and enter the number 1 . Do this instead of entering the F-C command.
F-M B
AUT 1
RES 15
FLT Y
You may also specify that an offset should be added to the cutoff. When you enter the number for the AUT command, choose any number from 1 to 127 or from -1 to -127. Different offset values give different filtering effects. The autofilter mode is turned off by the command AUT 0.

When using the autofilter feature, it's important that you turn it off whenever you stop passing the voice through the filter.

## FLT $\mathbf{N}$

AUT 0
Filter sweep. Just as pulse width sweeping changes the pulse width during a note, filter sweeping lets you increase or decrease the cutoff frequency while a note is playing.

Use the F-S command to turn on filter sweeping. The number for this command controls the sweep rate and direction, and ranges from -127 to +127 . Values of $1-127$ make the cutoff sweep upward. The larger the number, the faster the sweep. Values of -1 to -127 sweep downward. Zero turns off the sweeping.

In most cases, the best results are obtained by using small numbers for the sweep rate, such as values $1-10$. If the cutoff is swept too far, it will wrap around, but this is not as useful as it is with pulse width sweeping.

Be sure to turn the filter sweeping off when you stop passing the voice through the filter.
FLT $N$
F-S 0
Or if using the autofilter mode:
FLT $N$
AUT 0
F-S 0
Restrictions. While the SID chip has three oscillators, and can therefore play three voices, it has only one filter. There's not a separate filter for each voice. Figure 9-12 should help
you understand the arrangement. The illustration is the same as Figure 7-1 except that it has been modified to include the filter.

As shown by Figure 9-12, any voice can be passed through the filter, but only one voice should be routed through the filter at one time. Passing two or three voices through the filter at the same time can overpower it, causing it to produce an unpleasant buzzy noise.

Figure 9-12. Filtering Sound


The major drawback to using the filter is that there is extreme variance in filtering effects from one computer to another. The same filter settings can produce completely different results on different Commodore 64s. On some computers, especially the older ones, a voice can be almost inaudible when it is passed through the filter, no matter what settings are in effect. The variance lies not only in the SID chip, but in the support circuitry as well, so there's no easy way to fix the problem. If you have one of the earliest versions of the Commodore 64, you may not be able to use the filter.

## Three Demonstrations

Three demonstration songs have been provided. In the first one, a theme is played by a trumpet, a trombone, then a tuba. The other two demonstrations emulate a koto and a sitar.

## Program 9.4. BRASS.MUS

To enter this program, you must use "The Machine Language Editor (MLX)," a program found in Appendix C.
Starting Address: 49152
Ending Address: 49307
Filename: BRASS.MUS

| 52 | $8 l$ |
| :---: | :---: |
| 49158 | : Ø06, 128, ØØ1, Ø22, Ø01, Ø71 |
| 49164 | : Ø01, Ø55,150, Ø20, Ø01, 250, 233 |
| 49170 | : Ø01, Ø27,102, Ø03, Ø01, Ø44,196 |
| 49176 | : Øø1, Ø0Ø, Øø1, 252, Ø01, Ø72, 095 |
| 49182 | : Ø38, Ø01, Ø01, Ø47, Ø01, 038,156 |
| 49188 | : Ø20, 153, Ø12, 156, Ø12,164, Ø41 |
| 49194 | : $020,166, \varnothing 48,153, \varnothing 20,156, \varnothing 93$ |
| 49200 | : $048,158, \varnothing 16,156, \varnothing 20,156, \varnothing 9 \varnothing$ |
| 49206 | : Ø0, , 145, Ø0, 153, Ø01, Ø47, 16Ø |
| 49212 | : 150, $10,102, \varnothing 0 \emptyset, \emptyset 01, \varnothing 76,143$ |
| 49218 | : 166,179, Ø01, Ø34,150, Ø10, Ø94 |
| 49224 | : 166,181, Øø1, Ø34, Ø01, Ø79, 022 |
| 49230 | : Ø01, Ø79, $01, \varnothing 79, \varnothing 83, \varnothing 87,152 ~$ |
| 49236 | : $079, \varnothing 82, \boxed{68, \varnothing 32,077,079,245 ~}$ |
| 49242 | : Ø84, Ø73, Ø70, Ø13, Ø66, Ø89, 229 |
| 49248 | :032, Ø87, 065,071, 078, 069, 242 |
| 49254 | : Ø82, Ø13, Ø84, Ø82, Ø85, 777,013 |
| 49260 | : 080, 069, Ø84, Ø44, Ø32, Ø84, 245 |
| 49266 | : $082, \varnothing 79, \varnothing 77, \varnothing 66, \varnothing 79, \varnothing 78, \varnothing 63$ |
| 49272 | : 069, 044, 032, 084, 085, 066, 244 |
| 49278 | : Ø65, 013, Ø67, Ø79, Ø85, 082, Ø0 |
| 49284 | : 084, 069, Ø83, 089, 032, $082, \varnothing 59 ~$ |

$4929 \varnothing$ : $079, \varnothing 66, \boxed{69, \varnothing 82, \varnothing 84, \varnothing 32, \varnothing 38}$
49296 : $072, \varnothing 73, \varnothing 71, \varnothing 71, \varnothing 73, \varnothing 78, \varnothing 70$
$493 \varnothing 2$ : ø83,ø13,øø0,151,024,147,ø56

## Program 9.5. KOTO.MUS

To enter this program, you must use "The Machine Language Editor (MLX)," a program found in Appendix C.
Starting Address: 49152
Ending Address: 49301
Filename: KOTO.MUS
49152 : $084, \varnothing \varnothing \varnothing, \varnothing \varnothing 2, \varnothing \varnothing \varnothing, \varnothing \varnothing 2, \boxed{\varnothing, . \varnothing 88 ~}$
49158 : øø6,144, Øø1, Ø55,150,246, Ø96
49164 : Øø1,25ø, Øø1, Ø27,1ø2, Ø8ø,217
$4917 \varnothing$ : Øø1, Ø04, øø1,128, Øø1,132,ø29
49176 : Øø1, Ø08, Ø38, Ø01, Øø1,135,2ø8
49182 : Ø18, ø44, Ø86, 01ø, 016,153,1ø1
49188 : $016,156, \varnothing 16,157,016,222,107$
49194 : Ø16,157,020,156,024,157,ø60
492øø : Ø $24,222, \varnothing 20,157, \varnothing 2 \varnothing, 156,135$
49206 : Ø16,218,ø30, Øø2, Ø20, øøø, Ø84
49212 : Ø20,156,ø20,218, Ø2ø,153,135
49218 : $020,218,020,156,020,157,145$
49224 : $020,222,024,157,024,156,163$
$4923 \varnothing=024,157,024,222,020,156,169$
49236 : $020,218, \varnothing 20,153, \varnothing \varnothing 1, \varnothing 79, \varnothing 63$
49242 : $\varnothing \varnothing 1, \varnothing 79, \varnothing \varnothing 1, \boxed{79, \varnothing 74, \boxed{1} 5,133}$



49266 : $084, \varnothing 82, \varnothing 65, \varnothing 84,073, \varnothing 79, \varnothing 69$


49284 : $079, \varnothing 66, \boxed{69, \varnothing 82, \varnothing 84, \varnothing 32, \varnothing 32}$

49296 : ø83,ø13,ø13,ø13,øø0,ø78,ø88

## Program 9-6. SITAR.MUS

To enter this program, you must use "The Machine Language Editor (MLX)," a program found in Appendix C.
Starting Address: 49152
Ending Address: 49313
Filename: SITAR.MUS


```
49158 :ø01,151,150,236,ø01,250,027
49164 :ø01,ø27,102,020,\varnothing01,020,183
49170 :001,160,001,228,001,200,097
```

```
49176 :ø38,ø07,\varnothing01,135,ø50,232,231
49182 : 086,ø1\varnothing,øø6,096,030,001,003
49188 : 054,øø2,ø16,163,ø16,165,196
49194 : Ø12,153,044,161,001,015,172
492ø\emptyset : Ø3\emptyset,øø2,\varnothing54,\varnothing\varnothing2,\varnothing28,145,\varnothing53
49206 : Ø28,145,028,159,028,159,089
49212 : Ø28,158,028,158,028,157,105
49218 : 028,157,028,156,028,156,107
49224 : Ø28,155,028,155,028,154,1ø8
4923\emptyset :ø28,154,028,167,012,167,122
49236 :øø 3,ø2ø,012,153,001,015,032
49242 : Ø2\emptyset,153,02ø,153,024,153,101
49248 : Ø24,153,\varnothing28,153,\varnothing28,153,123
49254 : Ø28,153,028,153,016,153,121
49260 : 001,079,001,079,001,079,092
49266 :083,073,084,065,082,032,021
49272 : 068,069,077,079,078,083,062
49278 :084,082,065,084,073,079,081
49284 : 078,013,067,079,085,082,024
49290 : Ø84,069,083,ø89,032,.ø82,ø65
49296 : Ø79,066,069,ø82,084,032,044
493ø2 :ø72,073,ø71,ø71,073,078,076
49308 :ø83,ø13,013,ø13,ø00,137,159
```


## Repetition

As you listen to a song, you can sometimes hear a group of measures played more than once. Repetition occurs often in music, especially in contemporary songs.

The simplest form of repetition is when a group of measures is repeated immediately after being played. So that the repeated measures do not have to be written twice, special symbols are used in sheet music to indicate when a sequence of measures should be repeated. The symbol that marks the beginning of a repeat consists of two vertical lines followed by two dots (shown in Figure 9-13). The end of a repeat is marked by a symbol that looks almost the same, except that the dots come before the double lines, instead of after them.

When the music is played and the first repeat symbol is reached, the playing continues as usual. Upon reaching the end of the repeat, however, playing does not continue to the next measure. Instead, playing jumps back to the measure which had the beginning repeat symbol and continues from that point. When playing comes to the end repeat mark the second time around, it's ignored and playing continues with the next measure.

Figure 9-13. Repeats


Normally, a sequence of notes is repeated only once. There are, however, cases where a voice may repeat several times, such as in a bass line.

Sidplayer has two commands to support repeats. The beginning of a repeat should be marked by the command HED, which stands for repeat head. The number for this command determines how many times the sequence of notes is to be played. In a standard repeat, the notes are repeated once, meaning that the sequence is played a total of two times, so you would normally type the number 2 . Then you would press RETURN to enter the command and continue entering notes.

At the end of the repeat, enter the TAL command (repeat tail). There's no data value for this command, so just enter the number 0 .

When the voice is played, the sequence of notes between the HED and TAL commands plays the designated number of times.

The number entered for the HED command must fall in the range $0-255$. The number 1 means that the sequence should be played only once, which would seem to make the repeat structure unnecessary. A value of 1 is used only when you're developing a piece of music. If you keep replaying a song to listen for bad notes at the end, you don't want to wait for repeats earlier in the song, so use 1 at first (just remember to change it to the correct value before you save the final version of the song).

Using 0 with HED makes the notes repeat forever. This feature may be useful in some game applications, but should not be used in normal music, because the song will never end.

Repeats cannot be nested. Whenever you have a HED command, it has to be later followed by a TAL command before another HED can be used. It's okay for a voice to contain several repeats; you just cannot have a repeat inside a
repeat. Each voice can have its own repeat, however, so each voice can repeat independently of the others.

When repeats are used properly, there should be one repeat end for every repeat beginning. If a voice is playing and a TAL command is encountered with no previous HED command, playing will repeat forever back to the most recent HED command. If no HED command has been used at all on the current voice, playing will repeat forever back to the beginning of the voice.

Phrases. Occasionally, you'll find that a repeat has a first and a second ending. This means that one set of notes should be played at the end of the sequence the first time through, and a different set should be played the second time. The simple repeat structure of the HED and TAL commands cannot handle this-in this case, you have to use phrases.

If you consider that a repeat is a loop, then a phrase is like a subroutine. A phrase allows the same sequence of notes to be played at different places in the music. The first time the phrase is played, the beginning and end are remembered by Sidplayer. This is called defining the phrase. Later in the music when the notes have to be played again, playing can be made to jump back to the beginning of the phrase by the use of a single command. This is known as calling the phrase. When the end of the phrase is reached, playing continues with the rest of the song.

It's important to understand that there are some differences between Sidplayer phrases and BASIC subroutines. In BASIC, a subroutine is usually put at the end of a program. Every time the subroutine has to be executed, it's called by the GOSUB statement. With Sidplayer, the notes and commands that form the phrase are placed in the song at the first instance where the phrase must be played. After the phrase has played once, and is thereby defined, it can be played again by use of the phrase call.

To define a phrase, first enter the DEF command. This command needs a number in the range $0-15$. For now, just enter the command with 0 , then enter the notes which form the phrase.

After the last note in the phrase, enter the command END. Like the TAL command, the END command has no data value, so it should be entered by typing the 0 and pressing RETURN.

When playing reaches the END command, the notes have played once, the definition is complete, and the phrase is ready for calling.

To call the phrase, all you have to do is enter the CAL command with the number 0 . This one command takes the place of all the notes in the phrase.

Figure 9-14 demonstrates how phrase calling works.

## Figure 9-14. Phrases



Begin by entering the command DEF 0, followed by the notes up to but not including the first ending. Now enter the END command. The notes for the first ending come next. At this point, playing is supposed to repeat back to the beginning. Instead of entering all those notes again, just enter the command CAL 0 . Finally, enter the notes for the second ending.

When the voice plays, the phrase plays the first time. The DEF and END commands have no effect. The notes for the first ending then play. The command CAL 0 sends playing back to the first note after the command DEF 0 to play the phrase again. When the END command is reached, playing continues with the first note after the CAL 0 command.

A phrase can be called more than once. A phrase is still defined after it has been called, so it can be called as many times as necessary.

Phrases have many uses besides handling repeats with different endings. In fact, phrases are so useful that quite often 1 is not enough. Don't worry-Sidplayer can remember up to 16 independent phrases. When you enter the DEF command, the number from 0 to 15 identifies which phrase is being defined. That particular phrase can later be called by using the same phrase number with the CAL command.

If, while playing a song, a CAL command tries to call a phrase that has not been defined earlier in the music, the Editor stops with the UNDEFINED PHRASE CALL error.

The 16 phrases are shared among the three voices. For example, even though phrase 7 may be defined on voice 1 , it can also be called on voice 2 or 3 . This means that playing can temporarily jump to another voice.

This can cause a problem when you are playing individual voices. For example, if you play only voices 2 and 3 , and voice 2 contains a call defined in voice 1, playing will stop with the UNDEFINED PHRASE CALL error.

It's even possible for one phrase to call another. Phrase calls can be nested to a limit of four levels on each voice. If you try to exceed the limit, the Editor stops and reports the STACK OVERFLOW error. You can also define one phrase inside another. Be aware that a phrase definition counts as one nesting level. The only thing a phrase definition cannot do is call itself. If the definition of phrase 3 directly or indirectly contains a call to phrase 3, an infinite loop results. Playing will eventually stop with a STACK OVERFLOW error.

Phrases can be redefined. If a phrase is no longer needed, the phrase number can be used in the DEF command of a new phrase. This lets you use more than 16 phrases during the course of a song.

The STACK UNDERFLOW error occurs if DEF and END commands are not properly matched and playing comes across an END command with no previous DEF command.

Da capo, dal segno, and coda. Repeats are not the only kind of repetition. Other forms include da capo and dal segno. Da capo is indicated in sheet music by the letters D.C., and means that the playing should jump back to the beginning of the voice and continue from there, this time ignoring all repeats. The playing may be stopped before the end of the song by the use of the word fine.

Dal segno, identified by the letters D.S., means that playing should jump to the measure marked by a special sign. This sign looks like a slash with dots to either side, passing through a fancy letter $S$. Playing continues from this point, and stops either at the end of the song or at a fine, whichever comes first.

There's one other symbol often encountered when da capo or dal segno has been used. After playing has jumped back to the beginning of the voice or to a particular measure, you may encounter the message To Coda, followed by a coda symbol. The coda symbol looks like a letter $O$ with a cross
passing through it. This means that playing is going to jump to another place again, but this time, instead of jumping back, the playing skips ahead. At the end of the sheet music you should find some measures labeled as Coda, with the coda symbol shown again. Playing jumps to the first of these measures and continues to the end of the song.

Through the clever use of phrase calling, Sidplayer can handle these advanced forms of repetition. The example shown in Figure 9-15, though condensed and not necessarily typical, uses repeats, dal segno, and a coda. Below is the order in which the measures would be played.

1. The first two measures are played (the sign is ignored).
2. The next two measures are played and then repeated.
3. The following two measures are played (the coda symbol is ignored).
4. At the D.S., playing goes back to the measure which had the sign (the second measure) and continues from there.
5. When playing reaches the coda symbol, playing jumps to the coda (the last two measures) and then ends.

Figure 9-15. Repeats, D.S., and Coda


Phrases are also handy if you need to frequently alternate between two or more voice settings. A phrase can consist of only commands and no notes. Just be careful not to make a voice too complex. Too many commands, whether in a phrase or not, can cause the CLOBBER error in the fast-forward play
mode. The CLOBBER error means that processing on one voice took too much time.

One practice to avoid is defining several phrases at the beginning of a song, before any notes are played. This increases the risk of a CLOBBER error. Remember, you should not define a phrase until the first time it's needed, and then call it for all later times.

## Sophisticated Sounds

## Advanced Music Theory

Music can be defined in many ways, but one way is to say that it consists of change-changing pitches, changing durations, and changing volumes. Chapter 7 introduced these characteristics of music on a simple level.

This chapter reexamines these same characteristics, but from a broader viewpoint. For example, the volume level may not stay the same throughout a song. It may change at different places in the music. Or the tempo might change. Even the key may change during a song. Changes like these may not happen in a simple piece of music, but they certainly do occur in longer, more sophisticated works.

Now that you have some experience using the Sidplayer, it's time to look at these more advanced aspects of music. The purpose of this chapter is to cover all the remaining elements of notation commonly found in sheet music. When you finish with these descriptions and explanations, you'll be able to enter almost any piece of music with the Sidplayer and Editor.

Tempo changes. There are two kinds of tempo changes. In the first kind, the tempo changes abruptly, perhaps from a slow to a fast speed. This is most often found at the beginning of a movement or major part of a piece of music.

In the second kind of tempo change, the tempo increases or decreases gradually. This type of change is marked by the words accelerando and ritardando, which respectively mean that the tempo should start getting faster or slower. For instance, if the tempo is currently M.M. 100 and you see ritard, you might change the tempo to M.M. 94 , then change it to M.M. 90 a few notes later.

When making such tempo changes, be sure that the voices stay synchronized. Make tempo changes only at a point in the music where all three voices are starting a new note. Usually, the beginning of a measure is a suitable place to change the tempo.
(Incidentally, if the tempo is ever indicated by a half note followed by an equal sign, instead of a quarter note and equal sign, double the tempo value when entering the TEM command.)

The symbol used to briefly change the tempo is called a fermata, and looks like a narrow semicircle with a dot below it. A fermata can be placed over a particular note or rest to extend its duration. Glance at Figure $10-1$ for a sample. This is sometimes referred to as a hold.

Figure 10-1. Fermata


The easiest way to handle a fermata is to enter the corresponding note with a longer duration than written.

Dynamics. Volume changes are the most common type of change in music. As with tempo, the dynamics can change immediately or gradually. Immediate changes are indicated in the normal way, using letter combinations such as $p$ and $f f f$. Gradual changes are marked by the words crescendo and decrescendo, which respectively mean that the volume should gradually increase or decrease.

Gradual volume changes can also be denoted by symbols placed above notes, as shown in Figure 10-2.

Figure 10-2. Crescendo and Decrescendo


Use the VOL command for abrupt volume changes, when the master volume is to be changed by more than one level. For gradual changes, however, you may prefer to use the BMP command. This command is used to bump the master volume up or down one level.

When you press the joystick button while on the BMP command in the special option screen, the window indicates that 0 should be entered to bump the volume up one level, or that 1 should be entered to bump the volume down one level.

After you press the RETURN key, the command is displayed with the name $B M P$ and the letters UP or DWN.

To produce the effect of a crescendo or decrescendo, bump the volume up or down every few measures. The BMP command is also useful in repeat loops at the end of a song, where the volume has to fade out.

A BMP UP command does not change the master volume if the volume is at 15 , the highest level. Likewise, a BMP DWN command has no effect if the volume is already 0 .

Remember that the VOL command should be used on only one voice. This is also true of the BMP command.

An accent mark is the symbol used to change the volume of one note. It looks like a greater than sign (Figure 10-3). When placed above a note, it means that the note should be played just a little louder than the others.

## Figure 10-3. Accent Mark



Since there is no volume control for individual voices, accents are hard to simulate. You might set the sustain level a little higher, or sustain the note a little longer by using a smaller release point. Insert these changes before the note to be accented. After the note, reset the sustain level or release point to the previous values.

Key changes. Usually, the clef symbols are drawn at the beginning of each staff. They're followed by sharp or flat signs that indicate the key in which the music is to be played. These symbols specify the key signature.

A piece of music does not have to use just one key for an entire song. If a key signature appears somewhere in the middle of the sheet music, it's indicating a change in the key. Any previous sharps or flats are canceled, and only the sharps or flats specified by the new key signature are to be used.

Sometimes you'll see natural signs appearing in a key signature when there is a key change. These natural signs are often used when changing keys to show that the sharps and flats of the previous key no longer apply.

Since key changes are not as common as tempo or volume changes, they can be easy to miss when reading sheet music. A good suggestion is to look over the music before entering notes so that you'll be expecting a key change if there is one.

Time signatures. At the beginning of sheet music, right after the key signature, you'll often find a fraction such as $4 / 4$. The top number tells how many beats there are per measure, and the bottom number tells how many beats there are per whole note. Together, these two numbers define the time signature.

Up until now you've used only what's called $4 / 4$ time, in which each measure contains four beats, and a whole note is four beats long.

When using different time signatures, there may be more or less than four beats in every measure, and a whole note may not always be four beats long.

One of the more common time signatures is $3 / 4$ time. This is just like $4 / 4$ time, except that there are only three beats in every measure. Waltzes are always written in 3/4 time.

Changing the number of beats in a measure really does not affect Sidplayer. As long as you follow the sheet music, there should be no problem. The important thing is that each measure have the same number of beats. use the whole rest symbol as a measure rest symbol, to indicate a full measure of rest. For example, if a song is written in $5 / 4$ time and you see a whole rest, the sheet music is not wrong. It means that the rest should last for five beats.

The five-beat rest shown in Figure 10-4 would be entered as a whole rest and a quarter rest. In other time signatures, a measure rest may last for a different number of beats.

Figure 10-4. Measure Rest


When the bottom number is 4 , a whole note plays for four beats, so one-fourth of that duration, a quarter note, plays for one beat. If the bottom number is 2 , however, a whole
note is only two beats long, and a half note is one beat long. The quarter note plays for only half a beat. When the number on the bottom is 8 , a quarter note plays for two beats, and the note for one beat is now an eighth note. The tempo stays the same; the number of beats per minute remains unchanged. It's the number of beats per note that's different.

Sidplayer is designed to expect a whole note to always be four beats so that a quarter note is always one beat. There's no way to change the number of beats for these standard durations. Time signatures which have a number other than 4 on the bottom can be used indirectly, however, by fooling Sidplayer into thinking that a whole note is longer or shorter than it actually is.

Consider the time signature $2 / 2$, in which a whole note is two beats, compared to four beats in $2 / 4$. A whole note is seemingly reduced to half its normal duration. This can be achieved on Sidplayer by doubling the tempo. At faster tempo selections, more beats per minute means that each beat takes less time, so whole notes are shorter. Therefore, when the tempo is M.M. 100, $2 / 2$ time can be simulated by actually using M.M. 200. To use a time signature where the bottom number is 8 , as in $3 / 8$, the tempo should be cut in half, making whole notes play twice as long as normal.

There's another way to show a time signature without using numbers. The letter $C$ placed where the time signature belongs indicates $4 / 4$ time. The $C$ stands for common time. If the $C$ has a vertical line passing through it, it indicates $2 / 2$ time, also known as cut time.

One last word about time signatures-they can change while a song is playing. Such changes are indicated by double bars followed by a new fraction or symbol.

Accidentals. In any octave, there are 12 different pitches, including naturals, sharps, and flats. Earlier you saw that a song will use only 7 of these pitches, according to the current key. Let's retract that now. Once in a while a song may have to play a note using a pitch not in the key. The "BLUES" piece is written in the key of G , meaning that only one note is sharp (F-sharp), but the melody line had to play a C-sharp at one instance.

Special exceptions like this are handled by placing an accidental sign immediately before the note that is to be sharp or flat. This accidental overrides the current key signature for that particular pitch.

Furthermore, the effect of the accidental sign holds true for all following notes of the same pitch. A sharp sign placed in front of a C affects not only that C note but any other C notes in the same octave which may come later. The changed accidental is not permanent, though, and is canceled at the next measure.

An accidental sign used in this way affects only the designated pitch. All other pitches remain the same.

You already know how to change a natural pitch into a sharp or flat. What about the other direction-removing a sharp or flat from a pitch to make it natural? This can be done by using a natural sign. Placed in front of a note, it cancels the sharp or flat for all following notes of the same pitch, but only within the current measure.

A common mistake is to forget that an accidental on one note also affects later notes of that pitch in the same measure. To help with this problem, the Editor supports a measure feature.

The key signature level shows whether the measure feature is on or off. Press the M key to turn this feature on. Now, whenever you enter a note with an accidental, the Editor remembers that the accidental is in effect. If you enter more notes and then move back to that pitch, the accidental is automatically selected.

Since accidentals affect only those pitches in one measure, accidentals remembered by the Editor are cleared whenever a measure marker is entered.

To turn off the measure feature, press the M key again (it acts as a toggle switch). This feature can also be selected with the joystick. Push the stick up or down while in the key signature level.

There's one more possibility. Although they're not used often, it's possible to have double sharps or double flats. Changing a natural note into a sharp note is done by increasing the pitch one half step. If this is done on a note already sharp, the pitch is bumped up another half step. The symbol to indicate a double sharp looks something like a letter $X$ (shown in Figure 10-5).

Figure 10-5. Double Sharps


Two flat signs are used to indicate a double flat.
Figure 10-6. Double Flats


The double sharp and double flat signs, along with the sharp, natural, and flat signs, give a total of five different accidental signs.

The Editor does not support double sharps and double flats. When you see a note with a double sharp or flat, you must calculate the pitch that should be entered. For example, if you encounter a C-double-sharp, you should enter a Dnatural.

Double dots. A dot placed after a note means that the duration should be increased by one-half. Adding a second dot means that the value of the first dot should be increased by one-half. Thus, a double-dotted half note is equal in duration to a half note, plus a quarter note, plus an eighth note. Double dots can be used on other durations as well.

Because double-dotted notes are very rare, they're not directly supported by Sidplayer. You can simulate them, however, by entering the appropriate single-dotted note and tying it to another note of the same pitch. For example, a doubledotted C4 half note could be simulated by entering a dotted C 4 half note tied to a C 4 eighth note.

Triplets. All the durations, from whole note to thirtysecond note, are based on the number two. These durations allow notes to be played for one, two, or four beats, half a beat, and so on. This system works very well, except that it's difficult to handle durations based on the number three. To
play a note for three beats, a dotted half note can be used. But how do you play a note for one-third of a beat? Using dots will not help there. Instead, you need to use a new kind of duration called a triplet.

A triplet consists of three notes played for the amount of time normally allotted to two notes. An eighth triplet is equal in duration to two eighth notes. Because two eighth notes form one beat, each of the three notes in a triplet is one-third of a beat long.

Figure 10-7. Triplets


A sixteenth triplet means that the amount of time used for two sixteenth notes, or one eighth note, is to be divided into three equal parts. Each of the three notes in the triplet plays for that duration. Triplets based on other durations, such as quarter notes, are also possible. Triplets are always written with the number 3 above or below them.

To support the less common durations, Sidplayer has a utility duration which can be set to last any amount of time. If you want to play an eighth triplet, for example, all you have to do is set the utility duration to play for the appropriate number of jiffies, then enter the notes of the triplet using the duration marked UTILITY. Push the joystick left or right, or press the $U$ key to select this duration.

The UTL command is used to set the utility duration. The range of this command is from 0 to 255 jiffies, with 0 meaning 256. To calculate the number of jiffies for a particular duration, refer to Table 9-1, "Tempo," in Chapter 9. If you want an eighth triplet, find the jiffy count for a quarter note in the current tempo and divide that number by 3 . Enter the result for the UTL command.

Once the utility duration has been set by the UTL command on one voice, it can be used for entering notes and rests on all three voices.

The length of the utility duration stays the same until changed by the UTL command. Since the calculation of the
utility duration depends on the current tempo, the utility duration may have to be changed if the tempo ever changes.

Some tempos do not support the use of eighth or sixteenth triplets. In M.M. 128, for example, a quarter note plays for 28 jiffies. The number 28 is not evenly divisible by 3 , so a different tempo has to be used.

If only a few triplets are used in the music you're translating, try this. To play an eighth triplet in M.M. 128, set the utility duration to 9 jiffies and enter the first two notes of the triplet. Then set the utility duration to 10 jiffies and enter the remaining note. The total duration of the three notes will be 28 jiffies.

This trick of changing the utility duration can also be used to play sixteenth or thirty-second notes in tempos which do not normally support them. An eighth note in M.M. 120 plays for 15 jiffies. To play a pair of sixteenth notes in this tempo, set the utility duration to 7 jiffies for the first note and to 8 jiffies for the second note.

The default value of the utility duration is 12 jiffies, which is the length of an eighth triplet in M.M. 100.

Grace notes. If you see a note written a lot smaller than all the other notes, it's a grace note. A grace note is played very quickly, just long enough to be heard. Refer to Figure 108 for an example of a grace note.

Figure 10-8. Grace Note


To enter a grace note, enter the preceding note with a slightly shorter amount of time, then enter the grace note with the remaining duration. Generally, the utility duration must be used to do this.

In Figure 10-8, the grace note is preceded by a half note. Let's say that the current tempo is M.M. 100, in which case a half note plays for 72 jiffies. The grace note could be entered by setting the utility duration to 68 jiffies and entering the half note with the utility duration, then setting the utility duration
to 4 jiffies and entering the grace note. The total duration of the two notes ( $68+4$ jiffies) will be correct.

There's no definite rule about how many jiffies should be used for a grace note. The grace note in the example could have been played for 6 jiffies, in which case the previous note would have played for 66 jiffies.

Trills. The letters $t r$ above a note are used to indicate a trill (Figure 10-9). This means that the note should be played with the pitch rapidly alternating between the designated pitch and the next higher pitch in the current key.

Figure 10-9. Trill


Repeat loops can be useful in entering trills. To enter the trill shown in the example, a pair of thirty-second notes, in the pitches F and G, could be entered between a HED and TAL. The loop would be repeated four times.

## Portamento and Vibrato

To make the SID chip produce a pitch, a frequency number has to be POKEd into the chip's frequency registers. The frequency numbers for all eight octaves can be found in Appendix M of the Commodore 64 User's Guide (the manual that came with your Commodore 64). Every time a new note is played, Sidplayer examines the pitch of the note and POKEs the corresponding frequency number into the SID chip frequency registers.

The frequency numbers are rather large. For example, the number for middle C is 4291 . There's also a large gap between frequency numbers for each half step. The number for C-sharp is 4547, quite a jump from 4291.

All the numbers between 4291 and 4547 make the SID chip produce pitches between C and C-sharp. Normally, these pitches are never played. If Sidplayer plays a C followed by a C-sharp, the frequency number changes immediately from 4291 to 4547. But if the frequency number were to run through all the intermediate values before reaching 4547, the
pitch would make a smooth transition from the $C$ to the $C$ sharp. The pitch would glide from one note to the other.

The effect is called glissando, or portamento in synthesizer terminology. Gliding can be done between any two pitches, and can go up or down. The trombone is one instrument which does this naturally.

Sidplayer supports a portamento option for each voice. To turn on portamento, enter the POR command with a number greater than zero. Then, as each note is played, the pitch will glide up or down from the previous note until it reaches the new pitch.

The POR command number controls the glide rate. The larger the number, the more quickly the pitch glides from one note to the next.

An important characteristic of the rate number is that larger rate numbers must be used for higher pitches. If you examine the frequency numbers, you'll notice that the difference between the numbers increases as the pitch increases. To be precise, the difference doubles with each octave.

In order to get the same glide effect in each octave, the rate should be doubled or halved as necessary. For instance, if the glide rate is 100 when playing notes in octave 4 , use a glide rate of 200 for notes in octave 5 , or a rate of 50 for notes in octave 3.

The portamento feature can be turned off by entering the command POR 0.

Usually, gliding is done only a few times in a song. When done continually, the result can be rather comical, as illustrated by Program 10-1.

The effect of vibrato is to make the pitch waver slightly. The pitch repeatedly increases and then decreases by a small amount as each note plays. When done properly, the slight but steady fluctuation in pitch is barely noticeable, but it makes a tone sound more natural and alive.

Two commands are needed to control vibrato. The VDP command is used to set the vibrato depth. The number for this command ranges from 0 to 255 . The larger the number, the more pronounced the vibrato effect. The most commonly used values are 1-50. Like the glide rate, the depth number should be doubled for each higher octave, and halved for each lower octave.

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[^16]Program 10-1. ALBUMLEAF.MUS
To enter this program, you must use "The Machine Language Editor (MLX)," a program found in Appendix C.

## Starting Address: 49152 <br> Ending Address: 50159 <br> Filename: ALBUMLEAF.MUS



|  <br>  <br>  <br>  NNNXNNNNNNNM <br>  $Q Q H \because Q H \because Q H \because!$ <br>  <br>  NMin oo ion NiN N <br>  <br>  |  |  |  |
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## Program 10-2. K.C.O.MUS

To enter this program, you must use "The Machine Language Editor (MLX)," a program found in Appendix C. Starting Address: 49152
Ending Address: 49469
Filename: K.C.O.MUS


The VRT command specifies the vibrato rate, or how quickly the tone alternates between increasing and decreasing pitches. The number ranges from 0 to 255 , with 0 meaning 256. Smaller rate numbers produce faster vibrato rates. The values 1-4 are used most often.

There are no default vibrato settings, so the first time you want to turn vibrato on, both commands should be entered.

To turn vibrato off, use the command VDP 0 . You don't have to do anything to the rate when you turn vibrato off. To turn vibrato back on, just enter the VDP command again. The previous rate remains in effect until a new rate is specified by another VRT command.

Program 10-2 demonstrates a brief, but pleasant example of how vibrato can add a nice touch to a song.

## Detuning

The DTN command is used to detune a voice. Detuning is accomplished by adding a constant number, specified by the DTN command, to the frequency number of each note played.

Detuning a single voice is not very useful. All it does is make the voice play slightly out of tune. When used with two voices, however, with both voices playing the same notes but one slightly detuned, the result is a "chorus" effect. This effect was used in the "COMMODORE" demonstration song and has some interesting applications.

What's the easiest way to make two voices play the exact same notes? The answer is to use phrases. A phrase defined on voice 1 can be called simultaneously on voice 2 or 3 . You don't have to wait for playing to reach the END command before calling the phrase; the phrase is available as soon as Sidplayer has processed the DEF command.

This means that you can define the phrase on voice 1 and call it on voice 2 after having set the detune value.

## Voice 1: DEF 0 Play Notes END Voice 2: DTN 50 CAL 0

Either voice can be detuned. The DTN command can be put either before the DEF 0 or before the CAL 0 . Just make sure that the DTN command is not included in the phrase definition. You don't want both voices detuned.

When entering the DTN command, use a number from 1 to 2047 to tune the voice a little sharp. The larger the value,
the more the voice will be detuned. Values around 50 work best. Enter a number from -2047 to -1 to tune the voice flat. For most applications, the direction makes no difference.

As with the glide rate and vibrato depth, larger values have to be used for higher pitches.

Enter the DTN 0 to turn the detuning off.
The only drawback to detuning is that it takes two voices, so only one voice is left free. The effect can sometimes be worth it, though. Program 10-3 is a demonstration of just how realistic a sound can be created with your Commodore 64.

## Program 10-3. PIPERS.MUS

To enter this program, you must use "The Machine Language Editor (MLX)," a program found in Appendix C.

```
Starting Address: 49152
Ending Address: 49481
Filename: PIPERS.MUS
```



```
49158 : Ø1\varnothing,\varnothing7\varnothing,\varnothing\varnothing1,0ø6,001,135,229
49164 :ø\varnothing2,2ø\varnothing,ø38,ø\varnothing1,ø06,192,195
49170 :ø30,øø1,092,165,ø03,10ø,153
49176 :112,157,003,øø\emptyset,092,092,224
49182 :112,157,092,092,112,157,240
49188 :092,092,112,157,001,047,025
49194 :øø1,\varnothing22,ø30,\varnothingø2,ø2\varnothing,157,ø18
492ø\emptyset : Ø24,155,ø20,158,\varnothing28,159,ø8\emptyset
49206 : 024,145,020,157,024,155,067
49212 : Ø20,155,ø28,154,ø24,153,ø82
49218 :ø01,047,ø\varnothing1,ø38,ø30,ø03,186
49224 : Ø2\varnothing,157,\varnothing24,155,\varnothing2\varnothing,158,\varnothing94
49230 : Ø28,159,024,145,020,157,099
49236 :ø28,155,024,153,020,154,106
49242 :ø24,153,001,ø47,030,004,093
49248 :øø1,ø18,øø1,\varnothing54,ø30,ø05,2ø5
49254 :ø2Ø,154,024,155,02\varnothing,156,119
49260 : 028,157,024,158,02ø,157,140
49266 :ø28,155,024,153,02\varnothing,154,136
49272 :ø24,153,001,047,030,ø06,125
49278 :øø1,ø7\varnothing,02\varnothing,145,ø24,157,ø31
49284 : ø20,145,024,158,020,145,132
49290 : Ø24,157,024,155,024,154,164
49296 :024,153,001,047,030,007,150
49302 :ø01,086,020,145,024,157,071
49308 :ø2Ø,145,024,158,\varnothing24,157,172
49314 : 024,155,024,153,020,154,180
49320 :ø24,153,ø\varnothing1,047,ø30,øø8,175
```

```
49326 :øø1,066,ø30,ø09,001,050,ø75
49332 :øø1,079,166,ø65,øø1,øø2,238
49338 : Ø08,157,008,157,008,157,169
49344 :ø08,157,008,157,008,157,175
49350 : Ø\varnothing8,157,\varnothing\varnothing1,079,ø01,002,190
49356 :øø1,ø18,ø01,ø34,øø1,ø18,ø21
49362 :øø1,ø5\emptyset,ø\varnothing1,ø66,ø\varnothing1,082,155
49368 :øø1,066,øø1,ø50,ø01,079,158
49374 :ø84,072,069,ø32,082,069,118
49380 : Ø68,067,079,065,084,083,162
49386 :ø 32,ø65,ø82,069,ø32,067,ø69
49392 : 079,077,073,078,071,033,139
49398:ø33,ø33,013,066,065,071,015
49404 : Ø8\varnothing,\varnothing73,080,\varnothing69,032,068,142
49410 :ø69,077,079,078,083,084,216
49416 : Ø82,065,ø84,\varnothing73,079,078,213
49422 :ø13,ø85,ø83,ø69,083,ø32,123
49428 :ø68,ø69,ø84,ø85,078,ø73,221
49434 :ø78,ø71,ø32,ø65,078,068,162
49440 : Ø32, Ø84,ø82,\varnothing65,078,\varnothing83,2Øø
49446 : Ø8\varnothing,079,083,073,084,073,254
49452 :079,078,013,067,079,085,189
49458 : 082,084,069,ø83,089,ø32,233
49464 : 082,079,066,069,082,084,øø6
49470 :Ø32,072,073,071,071,073,198
49476 :ø78,083,013,ø00,020,151,157
```


## Transposing

Detuning works by adjusting the pitch of each note so that it's slightly sharp or flat. Transposing also changes the pitch of each note, but in quite a different way.

When a voice is transposed, the pitch of each note is shifted up or down a designated number of half steps. For example, if a voice is being transposed up one half step, all notes entered as C play as C-sharps, all C-sharps play as D, every D plays as D-sharp, and so on. If the voice is being transposed down one half step, D notes play as C-sharps, C sharps as C-naturals, C-naturals become B-naturals, and so on. You can check these alterations by tracing the transposing using Table 10-1.

## Table 10-1. Transposing

```
    C
    B
A# /Bb
    A
G#/Ab
    G
F# /Gb
    F
    E
D#/Eb
    D
C#/Db
    C
```

Transposing can be done by more than 1 half step. In a voice being transposed up by 7 half steps, for example, a note entered as $C$ will play using the pitch for $G$. Since there are 12 half steps in an octave, transposing up or down by 12 half steps makes a voice play an octave higher or lower.

The TPS command is used to specify the number of half steps a voice should be transposed. Enter this command with a number in the range 1-95 to transpose a voice up by 1 to 95 half steps. Enter -1 to -95 to transpose the voice down. Enter 0 to turn transposing off.

Transposing applies to all notes equally, so unlike some of the previous commands, the value does not need to be changed for higher or lower pitches.

There are many useful applications for the TPS command. For instance, you may sometimes see a dashed line appearing above or below a sequence of notes.

Figure 10-10. Octave Offset


The dashed line, along with the message $8 v a$ or $8 v a b a$, means that the notes should be played one octave higher or lower than written. This is done because writing the notes
with the correct pitches would require too many leger lines, and the notes would be difficult to read.

The easiest way to handle an octave offset is to enter the notes as written, and then insert a TPS 12 or TPS - 12 command at the beginning of the offset.

An interesting effect is created by having two voices play the same note, while one of the voices is transposed up one or two octaves. This produces a rich, warm tone. The effect was used in the COMMODORE demonstration song. Another possibility is to use transposing with detuning. While one voice plays a series of notes, the other plays the same notes, but is detuned and transposed up one or two octaves. Programs $10-4$ and 10-5 use the technique to imitate a calliope and an accordion.

## Synchronization

In the previous section, it was mentioned that a rich, warm tone can be created when two voices play the same notes and the second voice is transposed up by 12 or 24 half steps. But if you try this technique with the second voice transposed up by other numbers of half steps, like 6,11 , or 13 , the resulting tone sounds less than desirable.

The reason that the pleasant tone is produced only when the second voice is transposed up an octave or two is because the voices become synchronized. Remember that the frequency of a note is doubled when it's played an octave higher. When two voices play the same notes, one an octave higher, the direct relationship between the frequencies causes the tones to be synchronized.

The tone produced by two synchronized voices sounds rich and warm because it contains more harmonics than usual. The second voice augments the harmonics of the first one. This method of adding harmonics to a tone is called additive synthesis. (Filtering is called subtractive synthesis because the filter removes harmonics from a tone.)

Synchronization occurs naturally at intervals of 12 half steps, but it can be made to occur at any half-step interval if the synchronization mode of the SID chip is turned on. The advantage to using the synchronization mode is that different half-step intervals produce different harmonic patterns. Synchronization, therefore, lets you produce many new types of tones.

The SNC command is used to control the synchronization
mode. Enter 1 (yes) to turn the mode on.
A specific procedure must be followed in order to synchronize two voices. Let's say that you want to synchronize voices 1 and 2. First, define voice 1 to be a phrase. On voice 2 you should enter the SNC YES command and the TPS command. Choose any number of half steps, such as 8 . Then call the phrase that was defined on voice 1 .
DEF on voice 1
SNC on voice 2
TPS on voice 2
CAL on voice 2
Play the two voices several times, each time transposing voice 2 by a different number of half steps, to hear the various types of tones that can be created. Each waveform produces different effects when synchronized, so you might also try changing the waveform.

Both voices should have the same envelope, but they do not have to have the same waveform. For example, you might use a square wave on voice 1 and a triangle wave on voice 2.

To synchronize voices 1 and 3 , use this procedure:
SNC on voice 1
TPS on voice 1
DEF on voice 1
CAL on voice 3
Use this procedure to synchronize voices 2 and 3:
DEF on voice 2
SNC on voice 3
TPS on voice 3
CAL on voice 3
It's very important that you use only these procedures. Synchronization will not work correctly if the SNC or TPS commands are used on the wrong voice. Also, only positive transpose values should be used. Negative values do not seem to be very useful.

When you want to stop using the synchronization mode and return to normal playing, enter the SNC command with the value 0 (no) to turn the mode off. Do this on the voice which earlier turned the mode on. You may also want to enter a TPS 0 command to cancel the transposing.

Program 10-6 uses different half-step intervals and different waveforms to demonstrate some of the effects possible with synchronization.


[^17]Program 10-4. CALLIOPE.MUS
To enter this program, you must use "The Machine Language Editor (MLX)," a program found in Appendix C.

## Starting Address: 49152

Ending Address: 49481
Filename: CALLIOPE.MUS







## Program 10-5. BISTRO.MUS

To enter this program, you must use "The Machine Language Editor (MLX)," a program found in Appendix C.
Starting Address: 49152 Ending Address: 49523
Filename: BISTRO.MUS























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## Ring Modulation

A ring modulator takes two frequencies and produces two new frequencies in their place. The new frequencies are the sum and difference of the originals. For example, if a ring modulator is given frequencies of 200 and 300 Hz , it will produce the frequencies of 100 and 500 Hz , but not 200 or 300 Hz .

Sometimes it can be hard to discern the pitch of a ringmodulated tone. The two frequencies may be interpreted by your ear as a single pitch, but the frequency corresponding to that pitch is not one of the two produced by the ring modulation, so it does not really exist.

Ring-modulated tones are useful for creating percussion effects. Bells, chimes, steel drums, and various instruments made of metal, wood, or glass can be approximated.

When used simultaneously with synchronization, a whole new set of tone colors (timbres) is available.

To use ring modulation, a definite procedure must be followed. Two voices must play the same sequence of notes, just like when using the synchronization mode. With ring modulation, however, only voices 1 and 3 can be used.

Voice 1 is used to supply the waveform and envelope of the ring-modulated tone, plus one of the two frequencies needed for the process. The first thing voice 1 should do is select the triangle waveform. This waveform must be used in order for ring modulation to work.

Since ring-modulated tones are used mainly for percussion effects, a nonsustaining envelope should be selected.

Finally, enter the command RNG with the value for Yes to turn ring modulation on. Voice 1 is now ready to start playing notes. These notes should be put in a phrase definition so that they can be called by voice 3 .

Voice 3 is used only to supply the second frequency needed for ring modulation, so the waveform and envelope of voice 3 do not have to be set. In fact, it's best to turn off the output from this voice completely, by using the 3-O (3 OFF) command. Enter this command with the value for Yes at the beginning of voice 3 . The frequencies of notes played by voice 3 are still used in the ring-modulation process, but the output from voice 3 itself is not heard. Voice 3 can now call the phrase defined in voice 1.

Here's an example sequence of commands that could be entered to use ring modulation.

Voice 1
WAV T
ATK 0
DCY 9
SUS 0
RLS 9
PNT 1
RNG Y
DEF
Voice 3
3-O Y
CAL
As with synchronization, different tone types can be produced by using the TPS command. With ring modulation, however, transposing one voice can cause the resulting pitch to be out of tune, so it's often necessary to transpose the other voice as well to bring the pitch back in tune.

Table $10-2$ is a chart ordered by increasing half-step intervals. For each interval, the appropriate transpose values for voices 1 and 3 are given.

Table 10-2. Transpose Values for Use with Ring Modulation

| Halfstep <br> Offset | V1 <br> TPS | V3 <br> TPS | Highest <br> Note |
| :--- | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| -20 | 7 | -13 | E7 |
| -19 | 7 | -12 | E7 |
| -18 | 7 | -11 | E7 |
| -17 | - | - |  |
| -16 | 6 | -10 | F7 |
| -15 | 6 | -9 | F7 |
| -14 | 6 | -8 | F7 |
| -13 | - | - |  |
| -12 | 0 | -12 | B7 |
| -11 | - | - |  |
| -10 | 2 | -8 | A7 |
| -9 | 4 | -5 | G7 |
| -8 | 2 | -6 | A7 |
| -7 | 7 | 0 | E7 |
| -6 | 10 | 4 | C\#7 |
| -5 | 0 | -5 | B7 |
| -4 | 2 | -2 | A7 |
| -3 | - | - |  |
| -2 | - | - |  |
| -1 | - | - |  |


| 0 | 0 | 0 | B7 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 1 | -1 | 0 | B7 |
| 2 | - | - |  |
| 3 | - | - |  |
| 4 | 0 | 4 | G7 |
| 5 | -5 | 0 | B7 |
| 6 | 4 | 10 | C\#7 |
| 7 | 0 | 7 | E7 |
| 8 | - | - |  |
| 9 | -5 | 4 | G7 |
| 10 | 4 | 14 | A6 |
| 11 | - | - |  |
| 12 | 0 | 12 | B6 |
| 13 | - | - |  |
| 14 | -4 | 10 | C\#7 |
| 15 | -5 | 10 | C\#7 |
| 16 | 0 | 16 | G6 |
| 17 | -5 | 12 | B6 |
| 18 | 1 | 19 | E6 |
| 19 | 0 | 19 | E6 |
| 20 | - | - |  |
| 21 | - | - |  |
| 22 | -2 | 20 | Eb6 |
| 23 | 4 | 27 | G\#5 |
| 24 | 0 | 24 | B5 |
| 25 | - | - |  |
| 26 | 0 | 26 | A5 |
| 27 | 1 | 28 | G5 |
| 28 | 0 | 28 | G5 |
| 29 | - | - |  |
| 30 | -5 | 25 | Bb5 |
| 31 | 0 | 31 | E5 |
| 32 | -5 | 27 | G\#5 |
| 33 | 1 | 34 | C\#5 |
| 34 | 0 | 34 | C\#5 |
| 35 | 0 | 35 | C5 |
| 36 | 0 | 36 | B4 |
| 37 | 0 | 37 | B 64 |
| 38 | 0 | 38 | A4 |
| 39 | 0 | 39 | G ${ }^{\text {4 }}$ |
| 40 | 0 | 40 | G4 |

The transpose values for some of these intervals are close approximations and don't produce a distinct pitch, which is why they're best used for percussion effects. Those intervals
for which no satisfactory transpose values could be found have been marked with a dash (-).

When the transpose value for a voice is 0 , no TPS command has to be entered for that voice.

The rightmost column tells you the highest note that can be played using the given transpose values. For example, when the 9 half-step interval is used, only notes up to G7 should be used. Notes above G7 won't play properly.

You can transpose the tone up or down one or more octaves by adding a multiple of 12 half steps to each transpose value. Let's say that you are using the 26 half-step interval, in which the transpose values are 0 and 26. Adding -12 half steps gives the transpose values -12 and 14 .

Be aware that the effect of ring modulation may vary from one octave to another. Notes played in one octave may sound quite different when played with the same half-step interval in a different octave.

By now you might be wondering just what ring-modulated tones sound like. Program 10-7 is a demonstration that uses the 26 half-step interval.

Only a few of the half-step intervals listed in Table 10-2 produce very pleasant or useful sounds. Too often, the sound produced by one interval includes an undesirable high-pitched tone. But if you pass the ring-modulated tone through the filter, with the filter mode set to low pass, the squeal can be eliminated. Most of the intervals listed in the table then become useful.

Use the filter on voice 1 only. Here are some example settings.
F-M L
AUT 1
RES 15
FLT $\mathbf{Y}$
Try using different filter modes, including combinations. Also try different cutoff settings on the AUT command. The resonance value set by the RES command can be adjusted to take some of the "bite" out of a tone.

Since there are so many variable factors, some experimentation will be needed. This can be worthwhile, however, because you'll discover some timbres that you've never heard
before from the SID chip. Some intervals to try are the intervals with $-7,28$, and 38 half steps.

One remaining possibility is to use synchronization and ring modulation at the same time. This technique yields yet another set of timbres.

To use both modes simultaneously, follow this procedure.

## Voice 1

WAV T
SNC Y
RNG Y
TPS
DEF

## Voice 3

3-O Y
CAL
The triangle waveform is still required, but now any envelope can be used. Also, every half-step interval produces a usable tone, so you can disregard Table 10-2. The transposing always stays in tune, so it has to be done only on voice 1. As with synchronization, however, negative transpose values are not very useful.

To turn ring modulation off, enter the command RNG N on voice 1 . Enter the command $3-\mathrm{O}$ N on voice 3 to reenable the output of that voice. The command TPS 0 should be entered on those voices that were being transposed. If you were also using the filter, enter the commands FLT N and AUT 0 on voice 1 . Or, if you were using synchronization, enter the command SNC N on voice 1.

Whether used alone, with the filter, or with synchronization, the ring-modulation feature of the SID chip can produce some very interesting sounds. Program 10-8 is just one more example of the techniques.

## Advanced Techniques

This section explores some new uses for the commands introduced in the previous chapters. The techniques suggested here should give you an idea of just what's possible with Sidplayer.

Waveform. Probably the most overlooked waveform is the noise waveform. Although this waveform does not have a definite pitch quality, its character does change as the pitch is
changed. High pitches produce a hissing sound, whereas low pitches create more of a rumble.

An interesting use of the noise waveform is to play whitenoise notes with different pitches to create a repeating percussion line. The sequence of notes should use short durations and should repeat every one or two measures. With just a little effort, you can create a fancy rhythm that adds a nice touch to a song.

The character of the noise waveform can be altered significantly by passing it through the filter. Try this with the filter set for the high-pass mode.

As for the other three waveforms, one possibility is to use two waveforms at the same time on the same voice, with the objective of creating new types of sounds. Unfortunately, only the combination of triangle and pulse waves is audible.

To select the triangle and pulse wave combination, enter the WAV command with the number 5 ( 1 for triangle plus 4 for pulse). This waveform sounds a lot like the pulse wave with the pulse width set to about 200, but with more of a buzz.

When a voice is playing with the triangle/pulse combination, the pulse width acts as a volume control for the voice. Setting the pulse width above 2048 makes the voice inaudible; smaller values make the voice sound louder.

Envelope. Thus far, you've concentrated on emulating conventional instruments. A synthesizer, however, is capable of producing any kind of sound, natural or unnatural.

One way to make a voice sound unnatural is to use a backward envelope, as shown in Figure 10-11. Such an envelope has a slow attack rate and a very fast release rate.

Figure 10-11. Backward Envelope



[^18]
## Program 10-7. HOLST.MUS

To enter this program, you must use "The Machine Language Editor (MLX)," a program found in Appendix C. Starting Address: 49152 Ending Address: 49415
Filename: HOLST.MUS

|  |  |
| :---: | :---: |
|  |  |
|  |  |
|  |  |
|  |  |
|  |  |
|  |  |
| 49194 | : $02 \varnothing 148$ |
| 200 | : 02ø,145,02ø,146,ø16,1 |
|  | :016,22 |
| 212 | : 020.22 |
| 918 | : $\varnothing$ |
|  | : $\quad 1$ |
| $23 \varnothing$ | :ø16 |
|  | :ø16 |
|  | :øø |
| 248 | : $020,149, \varnothing 1$ |
| 25 | : 020.211 |
|  |  |
| 66 | :ø |
|  |  |
|  |  |
|  |  |




 HNQNHHNNNNNNNNQQMHHHHHHMQHHMNNQ







Program 10-8. PROMENADE.MUS
To enter this program, you must use "The Machine Language Editor (MLX)," a program found in Appendix C.

## Starting Address: 49152

 Ending Address: 49625Filename: PROMENADE.MUS
: $990, \varnothing \varnothing 1, \varnothing \varnothing 2, \varnothing \varnothing \varnothing, \varnothing 18, \varnothing \varnothing \varnothing, 111$







If you've ever heard a recording of a song played backward, you've heard the backward envelope. This type of envelope is not characteristic of any normal instrument.

A major drawback to the SID chip is that there's no master volume control for each voice. To some extent, the sustain level can be used as a voice volume control. Select sustain levels less than 15 to make a voice a little quieter. You may also want to adjust the decay rate so that the volume does not drop from the peak to the sustain level too rapidly.

One other technique is to experiment with the attack rate and release point so that each note is released before the volume hits the peak level (before the attack phase is complete). In order for this to work, the release rate must be set so that each note fades to complete silence before the next note begins. As you might guess, this isn't an easy technique to use.

Filter. Pin 5 of the monitor jack can be used to send an audio signal to the SID chip. This input signal is mixed with the output from the three voices before being sent to the master volume control.

If you want to pass the external audio signal through the filter, use the F-X command. This command works just like the FLT command, and accepts a yes/no data value.

Since using an external audio input is an advanced application of the SID chip, you'll rarely use the F-X command.

Portamento. When the portamento feature is turned on, the pitch glides from one note to the next. The starting pitch of the glide is the pitch of the previous note, and the ending pitch is the pitch of the new note. For example, if a G note is played after a $C$, the pitch will start at $C$ and end at $G$.

The absolute set pitch command can be used to change the starting pitch of a glide. In the earlier example, a command to absolutely set the pitch at E could have been placed between the notes $C$ and $G$. When the $G$ was then played, the pitch would have glided from $E$ to $G$, instead of from $C$ to $G$.

Unlike the other commands, the absolute set pitch command is entered from the editing screen. To absolutely set the pitch, select the name, accidental, and octave of the pitch, change the duration so that it reads ABS SET, and press the joystick button.

Although this command is entered like a note, it is still a command because it has no duration. The command is entered
like a note because the editing screen offers a convenient method of specifying a pitch.

One application of this command is to create pitchbending effects. To bend the pitch of a note, turn portamento on, set the pitch one half step below the pitch of the note, play the note, and turn portamento off. Another application is discussed later, in the section on synchronization.

The absolute set pitch command has no effect on playing when the portamento feature is turned off.

Vibrato. An advanced technique to use with vibrato is to change the depth of the vibrato during a note.

Let's say that a voice is playing a whole note. Break the whole note into four quarter notes. Enter the first quarter note with a tie, and follow it with a VDP command to set the vibrato depth. Do this again for the next two quarter notes, each time using a larger depth value. Enter the last quarter note without a tie.

When played, the tied quarter notes sound like a whole note, and the different VDP commands make the vibrato effect deepen gradually. The result is a more natural vibrato effect.

Remember to reset the vibrato depth for the next note.
Detuning. Sidplayer can play a note using any frequency, including frequencies between the normal half steps. Just choose a note with a pitch near the desired frequency, and use the DTN command to set a frequency offset value. Refer to Appendix M of the Commodore 64 User's Guide to find the frequency number for each pitch.

As an example, let's say that you want to play a note with a frequency of 500 Hz . Use the following formula to calculate the corresponding frequency number.

## Frequency number $=$ Frequency/0.06097

The frequency number for 500 Hz is $500 / 0.06097$, or 8201. The pitch with the closest frequency is B4, which has the frequency number 8101 . Therefore, to play a note at 500 Hz , all you have to do is enter the command DTN 100 followed by the note B4.

Transposing. By using the TPS command, it's possible to play notes in a ninth octave. If you play notes in octave 0 after entering the command TPS -12 , the notes will actually play in octave -1 .

It's very hard to hear the pitch of notes in octave 0 , and
even harder to hear notes in octave -1 , so this technique is probably useful only for creating special effects.

Unfortunately, this technique won't work with notes above octave 7. If a note is transposed into octave 8 , it's still played in octave 7.

One other possibility is to play a phrase in different keys by entering the TPS command with the correct number of half steps before each phrase call.

Synchronization. When two voices are synchronized by the sync mode, a rather unusual effect can be created by using portamento on the voice which adds the harmonics.

One technique is to enter an absolute set pitch command before each note. The command should set the pitch one octave below the pitch of the following note so that the pitch glides up one full octave when the note is played. This technique was used in the song "ETAL" in Chapter 7.

Future expansion. The AUX command is reserved for possible future expansion. At present, this command is ignored by Sidplayer.

Uncommon instruments. Sidplayer can emulate instruments which are no longer commonly used. Program 10-9, for example, imitates instruments that were popular in the late Renaissance period.

Sound effects. Sidplayer can be used to produce sound effects as well as music. Program 10-10 demonstrates white noise to produce an explosion.

Phonetics. Certain combinations of frequencies are associated with different vowel sounds, as demonstrated in Program 10-11.

More than three voices. The most serious limitation of the SID chip is that it supports only three voices. Many classical music pieces can be played with three voices, but most of today's songs need at least four.

Sometimes when a song has to play four notes, one of the notes can be eliminated without significantly affecting the music. When a note in the bass clef is also played a couple of octaves higher in the treble clef, the treble clef note can be dropped. If the treble clef contains notes which do not seem to be part of the melody, try deleting them. When it's not obvious which note should be dropped, experiment.





## Program 10-9. COURANTE.MUS

To enter this program, you must use "The Machine Language
Editor (MLX)," a program found in Appendix C.
Starting Address: 49152
Ending Address: 49679
Filename: COURANTE.MUS



[^19]|  NNNNNMロ <br>  Nへべがのジッ <br>  NMNMNNOM <br>  <br>  <br>  NONONNNQ <br>  <br>  <br>  <br>  |
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## Program 10－11．YOY．MUS

To enter this program，you must use＂The Machine Language Editor（MLX），＂a program found in Appendix C．

## Starting Address： 49152

Ending Address： 49295
Filename：YOY．MUS


Contemporary sheet music is often written with two treble staves and one bass staff. The top treble staff usually has just the notes for the melody, and the other one has the melody notes plus extra notes for chords. If you enter the top treble staff and the bass staff, you'll still have one voice free for percussion effects.

A clever technique is to have one voice play both a bass part and percussion part. Bass notes can be played on each beat, and percussion effects, such as snare drum strikes, can be played on the off beat. To make this as easy as possible, define a phrase which selects a nonsustaining envelope with the noise waveform, plays a note, and then resets the envelope and waveform. To enter the voice, just enter bass notes separated by phrase calls.

Instrument parameters. Table 10-3 lists suggested values for emulating different instruments. Filter values may have to be adjusted for your particular computer. This list is by no means complete; many other instrument settings are possible and can be found by experimentation.
Table 10-3. Sidplayer Instrument Parameters


# Music and Your BASIC Program 

## Merging Sidplayer with BASIC Programs

Run Sidplayer, and while it's playing a song, press the RUN/STOP key. The music still plays, even though the program has stopped. Now type LIST. The music continues as the program is listed on the screen. Enter a few more statements, such as POKEs to change the screen colors, and then enter the CONT command to make Sidplayer resume. Perhaps not the most exciting demonstration you've seen, but it does illustrate something important.

Sidplayer has been designed so that it can play music while BASIC executes commands, statements, or even a whole program. Every $1 / 60$ second, BASIC processing is temporarily set aside and Sidplayer is allowed to process the music. When the music processing is done, BASIC resumes. Since this happens 60 times a second, the continual interruption of BASIC is too fast to be noticeable. BASIC and the Sidplayer appear to be executing simultaneously.

Although this technique causes BASIC processing to run a little slower than normal, it does make it easy to add music to games, adventures, or educational programs. And that can enhance your own BASIC programs.

Load and play procedure. To demonstrate how to merge Sidplayer with a BASIC program, let's begin with a simplified Player program. The Player listed in Program 11-1 contains only the statements necessary to load and play a song, and can be readily merged with another program.

```
Program 11-1. SID.BAS
For error-free program entry, be sure to use "The Automatic Proofreader," Appendix D.
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|}
\hline \multirow[t]{2}{*}{100} & \multicolumn{2}{|c|}{SIDPLAYER" : PRINT} \\
\hline & \{SPACE\}CRAIG CHAMBERLAIN":PRINT & : rem 173 \\
\hline 120 & DN=8: \(\mathrm{SA}=780\) : \(\mathrm{SX}=781: S Y=782: S P=783\) & :rem 134 \\
\hline 130 & GOSUB 57000:REM LOAD SIDPLAYER & : rem 251 \\
\hline \(2 \varnothing 0\) & F\$= COMMODORE " : LA = PEEK ( 49 ) +256*P & +1000:G \\
\hline & OSUB 57500:REM LOAD SONG & : rem 242 \\
\hline 210 & SYS HK:REM HOOK (INSTALL) & :rem 220 \\
\hline
\end{tabular}
220 POKE SX,LO:POKE SY,HI:SYS PL:REM SET FOR PLAYI
    NG :rem 225
```

```
23ø K=PEEK(SX)+256*PEEK(SY):REM GET ADDRESS OF TEX
    T LINES :rem l71
24Ø IF PEEK(K) THEN PRINT CHR$(PEEK(K));:K=K+l:GOT
    O 24Ø:REM PRINT UNTIL CHR$(Ø) :rem 27
250 POKE SS,7:REM START MUSIC :rem 252
26\emptyset IF PEEK(SS)AND7 GOTO 260:REM STILL PLAYING
                :rem 216
270 SYS DP:REM DROP (REMOVE) :rem 158
280 END :rem ll3
57øø\emptyset POKE SA,1:POKE SX,DN:POKE SY,1:SYS 65466:F$=
    "SID.OBJ":GOSUB 59øø\emptyset :rem lØ6
57ø1\emptyset POKE SA,0:SYS 65493:IF PEEK(SP)ANDI GOTO 591
    \emptyset\emptyset :rem 126
57ø2\emptyset SS=49152:HK=49435:PL=49458:DP=49629:RETURN
                                    :rem 77
571ø\emptyset GOSUB 57øø\varnothing:POKE SX,LA-256*INT(LA/256):POKE
    {SPACE}SY,INT(LA/256):SYS 51042 :rem 218
57110 LA=LA+1398:RETURN :rem lll
57500 POKE SA,l:POKE SX,DN:POKE SY,0:SYS 65466:F$=F\$+".MUS":GOSUB 59øøø
                                    :rem 61
57510 HI=INT(LA/256):LO=LA-256*HI :rem 137
57520 POKE SA,0:POKE SX,LO:POKE SY,HI:SYS 65493:IF
                PEEK(SP)ANDl GOTO 591ø\emptyset :rem 49
57530 LA=PEEK(SX)+256*PEEK(SY):RETURN :rem 29
590\emptysetø FOR K=1 TO LEN(F$):POKE 584+K,ASC(MID$(F$,K)
    ):NEXT :rem 88
59@1\emptyset POKE SA,LEN(F$):POKE SX,73:POKE SY,2:SYS 654
    69:RETURN :rem 6
591め\emptyset P=PEEK(SA):PRINT " ERROR: ";:IF P=4 THEN PRI
    NT "FILE NOT FOUND":END :rem 2ø\emptyset
5911\emptyset IF P=5 THEN PRINT "DEVICE NOT PRESENT":END
                                    :rem 36
5912Ø PRINT ST:END :rem 70
```

When adding this to your own program, all of the lines before line 57000 can be renumbered to start at any place in the program. The lines starting at 57000, however, must not be renumbered.

The program begins with the standard assignments for using tape or disk I/O and assigns values to variables to be used with SYS (line 120).
DN $=8: S A=780: S X=781: S Y=782: S P=783$
Change the statement $\mathrm{DN}=8$ to $\mathrm{DN}=1$ if you are using the Datassette.

The next step is to load the Sidplayer machine language into memory (line 130 of Program 11-1).

This subroutine loads the "SID.OBJ" file, and also assigns the variables SS, HK, PL, and DP. These four variables are used later in the program. If you're using tape, be sure to position the tape to the spot where SID.OBJ begins. Disk users must have the proper disk in the drive.

Before you can load a song into memory, the music filename and the LOAD address must be set. Assign the name of the music file to the variable F\$ (line 200). Do not include the .MUS extension as part of the filename.

## F\$="COMMODORE"

Now calculate the LOAD address (line 200). LA $=$ PEEK(49) +256 *PEEK(50) +1000

The LOAD address is the address of free memory, plus 1000 bytes for a safety margin. This is the address in memory where the music file will be stored.

Call the subroutine at line 57500 to actually load the song (line 200). Again, be sure the proper disk is in the drive or that the tape is positioned properly. If you assigned F\$ as above for a demonstration, make sure that the "COMMODORE.MUS" file is on that disk or tape.
GOSUB 57500
Besides loading the requested music file, the subroutine at 57500 also assigns the variables LO and HI to be the low and high bytes of the LOAD address. These variables are used later in the program.

At this point, everything has been loaded into memory. There's still a little bit of preparation which must be done before the playing can begin.

## SYS HK

This statement (line 210) calls the Sidplayer HOOK routine, which installs Sidplayer as part of the normal interrupt processing that's done every $1 / 60$ second.
POKE SX,LO:POKE SY,HI:SYS PL
The PLAY (SYS PL) routine tells Sidplayer where the song begins in memory, and sets all the default values, such as tempo and volume. It also returns the address of the text lines in locations SX and SY. It's not necessary to print the text lines in order to play the song, so the next two program lines (lines 230 and 240) are optional. If you do want to print the text lines, the program should start displaying characters at the returned address and stop when it reaches a CHR\$(0).

The song is now ready to start playing. The following statement makes the playing begin (line 250).

## POKE SS,7

Location SS is the Sidplayer status value. The last three bits of this location control voice processing.

| Voice | SS Bit | POKE Value |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 1 | 0 | 1 |
| 2 | 1 | 2 |
| 3 | 2 | 4 |

When a bit is set, the corresponding voice plays. Playing for that voice stops when the bit is cleared, or set to 0 . An individual voice can be played by POKEing location SS with the value 1,2 , or 4 . To play all three voices, POKE SS with $1+2+4$, or 7 .

Playing continues as long as the three bits are set. Playing can be stopped at any time by POKEing SS with a 0 . The bits are automatically cleared by Sidplayer when it reaches the end of the song or if an error occurs.

Program 11-1 simply loops until the three bits in SS are cleared when the end of the song is reached, but anything can be done during this time. The program could draw pictures on the screen, change the colors, or move sprites.

After a song is done, it can be replayed if you like. Just call the PLAY routine and set the three status bits again. Use this line:

## POKE SX,LO:POKE SY,HI:SYS PL:POKE SS,7:REM REPLAY

When playing is finished, call the DROP routine to remove Sidplayer from the interrupt processing.

## SYS DP

The DROP routine undoes everything done by the HOOK routine and restores the interrupt processing to normal.

You must be careful in using the HOOK and DROP routines. Do not call the HOOK routine if Sidplayer is already installed. Also, do not call the DROP routine if Sidplayer has already been removed or has not yet been installed. The correct order is HOOK, PLAY, then DROP. Calling these routines in the wrong order can cause the computer to crash.

While a song is playing, BASIC is free to execute any statements and do any processing you wish. The only restrictions concern using string variables and tape or disk I/O. If
string variables are assigned frequently, the program should periodically call the free memory function, as in $K=\operatorname{FRE}(0)$, to reorganize free memory. Otherwise, the string data may interfere with the free memory used for storing the song.

The processing that's done every $1 / 60$ second is handled differently when the computer is communicating with the Datassette or disk drive. Therefore, tape or disk files should not be accessed while a song is playing.

The flag command. Sometimes it would be convenient if a BASIC program could determine which part of a song Sidplayer is currently playing. Such information would be helpful in synchronizing screen displays to the music. What's needed is a method of communication between Sidplayer and the BASIC program.

The BASIC program can control Sidplayer by setting or clearing the three status bits in location SS. For communication from Sidplayer to the BASIC program, the FLG command is available. This command is entered in the Editor with a number from 0 to 255 . When playing reaches the command, Sidplayer POKEs the number into location SS+1, the flag location. The BASIC program can monitor this location to watch for specific values and change the screen accordingly.

Several FLG commands may be used in a song. The general procedure is to wait for the value in the flag location to change, update the screen, wait for the next value, and so on. To detect a change in the flag location, a few different methods can be used.

The first is to wait for a specific value to be POKEd into the flag location, as in:

## 400 IF PEEK(SS+1)<>2 GOTO 400

This method requires a direct correspondence between the flag values in the music and the values being checked in the program. Usually, the flag commands will use incrementing numbers, so the BASIC program would first watch for the value 1 , then for the value 2 , and so on.

Another method is to disregard the value in the flag location and just wait for it to change. This can be done in two ways.

```
400 P = PEEK(SS + 1)
410 IF PEEK(SS+1)=P GOTO 410
```


## 400 POKE SS $+1,0$

410 IF PEEK(SS + 1) $=0$ GOTO 410
The advantage of this method is that you don't have to remember the exact flag values used in the music.

One other method is to use the WAIT statement:
400 WAIT SS $\mathbf{+ 1 , 1 : R E M}$ WAIT FOR ODD NUMBER
or
400 WAIT SS $+1,1,1:$ REM WAIT FOR EVEN NUMBER
The advantage of using the WAIT statement is that you don't have to use a whole program line. Other statements can be placed after the WAIT. (Refer to Chapter 4 for more details on WAIT.) The only drawback is that the flag values must alternate between even and odd numbers.

To show how to merge music with a BASIC program and how to use the FLG command, we've provided a demonstration program. Actually two programs-the first, Program 11-3, is a BASIC program which uses colorful screen displays and sprites while the music plays. Enter Program 11-3 first, especially if you're using tape.

The other part of the demonstration is a music file, listed as Program 11-2. It must be entered with MLX and saved as SCIPIO.MUS. This song contains FLG commands on voice 1.

Since Program 11-3, "SIDDEMO," must first load SID.OBJ and then SCIPIO.MUS, tape users must position the tape to the start of SID.OBJ before running the program. The subroutine beginning at line 900 was included so the program will prompt tape users to advance the tape to SCIPIO.MUS once SID.OBJ is loaded. If you use a disk drive, just make sure SIDDEMO, SCIPIO.MUS, and SID.OBJ are all on the same disk.

Remember to change line 120 to $\mathrm{DN}=1$ if you have a Datassette.

## Program 11-2. SCIPIO.MUS

To enter this program, you must use "The Machine Language Editor (MLX)," a program found in Appendix C.
Starting Address: 49152
Ending Address: 50051
Filename: SCIPIO.MUS

49164
4917Ø
49176
49182
$49188: 012,158,030,063,070,003,050$

49200 : 088,157,116,158, $088,159,046$
49206 : $080,158,116,157,088,092,233$
49212 : Ø30, Ø05,044,155,001,047,086
49218 : Ø01, 022, Ø80,158,030, Ø06,107
49224 : 070, 005,116,159,088,081,079
49230 : 080,146,080, Ø81, 080,159,192
49236 : Ø30, Ø07,076,158,012,157,Ø12
49242 : Ø01, Ø47, Ø30, 008,116,092,128
49248 : $088,155,116,154,088,157, \emptyset 86$
49254 : $080,092,116,155,088,154, \varnothing 19$
49260 : Ø30, Øø9, 044,154, Ø01, Ø94,184
49266 : $080,084,030,010,070,000,132$
49272 : 080,147, , $80,146,084,081,226$
49278 : $084,146,080,147,030,011,112$
49284 : $076,158,012,157,030,012,065$
49290 : Ø8 , 092, Ø84,157, 084, Ø92,215
49296 : $080,155,080,154,030,013,144$
49302 : $044,158,08 \emptyset, 147,030,014,111$
49308 : $116,159,088,158,116,159,184$
49314 : $088, \varnothing 81, \boxed{0} \varnothing, 159, \varnothing 80,158,04 \varnothing$
49320 : $93 \varnothing, \varnothing 15, \varnothing 44,159, \varnothing 80, \varnothing 81, \varnothing 65$
49326 : $030,016,08 \emptyset, 146,084,081,099$
49332 : $084,159, \boxed{0} 0,081,116,159,091$
49338 : $088,158,030,017,044,158,169$
49344 : Ø16,157,ø30,018,001,0ø3,161
49350 : $07 \varnothing, \varnothing \varnothing 1,116,092, \varnothing 88,155,208$
49356 : 116,092,024,157,ø16,092,189
49362 : Ø16,155,ø3ø,ø19,øø1,øø3,178
49368 : Ø12,157, Ø12,ø92,ø3Ø,ø20, Ø27
49374 : øø1, øø3, Ø16,159,ø16,158,ø63
49380 : 016,157,016,092,030., 21,048
49386 : Øø1, øø3, Ø44,155,øø1,174,1øø
49392 : Ø16,158, 030,022,070, 000, Ø24
49398 : $116,159, \varnothing 88,081, \varnothing 16,146, \varnothing 84$
49404 : Ø16, Ø81,016,159,030,023,065
49410 : Ø12,158,012,157,ø30,024,139
49416 : $116,092,088,155,116,154,217$
49422 : $088,157, \varnothing 80,092,116,155,19 \varnothing$
49428 : $088,154, \varnothing 30, \varnothing 25, \varnothing 44,154, \varnothing 03$
49434 : Øø1,142,øø1,øø2,øø1,øø3,176
$4944 \emptyset$ : Øø1, Ø18,Ø01,174,116,092,178
49446 : $088,155,006,128,116,154,173$
49452 : $088,157, \varnothing 80, \varnothing 92, \varnothing \varnothing 6,160,115$
49458 : $116,155,088,154,044,154,249$

| 49464 |  |
| :---: | :---: |
| 49470 | : øø1,136, $38,008, \varnothing 01, \varnothing 38, \varnothing 28$ |
| 49476 | :ø30, Ø01, $16,000, \varnothing 30, \varnothing 02,147 ~$ |
| 49482 | : Ø01,252,ø12,154,012,155,148 |
| 49488 | : Ø3Ø, øø , $044,092, \varnothing \varnothing 1,228,222$ |
| 49494 | : $08 \varnothing, \varnothing 89, \varnothing 30, \varnothing \varnothing 4, \varnothing 80,154, \varnothing 11$ |
| 4950ø | : $080.089,080,154,116,155,254$ |
| 49506 | : $088,154, \varnothing 30, \varnothing 05, \varnothing 44, \varnothing 89,252$ |
| 49512 | : $080,089,030,006,116,154,067$ |
| 49518 | : $088,155,116,092,088,157,038$ |
| 49524 | : $080,158,080,089,030, \boxed{107,048}$ |
| 49530 | :ø16,154, Ø12,154,ø16,089,051 |
| 49536 | : Øø1, 047, 030, $008,016,166,140$ |
| 49542 | : $016,167,016,154,016,165,156$ |
| 49548 | : $030, \varnothing 09,044,100,080,158,049$ |
| 49554 | : $030,010,076,158,012,158,078$ |
| 49560 | :ø30,ø11,016,154,012,154,017 |
| 9566 | : $116,089, \varnothing 30, \varnothing 12, \varnothing 16,154,219$ |
| 49572 | :ø16, $00,016, \varnothing \varnothing \varnothing, 016,000,212$ |
| 49578 | : Ø30, 013, $080,089,080,154,104$ |
| 9584 | : $016,155, \varnothing 80, \varnothing 81,03 \varnothing, \varnothing 14,04 \varnothing$ |
| 49590 | : $080.092, \varnothing 80,155,080,092,249$ |
| 49596 | : $080,092,030,015,080,093,066$ |
| 9602 | : Ø8ø, 09ø, ø16,155, 080,155,øø2 |
| 49608 | : $030,016,012,158,016,158,073$ |
| 49614 | :052,093,024, Ø0ø, ø30,017,166 |
| 49620 | : $080,089,080,154,016,155,018$ |
| 49626 | : $016,089,030,018,012,089,216$ |
| 49632 | : $012, \varnothing 89, \varnothing 30, \varnothing 19, \varnothing 12,154, \varnothing 28$ |
| 49638 | : $016,154,016,089, \varnothing 30,020,043$ |
| 49644 | : $012,154,016,089,016,154,165$ |
| 49650 | : $030, \varnothing 21,044,089,016,089,019$ |
| 49656 | : $030,022,116,154,088,155,045$ |
| 49662 | : 116, 092, ø24,157,016,158,049 |
| 9668 | : Ø16, 089, ø30, ø23, 016,154,076 |
| 49674 | : Ø12,154, Ø16, $089, \varnothing 30, \varnothing 24,079$ |
| 49680 | : $052,154,024, \varnothing \varnothing 0, \varnothing 52,167,209$ |
| 49686 | : $024, \varnothing \varnothing 0, \varnothing 80,154,052,089,165$ |
| 496 | : $024,000,030,025,044,100,251$ |
| 49698 | : Ø01, Ø34, Ø30, 022, 052,154,071 |
| 49704 | : Ø24, Øøø, Ø52,167,024, øøø,051 |
| 49710 | : Ø80,154, Ø52, $089,024,000,189$ |
| 497 | :ø30, $023,016,100, \varnothing 16, \varnothing 00,237$ |
| 49722 | :ø16, $000,016,000, \varnothing 01,079,170$ |
| 49728 | :006,112,001,136,038,008,109 |
| 49734 | : øø1, $054, \varnothing 30, \varnothing \varnothing 1, \varnothing 16, \varnothing 0 \emptyset, 172$ |
| 49740 | : 030, øø2, 012,162,012,097,135 |
| 49746 | : Ø30, ø0 , 044,175,016,174,012 |
| 49752 | :ø30,004,016,162,016,163,223 |
| 49758 | :ø16,1ø0,016,165,030,005,170 |


| 49764 |  |
| :---: | :---: |
| 49770 | : Ø16,1øø, Ø30, Ø06, $16,175,193$ |
| 49776 | : 016,167,016,166,016,165,146 |
| 49782 | : $030,007,012,1 \varnothing 0,016,163,190$ |
| 49788 | :ø16,166,001,047,030,008,136 |
| 49794 | : Ø16,162,016,165,016,166,159 |
| 49800 | : $016,174,030,009,016,162,031$ |
| 49866 | : $016,174,016,17 \varnothing, \varnothing 80,154,240$ |
| 9812 | : $030, \varnothing 1 \varnothing, \varnothing 80,089, \varnothing 80,167,092$ |
| 49818 | : $080,166,080,165,030,011,174$ |
| 49824 | : $076,1 \varnothing 0,016,163,016,166,185$ |
| $4983 \varnothing$ | : $030,012,080,162,080,162,180$ |
| 49836 | :080,097,080,175,030,013,135 |
| 49842 | : $080,174,080,175,016,097,032$ |
| 49848 | : $080,174, \varnothing 30, \varnothing 14, \varnothing 80,162,212$ |
| 49854 | : 080,097,080,162,080,175,096 |
| 49860 | :030,015,080,163,080,100,152 |
| 49866 | : $016,101,080,166,030,016,099$ |
| 49872 | : $080,1 \varnothing 0, \varnothing 80,162,080,163,105$ |
| 49878 | :080,171,030, $177,080,174,254$ |
| 49884 | : 080,175,ø16,097,ø16,174,ø1ø |
| 49890 | : ø30, ø18,116,162,088,097,225 |
| 49896 | : $116,162,024,163, \varnothing 16,162,107$ |
| $499 \emptyset 2$ | :ø16,ø97,ø30,ø19,ø12,175,ø75 |
| 9 | : $112,174, \varnothing 30, \varnothing 2 \varnothing, 016,165$ |
| 49914 | : $116,1 \varnothing 0,016,163, \varnothing 16,162,211$ |
| 49920 | : $030,021,016,166,016,163,156$ |
| 49 | : $016,174,016,100,030,022,108$ |
| 49932 | : $16,175,016,167,016,166,056$ |
| 49938 | : $1616,165, \varnothing 30,023,012,100,1 \varnothing 8$ |
| 49 | : $016,163,016,166,030,024,183$ |
| 49950 | : $16,162,016,173,016,174,075$ |
| 499 | : $16,174, \varnothing 30, \varnothing 25,016,162,2 ø 3$ |
| 49962 | : $16,174, \varnothing 16,17 \varnothing, \varnothing \varnothing 1,050,213$ |
| 49968 | : $016,162,016,173,016,174,093$ |
| 49974 | : $16,174, \varnothing 7 \varnothing, \varnothing \varnothing 1, \varnothing 16,162,237$ |
| 4998 ¢ | : $070, \varnothing \varnothing 2, \varnothing 16,174, \varnothing 7 \varnothing, \varnothing \varnothing 3,139$ |
| 49986 | : $16,170, \varnothing 16, \varnothing \varnothing \varnothing, \varnothing \varnothing 1, \varnothing 79, \varnothing 92$ |
| 49992 | : $077,065,082,067,072,032,211$ |
| 499 | : $070, \boxed{21, ø 79,077,032,034,196}$ |
| $50 \square 04$ | : $083,067,073, \boxed{00,073,079,027}$ |
| 50010 | : Ø34, 013, ø71, $046,070,046,114$ |
| 500 | : $032, \boxed{2} 2,065, \varnothing 78, \varnothing 68, \boxed{69,224}$ |
| 50022 | : Ø76, 013, ø67, $719,085,082,248$ |
| 50028 | : $084,069,083, \boxed{99, ø 32,072,025 ~}$ |
| 50034 | : $065, \varnothing 82,082, \varnothing 89, \varnothing 32, \varnothing 66, \varnothing 18$ |
| 50040 | : $082, \varnothing 65,084, \varnothing 84, \varnothing 13, \varnothing 13,205$ |
| $\varnothing \varnothing$ | :øøø,162,ø16,164,ø3ø, øø2,244 |

## Program 11-3. SIDDEMO <br> For error-free program entry, be sure to use "The Automatic Proofreader," Appendix D.

1øø PRINT CHR\$ (147):PRINT " SIDPLAYER DEMONSTRATIO N" :rem 171
$11 \emptyset$ PRINT " BY CRAIG CHAMBERLAIN":PRINT ..... : rem 65
$12 \emptyset$ DN=8:SA=78Ø:SX=781:SY=782:SP=783 ..... : rem 134
13ø CY=214:DIM C\$(15):FOR K=ø TO 15:READ P:CS(K)=CHRS (P) : NEXT :rem 83$14 \varnothing$ GOSUB 57øøø:F\$="SCIPIO":GOSUB 9ø0:LA=PEEK(49)+256*PEEK (50) +1øøø: GOSUB 575øø :rem 171
150 SYS HK:POKE SX,LO:POKE SY,HI:SYS PL :rem 17Ø2øø PRINT CHR\$(147):POKE 5328ø, $:$ POKE 53281, Ø:rem 156
210 FOR K=832 TO 894:READ P:POKE K,P:NEXT :rem 54
$22 \emptyset$ FOR K=ø TO 7:POKE 2ø4Ø+K,13:READ C:POKE 53287+K,C :rem 50
230 POKE 53248+K*2,(34+K*40)AND255:POKE 53249+K*2,$7 \varnothing+$ RND $(\varnothing)$ * $2 \varnothing$ : NEXT: rem 93
240 POKE 53264,192:POKE 53271,ø:POKE 53277, 0
:rem 37
250 FOR K=1 TO 3:POKE CY,3:PRINT:PRINT TAB(5) C\$(K ) "PRESENTING..." :rem 44
$26 \emptyset$ FOR J=1 TO 2ø:NEXT J,K:FOR K=1 TO 750:NEXT
: rem 8
$27 \varnothing$ FOR K=ø TO 3:POKE CY, 3:PRINT:PRINT TAB(5) C\$(3
-K) "PRESENTING..." : rem 141
280 FOR J=1 TO 2ø:NEXT J,K:FOR K=1 TO 3ø0:NEXT:POK
E SS, 7:FL=SS+1 :rem 126
$3 \emptyset \emptyset$ FOR K=1 TO 3:POKE CY,6:PRINT :rem 55
$31 \varnothing$ IF PEEK (FL) <>K GOTO 310 :rem 189
32ø PRINT TAB(10) C\$(K) "SIDPLAYER":NEXT:WAIT FL,l
, 1:PRINT:PRINT :rem 97
$33 \varnothing$ WAIT FL, $1:$ PRINT TAB(10) "A COMPLETE":PRINT TAB
(10) "MUSIC SYSTEM" :rem 226
$34 \varnothing$ PRINT TAB(1ø) "FOR THE COMMODORE 64" :rem $2 \varnothing \varnothing$
4øø WAIT FL,1,1:PRINT CHR\$(147):POKE 53269,255:POK
E CY,8:PRINT
: rem 52
$41 \varnothing$ PRINT "FEATURES:":PRINT:PRIN'P "JOYSTICK OR KEY
BOARD NOTE ENTRY":PRINT :rem 194
415 PRINT "SUPPORTS ANY TIME SIGNATURE": PRINT
:rem 139
$42 \varnothing$ PRINT "MEASURE EDITING":PRINT:PRINT "TRANSPOSI
NG BY HALF STEPS": PRINT :rem 179
430 PRINT "EASY INSERT/DELETE/REPLACE EDITING":PRI
NT :rem 71
440 PRINT "SIMPLE ENOUGH FOR A NOVICE TO USE":PRIN
$T$ :rem 60
$45 \varnothing$ POKE $53249+\operatorname{INT}(\operatorname{RND}(\varnothing) * 8) * 2,7 \varnothing+\operatorname{RND}(\varnothing) * 2 \varnothing: \operatorname{IF}$ PEE
$K(F L)=\varnothing$ GOTO $45 \emptyset \quad$ :rem 24

5øØ POKE 53269, Ø:PRINT CHR\$(147):PRINT:PRINT:PRINT "PLUS..." :rem 69
51ø FOR K=5 TO 13 STEP 2:READ S\$:POKE CY,K:PRINT:P RINT TAB(1ø) $\mathrm{S} \$ \quad$ :rem 134
$52 \varnothing$ POKE CY,K:PRINT:PRINT TAB(10);:FOR J=1 TO 1ø:P RINT CHR\$(20); :rem 19Ø
$53 \emptyset$ FOR I=1 TO 2ø:NEXT I,J,K:PRINT:PRINT:PRINT :rem 63
$54 \emptyset$ WAIT FL,l,l:PRINT "AND BEST OF ALL,":PRINT "MU SIC CREATED BY SIDPLAYER" :rem 140
$55 \emptyset$ PRINT "CAN BE MERGED WITH":PRINT "YOUR BASIC P ROGRAMS":WAIT FL,l :rem 57
6øØ PRINT CHRS(147):POKE CY,1ø:PRINT:PRINT " SIDPL AYER"; :WAIT FL,l,1 :rem 24
610 PRINT TAB(15) "SIDPLAYER";:WAIT FL,l:PRINT TAB (30) "SIDPLAYER":WAIT FL,1,1 :rem 58
$63 \varnothing$ PRINT CHRS(147):FOR K=1 TO 23:PRINT C\$(RND(ø)* 12+4) " SIDPLAYER" :rem 183
640 FOR J=1 TO $30: N E X T$ J,K :rem 121
$65 \emptyset$ FOR K=22 TO Ø STEP -1:POKE CY,K:PRINT :rem 3Ø
$66 \emptyset$ PRINT TAB(15) C\$(RND(ø)*12+4) "SIDPLAYER":FOR \{SPACE\}J=1 TO $30: N E X T$ J,K :rem $2 \varnothing 2$
$67 \emptyset$ POKE CY, $:$ :PRINT:FOR K=1 TO 23:PRINT C\$(RND(ø)* 12+4) TAB(30) "SIDPLAYER" :rem 185
$68 \emptyset$ FOR J=1 TO $30:$ NEXT J,K :rem 125
690 IF PEEK (FL) <>1 GOTO 690 :rem 185
7øø PRINT CHR\$(147):POKE CY,16:PRINT:PRINT TAB(25)
C\$(3) "THAT'S":WAIT FL,1,1 :rem 92
710 PRINT TAB(27) "ALL,":WAIT FL, 1:PRINT TAB(25) " FOLKS!"
720 IF PEEK(SS)AND7 GOTO $72 \varnothing$ :rem 32
730 SYS DP:PRINT CHR\$(147) CHRS(154);:POKE 53280,1 4:POKE 53281,6£END :rem 228
$8 \emptyset \emptyset$ DATA $144,151,152,155,5,28,30,31,129,149,150,15$ 3,154,156,158,159 :rem 235
$81 \varnothing$ DATA $\varnothing, 3,192, \varnothing, 3,224, \varnothing, 3,24 \varnothing, \varnothing, 3,12 \varnothing, \varnothing, 3,56, \varnothing$, $3,28, \varnothing, 3,12, \varnothing, 3, \varnothing, \varnothing, 3, \varnothing$
:rem 155
$82 \varnothing$ DATA $\varnothing, 3, \varnothing, 7,227,0,31,251,0,63,255,0,127,255, \varnothing$ $, 127,255,0,127,254, \varnothing \quad$ :rem 75
$83 \varnothing$ DATA $63,252, \varnothing, 31,248, \varnothing, 7,224, \varnothing, \varnothing, \varnothing, \varnothing, \varnothing, \varnothing, \varnothing$
:rem 160
840 DATA $10,7,4,13,5,3,8,15 \quad$ :rem 32
850 DATA "ENVELOPES AND WAVEFORMS","REPEATS AND PH RASES" :rem 166
860 DATA "AUTOMATIC FILTER MODE","GLISSANDO AND VI BRATO" :rem 140
870 DATA "MANY OTHER FEATURES" :rem 19
9øØ IF DN=8 THEN RETURN :rem 62
$91 \varnothing$ PRINT "POSITION TAPE TO THE BEGINNING OF":PRIN T F\$; " THEN PRESS RETURN" :rem Ø


The halt command. With the FLG command, the BASIC program waits until Sidplayer reaches a certain point in the music. An alternative is to have the playing stop and wait until the program is ready for the music to continue. This is possible with the HLT command.

HLT is used to stop the playing on a particular voice. When processed, this command clears the corresponding status bit and sets the frequency to 0 to reduce the background noise of the SID chip. To make the playing continue, the BASIC program can simply set the status bit again.

Multiple songs. Once a song is through playing, it's a simple matter to load and play another song. Just assign the name of the new song to $\mathrm{F} \$$, recalculate the LOAD address and assign it to LA, and call the subroutine at 57500 . To play the song, follow the standard HOOK, PLAY, and DROP procedure.

Another possibility is to hold more than one song in memory at the same time. The only limit to the number of songs that can be stored in memory simultaneously is the amount of free memory available. When the subroutine at

57500 loads a song, it changes the value of LA to the address of the first free byte after the song, which is the address where the next song should be loaded. This makes it easy to load one song after another.

Load the first song in the usual way.
F\$ = "SONG1":LA = PEEK(49) + 256*PEEK(50) + 1000:GOSUB 57500
Remember the values of LO and HI for later use.
$\mathrm{L} 1=\mathrm{LO}: \mathrm{H} 1=\mathrm{HI}$
To load the second song, assign the new filename to F , but don't change the value of LA. Call the subroutine at 57500, and remember the new values of LO and HI.
F\$="SONG2":GOSUB 57500:L2=LO:H2 = HI
This procedure can be repeated as many times as necessary. To play one of the songs, just POKE the appropriate low and high byte values into locations SX and SY before calling the PLAY routine.

## 400 SYS HK:REM INSTALL SIDPLAYER <br> 410 POKE SX,L1:POKE SY,H1:SYS PL:POKE SS,7:REM START SONG1 <br> 420 IF PEEK(SS)AND7 GOTO 420:REM WAIT UNTIL SONG1 ENDS <br> 430 POKE SX,L2:POKE SY,H2:SYS PL:POKE SS,7:REM PLAY SONG2 <br> 440 IF PEEK(SS)AND7 GOTO 440:REM WAIT UNTIL SONG2 ENDS <br> 450 SYS DP:REM REMOVE SIDPLAYER

Compatibility. Sidplayer uses memory from location 49152 to location 51199, and zero page addresses 251 through 255 . Sidplayer should be compatible with other utilities, such as machine language routines for bitmapped graphics drawing or sprite animation, as long as they don't use these memory locations.

Since the bitmapped graphics routines published in this book use some of the same memory as Sidplayer, there would seem to be a problem. Fortunately, it's possible to relocate a portion of Sidplayer to free memory so that there's no conflict.

To load and relocate the Sidplayer machine language, calculate the LOAD address, assign it to the variable LA, and call the subroutine at 57100 . Do this instead of calling the subroutine at 57000 .

## 200 LA = PEEK(49) + 256*PEEK(50) + 1000:GOSUB 57100

The subroutine loads SID.OBJ into memory, then moves a portion of it to the specified address in free memory. After the relocation, only memory from 49152 to 49663 is used by Sidplayer.

The subroutine at 57100 also sets LA to the address of the first free byte after the Sidplayer code. Therefore, the LOAD address should not be changed when the song is loaded.

## 210 F\$="SONG":GOSUB 57500

The song is now ready to be played.
If you're using bitmapped graphics shapes, the procedure is just a little more complicated. The normal procedure to load a shape file is to assign the name of the shape file to F , calculate the LOAD address and assign it to LA, and call the routine at 56500 . When using shapes with Sidplayer, the same procedure should be used, except that the value of LA should not be changed.

## 220 F $\$=$ "SHAPES":GOSUB 56500

## Utility Programs

Here are four utility programs to help with song debugging and music file management. Although they may look similar to those utilities offered in the bitmapped graphics and sprite sections of this book, they are for use only with Sidplayer music files.

Each program, as listed, is set to work with the disk drive. To make a program work with tape, find the statement $\mathrm{DN}=8$ near the beginning of the program and change it to $\mathrm{DN}=1$.

Lister. The bottom level of the editing screen can display only a few notes at a time. Sometimes it would be helpful to see more notes at one time. This would make it easier to search for a particular note or command, such as a phrase definition, and would also make it easier to find mistakes, such as a measure with the wrong number of beats.
"Lister," Program 11-4, is used to list the notes and commands of the three voices in a music file. Although the notes are not displayed in the grand staff format, the program does let you see one or two full measures at a time when the listing is shown on the screen. The listing can also be sent to a printer for permanent reference.

Tape users should remember to change $D N=8$ to $D N=1$ in line 820 when entering the program.

## Program 11-4. Lister

For error-free program entry, be sure to use "The Automatic Proofreader," Appendix D.
$32 \varnothing$ PRINT\#1,S $\$: I F$ J THEN S $\$="$ ":GOTO 31ø :rem $9 \varnothing$
$33 \varnothing \mathrm{~B}=\mathrm{LA}+6: I F$ SV>1 THEN $\mathrm{B}=\mathrm{B}+\mathrm{FNDP}(\mathrm{LA}): \mathrm{IF}$ SV=3 THEN
\{SPACE\}B=B+FNDP(LA+2) :rem løl
332 FOR V=SV-1 TO 2:PRINT\#1," VOICE";V+l:MD=ø
:rem $2 \varnothing$
$335 \mathrm{~T}(1)=12: \mathrm{N}=144:$ FOR $\mathrm{J}=2$ TO $7: \mathrm{T}(\mathrm{J})=\mathrm{N}: \mathrm{N}=\mathrm{N} / 2: \mathrm{NEXT}$
:rem 196
$34 \varnothing$ FOR K=B TO B+FNDP(LA+2*V)-2 STEP $2: \mathrm{N}=\mathrm{FRE}(\varnothing)$
:rem 43
$35 \varnothing \mathrm{~N}=\operatorname{PEEK}(\mathrm{K}): \mathrm{N} 2=\operatorname{PEEK}(\mathrm{K}+\mathrm{l}): \mathrm{J}=12:$ ON N AND 3 GOTO 5ø
0,530,690
:rem 164
$4 \emptyset \varnothing \mathrm{~T}=\mathrm{N} 2$ AND $7: \mathrm{S} \$="\{5$ SPACES $\}$ "+MID\$("RCDEFGAB", $\mathrm{T}+1$
,1)+" " :rem 117
$41 \varnothing$ IF $\mathrm{T}=\varnothing$ THEN S $\$=\mathrm{S} \$+"\{4$ SPACES $\}$ ": GOTO $43 \varnothing$
:rem 184
$420 \mathrm{~S} \$=\mathrm{S} \$+\mathrm{MID}(\mathrm{SS} \mathrm{F} ", \mathrm{~N} 2 / 64,1)+\mathrm{STR}(\mathrm{NOT} \mathrm{N} 2 / 8$ AND 7)
+" " :rem 164
$43 \varnothing \mathrm{~T}=\mathrm{N} / 4$ AND 7:IF $\mathrm{T}=\varnothing$ THEN PRINT\#1,S\$;"ABS":GOTO
\{SPACE\}48ø :rem 132
44Ø S\$=S\$+MID\$("UWHOEST",T,1):IF N AND 32 THEN S\$=
S\$+" D":GOTO 46曰 :rem 248
$450 \mathrm{~S}=\mathrm{S} \$+$ "\{2 SPACES\}" :rem 51
$46 \varnothing$ IF N AND 64 THEN S $\$=S \$+"$ T" :rem $2 ø 9$
$47 \varnothing$ PRINT\#1,S\$:MD=MD+T(T):IF N AND 32 THEN MD=MD+T
( $\mathrm{T}+1$ ) :rem 57
$48 \varnothing$ NEXT K:B=B+FNDP(LA+2*V):PRINT\#1,"\{5 SPACES\}MEA
SURE DURATION:";MD:PRINT\#1:NEXT V :rem 34
490 CLOSE 1:END :rem 85
5øø N=N2:IF (N AND 15)=7 THEN T=INT(N/32)*3+1:ON (
( N AND 16)=ø) +2 GOTO 57ø,575 :rem 185
$51 \varnothing \mathrm{~J}=1: \mathrm{IF}$ ( N AND 7)=3 THEN T=INT(N/16):PRINT\#1,"
\{5 SPACES\}";CN\$(28+T);:GOTO 58Ø :rem 16
$53 \varnothing$ IF (N AND AM(J)) <>CM(J) THEN J=J+l:GOTO $53 \varnothing$
:rem $2 ø 6$
$54 \varnothing$ PRINT\#1,"\{5 SPACES\}";CN\$(J);:IF J<7 THEN PRINT
\#1,(N AND NOT AM(J))/16;
:rem $2 \varnothing 7$

840 FOR K=1 TO 27:READ AM(K), CM(K):NEXT:LA=PEEK (49
)+256*PEEK (5ø)+1øøØ ..... : rem 57: rem 69
860 S\$=S\$+".MUS":FOR K=1 TO LEN(S\$):POKE 584+K,ASC(MID\$ $(S \$, K)$ ) :NEXT $\quad$ rem 9
865 POKE SA,LEN(S\$):POKE SX,73:POKE SY,2:SYS 6546987ø POKE SA, Ø: POKE SX,LA-256*INT(LA/256): POKE SY,L
A/256:SYS 65493 :rem 242
875 PRINT:IF (PEEK (SP)ANDI)=ø GOTO 3øØ :rem 161
880 PRINT " ERROR:";:T=PEEK(SA):IF T=4 THEN PRINT\{SPACE\}"FILE NOT FOUND": GOTO 49ø :rem 112
882 IF T=5 THEN PRINT "DEVICE NOT PRESENT":GOTO 49$\varnothing$885 PRINT ST:GOTO $49 \emptyset$
:rem 233
9ØØ DATA DECAY RATE,RELEASE RATE,CALL PHRASE,DEFIN
E PHRASE,RESONANCE ..... :rem 13
902 DATA MASTER VOLJUME,REPEAT TAIL,PHRASE END,HALT,ATTACK RATE,SUSTAIN LEVEL :rem 102
$91 \varnothing$ DATA PULSE WIDTH,DETUNE ,TEMPO,UTILITY DURATION,RELEASE POINT: rem $22 \varnothing$
912 DATA REPEAT HEAD,FLAG,PULSE WIDTH SWEEP ,"FILTER CUTOFF SWEEP " :rem 9
914 DATA VIBRATO DEPTH,VIBRATO RATE,AUTOFILTER ,TRANSPOSE ,AUXILIARY :rem 173
916 DATA FILTER CUTOFF,"MEASURE DURATION:":rem lø5
$92 \varnothing$ DATA BUMP VOLUME,FILTER,RING MODULATION,SYNC MODE,EXTERNAL FILTER,3OFF :rem $4 \varnothing$
$93 \emptyset$ DATA $15, \emptyset, 15,8,15,2,15,6,15,10,15,14$ :rem 148
932 DATA 255,15,255,47,255,79 :rem 169
934 DATA 135,4,135,132 ..... : rem 58
940 DATA $15,2,15,1 \varnothing, 255,6,255,22,255,38,255,54,255$,70,255,86,255,1ø2 :rem 28
942 DATA $255,118,255,134,255,15 \emptyset, 255,166,255,182,3$1,14,63,30:rem 15ø

Once run, the program first asks for an output device number. Enter 3 for the screen, or 4 for the printer. For now, just press the RETURN key to choose 3, the default value displayed in parentheses.

The next prompt asks for the name of the file to be listed. As always, do not include the .MUS extension as part of the filename. A good song to examine for purposes of explanation is COMMODORE.MUS, Program 7-4.

Lister then requests a starting voice number. Usually a listing begins with voice 1 , but sometimes you may want to
skip voice 1 or voice 2 . Enter the number of the first voice you want to list, or just press the RETURN key to start at voice 1. The program loads the requested file and begins the listing.

Each note is listed by its name, accidental, octave number, and duration.
C S 4 Q (C sharp, octave 4, quarter note)
The first letter specifies the note name, and can be a letter $A$ through $G$ or the letter $R$ for rest. If the note is sharp or flat, S or F is displayed after the note name. The octave number, $0-7$, comes next, followed by a letter for the duration. The duration can be W, H, Q, E, S, T, or U. Respectively, these letters stand for whole, half, quarter, eighth, sixteenth, and thirty-second notes. $U$ represents the utility duration.

If the note is dotted, a D shows after the duration. If the note is tied, the note listing ends with a T .
C S 4 Q D T (C sharp, octave 4, quarter note, dotted, and tied)
Commands are listed with their full names. If a command has a data value, such as a number or yes/no indication, the value is placed after the command name.

## TEMPO 90 <br> WAVEFORM T

Measure numbers are displayed at the left edge of the listing, separate from the notes and commands. This makes it easy to find a particular measure. At the end of each measure, the total jiffy count for that measure is printed. This number is affected by the tempo and the time signature. For example, COMMODORE.MUS is written in $4 / 4$ time and is played in M.M. 90. If you refer to Table 9-1, four beats at tempo 90 give a total of 160 jiffies. That's why the measure duration for each measure in COMMODORE.MUS is 160 jiffies.

If you're listing a song and one of the measures has a different jiffy count from the others, it could be an indication that the measure doesn't have the correct total number of beats. Either a duration is wrong, a note is missing, or there's an extra note.

The measure duration feature won't work properly when repeats or phrases are used. Also, the total number of jiffies for a measure may change from one voice to another if the TEM command is not used on each voice.

If the listing goes by too fast, you can make the screen scroll slower by pressing the CTRL key. If that's still too fast, or if you want to stop the listing, just hit the RUN/STOP key. Enter CONT to make the listing continue.

To send the listing to the printer, enter 4 in response to the OUTPUT DEVICE prompt. Make sure that the printer is connected and turned on.

If you have an RS-232 printer instead of a parallel printer, you may have to change the OPEN statement in line 805 of the Lister.

Merge. The Editor has a limited amount of memory available for editing a song. Some songs may be just too long for it to handle. The solution is to edit the song in sections, and then merge the sections together.
"Merge," Program 11-5, is used to combine two or more music files into one larger file. This file can then be played by the Player. Another use of Merge is to copy a music file from one tape to another tape or from one disk to another disk. The program can also be used to transfer a song from tape to disk.

Tape users must change line 120 so that $\mathrm{DN}=1$.

## Program 11-5. Merge

For error-free program entry, be sure to use "The Automatic Proofreader," Appendix D.

```
1ø\emptyset PRINT CHR$(147):PRINT " SIDPLAYER MUSIC FILE M
    ERGE UTILITY" :rem 9
11\emptyset PRINT " BY CRAIG CHAMBERLAIN":PRINT :rem 65
12\emptyset DN=8:SA=78\emptyset:SX=781:SY=782:SP=783:TA=\emptyset:TB=\emptyset:DIM
        LA (3),LB(3)
                                :rem 98
130 DEF FNH(N)=INT(N/256):DEF FNL(N)=N-256*INT(N/2
    56)
        :rem 2ø6
140 DEF FNDP(N)=PEEK(N)+256*PEEK(N+1) :rem 62
150 FOR K=49152 TO 49313:READ N:POKE K,N:NEXT:MB=4
    9152:BG=49263
        :rem l5
16\varnothing S=\emptyset:D=\varnothing:L=\emptyset:BA=FNDP (49)+1\emptyset\emptyset:MT=FNDP (51)-1\varnothing\emptyset
                                    :rem 134
3ø\emptyset F$="":INPUT " LOAD FILENAME";F$:IF LEN(F$)>12
    {SPACE}GOTO 3øø :rem 98
310 GOSUB 6\emptyset\emptyset:POKE SA,\emptyset:POKE SX,FNL(BA):POKE SY,FN
    H(BA)
:rem 232
320 SYS 65493:IF PEEK(SP)ANDI GOTO 7øø :rem 85
330 FOR V=1 TO 3:LA (V)=FNDP (BA+2*V-2):TA=TA+LA (V):
    NEXT:A=FNDP(SX) :rem 79
4ø\emptyset F$="":INPUT " APPEND FILENAME";F$:IF LEN(F$)>1
    2 GOTO 4\emptyset\emptyset :rem 252
410 PRINT:IF F$="" GOTO 5øø :rem 164
```

 $43 \varnothing$ FOR V=1 TO 3:GET\#1,L\$,H\$:LB(V)=ASC(L\$+CHRS(ø)) +256*ASC(H\$+CHR\$(ø)) :rem 222
$435 \mathrm{TA}=\mathrm{TA}+\mathrm{LB}(\mathrm{V})-2$ : NEXT : rem 59
$44 \varnothing$ IF TA>MT-BA THEN PRINT " ERROR: NOT ENOUGH MEM ORY":CLOSE 1:END :rem 145
$45 \emptyset A=B A+6: S=A+L A(1): L=L A(2)+L A(3)-2: D=M T-L: G O S U B$ \{SPACE\}630: $A=A+L A(1)-2: S=A: L=L B(1) \quad$ :rem $7 \varnothing$
$46 \varnothing$ GOSUB 660:A=A+L:L=LA(2)-2:S=MT-LA(3)-L:D=A:GOS UB 630:A=A+L:S=A:L=LB(2) :rem 24
$47 \varnothing$ GOSUB 66Ø:A=A+L:L=LA(3)-2:S=MT-L:D=A:GOSUB $63 \varnothing$ $: A=A+L: S=A: L=L B(3): G O S U B 660$ :rem 51
$48 \varnothing \mathrm{~A}=\mathrm{A}+\mathrm{L}: \mathrm{IF}$ ST GOTO $52 \emptyset \quad$ :rem 18
$49 \varnothing$ K=FRE ( $\varnothing$ ): GET\#l,F\$:IF F\$<>"" THEN POKE A,ASC(F\$ ): A=A+1:GOTO 49ø
: rem 58
495 CLOSE 1:POKE A, $0: A=A+1: F O R$ V=1 TO 3:LA(V)=LA(V ) $+\mathrm{LB}(\mathrm{V})-2$ : NEXT: GOTO 4øø :rem 125
5øø FOR V=1 TO 3:POKE BA+2*V-2,FNL(LA(V)):POKE BA+ 2*V-1,FNH(LA(V)):NEXT :rem 252
 $\mathrm{N}(\mathrm{F} \$)>12$ GOTO $510 \quad$ :rem 3
520 GOSUB 6øØ: POKE SA, 251:POKE 251,FNL(BA):POKE 25 2,FNH(BA)
:rem 45
530 POKE SX,FNL(A): POKE SY,FNH(A):SYS 65496:IF PEE K(SP)ANDl GOTO 7øØ :rem 188
$54 \emptyset$ PRINT " SAVED" A-BA "BYTES":END :rem $17 \varnothing$
6øø PRINT:POKE SA,l:POKE SX,DN:POKE SY,ø:SYS 65466 :F\$=F\$+".MUS" :rem 225
$61 \varnothing$ FOR K=1 TO LEN(F\$): POKE 584+K,ASC(MID\$(F\$,K)): NEXT :rem 241
$62 \emptyset$ POKE SA,LEN(F\$):POKE SX,73:POKE SY,2:SYS 65469 : RETURN
:rem 159
630 POKE 251,FNL(S): POKE 252,FNH(S):POKE 253,FNL(D ): POKE 254,FNH(D)
:rem 3
640 POKE SX,FNL(L):POKE SY,FNH(L):SYS MB:RETURN
66ø POKE 251,FNL(S):POKE 252,FNH(S):POKE 253,FNL(L ): POKE 254,FNH(L) :rem 22
$67 \emptyset$ SYS BG:IF PEEK(SP)AND1 THEN CLOSE 1:GOTO 7øØ
680 :rem 235
$68 \emptyset$ RETURN :rem 126

7ØØ PRINT " ERROR":END. :rem 3
$8 \varnothing \emptyset$ DATA $142,109,192,140,110,192,165,253,56,229,25$ $1,17 \varnothing, 165,254,229,252,236,109 \quad$ :rem 62
801 DATA $192,237,110,192,144,35,160,0,174,110,192$, 240,14,177,251,145,253,2øø :rem 143
$8 \emptyset 2$ DATA 2ø8,249,230,252,23ø,254,202,208,242,174,1 09,192,240,8,177,251,145,253 :rem 8
$8 \emptyset 3$ DATA 2øø,2ø2,2ø8,248,96,173,110,192,168,1ø1,25 $2,133,252,152,24,101,254,133$ :rem 243

```
804 DATA 254,172,109,192,240,9,136,177,251,145,253
        ,192,0,2ø8,247,174,110,192 :rem 174
805 DATA 24ø,16,198,252,198,254,136,177,251,145,25
    3,192,0,2ø8,247,2ø2,208,24\varnothing :rem 228
8ø6 DATA 96,ø,ø,162,1,32,198,255,176,43,165,251,16
    8,101,253,133,253,165,252,101 :rem 52
807 DATA 254,133,254,169,0,133,251,32,207,255,176,
    21,145,251,2Øø,2Ø8,2,230,252 :rem 246
808 DATA 196,253,2ø8,240,165,252,197,254,208,234,3
    2,204,255,24,96 :rem 156
```

The program begins by asking for a file to load. After you enter the filename and the song is loaded, the program requests the name of the file to be appended to the first file. When you enter this second filename, the program reads each voice in the file and adds it to the end of each voice in the first song.

The program then asks for the name of another file to be appended. You can append as many files as you like. When you don't want to append any more files, just press RETURN. The program finally asks for a filename to use in saving the composite file.

To copy a music file from one tape to another tape or from one disk to another disk, use Merge to load the file you want to move, do not append any other files, and then save the file to the new tape or disk. This is more convenient than using the Editor to copy files.

With a slight modification, the Merge program can be used to transfer a music file from tape to disk. Change the $\mathrm{DN}=8$ in line 120 to $\mathrm{DN}=1$, and insert the statement $\mathrm{DN}=8$ at the beginning of line 520, right before the GOSUB 600. Now when you load a music file, it will come from the Datassette, but when you save the file again, it will go to the disk drive.

Extract. "Extract," Program 11-6, loads a music file, asks for starting and ending measure numbers, extracts the measures in the specified range, and saves them as a new file. The original file retains all its measures. Extract does not remove measures from the original-it only pulls out specified measures and places them in a new file. (Change DN to equal 1 in line 120 if you are using tape.)
Program 11-6. ExtractFor error-free program entry, be sure to use "The Automatic Proofreader," Appendix D.
$1 \varnothing 0$ PRINT CHR\$(147):PRINT " SIDPLAYER":PRINT " MUS IC FILE EXTRACTION UTILITY" :rem 165$11 \varnothing$ PRINT " BY CRAIG CHAMBERLAIN":PRINT :rem 65120 DN=8:SA=780:SX=781:SY=782:SP=783:DIM LN(3)
:rem 184
130 DEF $\operatorname{FNH}(N)=\operatorname{INT}(N / 256): \operatorname{DEF} \operatorname{FNL}(N)=N-256 * \operatorname{INT}(N / 2$56):rem $2 \varnothing 6$
$14 \varnothing \operatorname{DEF} \operatorname{FNDP}(\mathrm{~N})=\operatorname{PEEK}(\mathrm{N})+256 * \operatorname{PEEK}(\mathrm{~N}+1): \operatorname{BA}=\operatorname{FNDP}(49)+$$500: \mathrm{PT}=\mathrm{BA}+6: \mathrm{DP}=\mathrm{PT} \quad$ :rem 140
3øø $\mathrm{F} \$=" \mathrm{C}:$ INPUT " LOAD FILENAME";F\$:IF F\$="" OR LE$\mathrm{N}(\mathrm{F} \$)>12$ GOTO $3 \varnothing \varnothing \quad$ :rem 238
$31 \varnothing$ GOSUB 6øø:POKE SA, $\varnothing: P O K E ~ S X, F N L(B A): P O K E ~ S Y, F N$H(BA)
:rem 232
$32 \emptyset$ SYS 65493:IF PEEK(SP)ANDI GOTO $7 \varnothing \square$ :rem 85
330 FOR V=1 TO 3:LN(V)=FNDP (BA+2*V-2):NEXT: rem 128
35ø SM=-1:INPUT " STARTING MEASURE"; SM:IF SM<-1 ORSM>1ø23 GOTO $35 \emptyset \quad$ :rem 83
$36 \emptyset$ EM=ø:INPUT "\{3 SPACES\}ENDING MEASURE";EM:IF EM <ø OR EM>1ø23 GOTO 36Ø ..... : rem 10
$37 \varnothing$ PRINT:SL=SM AND255:SH=(SM/4 AND192) $+30:$ EL=EM A ..... :rem 255ND255: EH=(EM/4 AND192) $+3 \varnothing$
$4 \emptyset \varnothing$ FOR V=1 TO 3:PRINT " PROCESSING VOICE";V:DB=DP$: M P=P T+L N(V): I F \quad S M<\varnothing$ GOTO 45 $\quad$ :rem 128
$41 \varnothing$ IF $\operatorname{PEEK}(\mathrm{PT})=\mathrm{SH}$ THEN $\mathrm{IF} \operatorname{PEEK}(\mathrm{PT}+1)=\mathrm{SL}$ GOTO 45:rem 248
$42 \varnothing$ PT=PT+2:IF PT<MP GOTO 41ø ..... :rem $14 \varnothing$
$43 \varnothing$ PRINT " ERROR:STARTING MEASURE NOT FOUND":END
:rem 4 4
$450 \mathrm{P}=\operatorname{PEEK}(\mathrm{PT}): Q=\operatorname{PEEK}(\mathrm{PT}+1): \operatorname{IF} \mathrm{P}=\mathrm{EH}$ THEN IF Q=EL GОТО $48 \varnothing$
: rem 19
$46 \varnothing$ POKE DP,P:POKE DP+1,Q:DP=DP+2:PT=PT+2:IF PT<MPGOTO $45 \emptyset$:rem 223
$47 \varnothing$ PRINT " NOTE:RAN TO END OF VOICE":GOTO $49 \varnothing$: rem 82
48ø POKE DP,1:POKE DP+1,79:DP=DP+2 ..... : rem 173
$49 \varnothing$ POKE BA+2*V-2,FNL(DP-DB): POKE BA+2*V-1,FNH(DP-$\mathrm{DB}):$ PT=MP:NEXT:PRINT $\quad$ :rem 238
50Ø $\mathrm{P}=\mathrm{PEEK}(\mathrm{PT}): \mathrm{PT}=\mathrm{PT}+1:$ POKE DP,P:DP=DP+1:IF P GOTO5øø:rem 178
51ø F\$="":INPUT " SAVE FILENAME";FS:IF F\$="" OR LE N(F\$)>12 GOTO 510520 GOSUB 6øø:POKE SA, 251:POKE 251,FNL(BA):POKE 252 , $\mathrm{FNH}(\mathrm{BA})$: rem 45
530 POKE SX,FNL(DP):POKE SY,FNH(DP):SYS 65496:IF P EEK (SP)AND1 GOTO $7 \varnothing \varnothing$ ..... :rem 98
540 CLR:END
540 CLR:END ..... :rem 139 ..... :rem 139

```
6\emptyset\emptyset PRINT:POKE SA,l:POKE SX,DN:POKE SY,\emptyset:SYS 65466
    :F$=F$+".MUS" :rem 225
61\varnothing FOR K=1 TO LEN(F$):POKE 584+K,ASC(MID$(F$,K)):
    NEXT :rem 241
62Ø POKE SA,LEN(F$):POKE SX,73:POKE SY,2:SYS 65469
    :RETURN :rem 159
7\emptyset0 PRINT " ERROR":END :rem 3
```

When you run the program, the first prompt asks for the name of the file to load. After you enter the filename, the program loads the song.

The program requests a starting measure number. Type the number of the first measure that should be extracted. If you want the extraction to start at the beginning of the file instead of at a later measure, just press RETURN.

When prompted for the ending measure number, type the number of the measure at which the extraction should stop. For example, if you want to extract measures 26 through 50 inclusive, the ending measure should be 51. Press RETURN by itself if you want the extraction to go to the end of the voice.

The program displays the message PROCESSING VOICE 1 while it searches for the starting measure marker. If the measure marker is not found in the voice, the program stops with the message ERROR:STARTING MEASURE NOT FOUND.

Having found the starting measure marker, the program continues to search until it comes to the ending measure marker or the end of the voice. If the searching reaches the end of the voice, the program prints the warning NOTE:RAN TO END OF VOICE.

The program repeats this procedure for voices 2 and 3.
Finally, the program asks for the filename to use in saving the new music file.

One use of the Extract program is to break a large music file into parts. Another application is to copy a sequence of notes in a song to the end of the song. For example, a song may repeat a chorus, but the chorus might be played a little differently the second time. Repeats or phrases cannot be used if there are minor changes when the notes are repeated. Instead of entering all the notes in the chorus again, just extract the notes which form the chorus, use Merge to merge them to the end of the song, and make the necessary changes.

Cross File Merge. The last utility, Program 11-7, is a cross file merger. This program lets you construct a new music file from the voices of different music files. Voice 1 of the new file can come from one file, voice 2 can come from another file, and voice 3 can come from yet another. (Tape users need to change $\mathrm{DN}=8$ in line 120 to $\mathrm{DN}=1$.)

## Program 11-7. Cross File Merge

For error-free program entry, be sure to use "The Automatic Proofreader," Appendix D.
$1 \varnothing \varnothing$ PRINT CHR\$ (147):PRINT "SIDPLAYER CROSS FILE M ERGE UTILITY"

: rem 18
$11 \varnothing$ PRINT " BY CRAIG CHAMBERLAIN":PRINT :rem 65
$120 \mathrm{DN}=8: \mathrm{SA}=780: \mathrm{SX}=781: \mathrm{SY}=782: \mathrm{SP}=783: \mathrm{TA}=0: \mathrm{TB}=\varnothing: \mathrm{DIM}$ LA (3), LB (3):Z\$=CHR\$ ( 0 ) : rem 217
130 DEF $\operatorname{FNH}(N)=\operatorname{INT}(N / 256): \operatorname{DEF} \operatorname{FNL}(N)=N-256 * \operatorname{INT}(N / 2$ 56) :rem 206
$14 \varnothing \operatorname{DEF} \operatorname{FNDP}(N)=\operatorname{PEEK}(N)+256 * \operatorname{PEEK}(N+1): \operatorname{BA}=\operatorname{FNDP}(49)+$ $100: A=B A+6$
: rem 118
$3 \emptyset \emptyset$ FOR V=1 TO 3 : rem 20
$31 \varnothing$ F\$="":PRINT "FILE FOR VOICE";V;:INPUT FS:IF F $\$=" "$ OR LEN (F\$) >12 GOTO $310 \quad$ :rem 100
$32 \emptyset$ VN=ø:INPUT "\{2 SPACES\}USE WHICH VOICE ";VN:IF \{SPACE\}VN<>INT(VN) OR VN<1 OR VN>3 GOTO $32 \emptyset$
: rem 102

: rem 239
$34 \emptyset$ FOR K=1 TO 3:GET\#1,L\$,H\$:LB(K)=ASC(L\$+Z\$)+256* ASC (H\$+Z\$) : NEXT
: rem 57
350 FOR K=1 TO 3:FOR J=1 TO LB(K)/2:N=FRE(0):GET\#1 $, \mathrm{L}, \mathrm{HS} \quad$ : rem 218
360 IF K=VN THEN POKE A,ASC(L\$+Z\$): POKE A+1,ASC(H\$ $+Z \$): A=A+2 \quad$ :rem 37
370 NEXT:NEXT:LA (V) $=\mathrm{LB}(\mathrm{VN}):$ CLOSE $1:$ NEXT:POKE A, $\varnothing$ : A $=A+1 \quad$ :rem 53
$50 \varnothing$ FOR V=1 TO 3:POKE BA+2*V-2,FNL(LA(V)): POKE BA+ 2*V-1, FNH (LA (V)):NEXT $\quad$ : rem 252
$51 \varnothing \mathrm{~F} \$=" \mathrm{"}:$ INPUT " SAVE FILENAME"; FS:IF FS=""OR LE $N(F \$)>12$ GOTO $51 \varnothing \quad$ :rem 3
520 POKE SA, 1:POKE SX,DN:POKE SY, D:SYS 65466:F\$=F\$ +".MUS" $\quad:$ rem 27
$53 \emptyset$ FOR K=1 TO LEN (F\$): POKE 584+K, ASC(MID\$(F\$,K)): NEXT :rem 242
540 POKE SA,LEN(F\$):POKE SX, 73:POKE SY,2:SYS 65469 : rem 134
550 POKE SA, 251:POKE 251,FNL(BA):POKE 252,FNH(BA)


The program begins by constructing voice 1 . It asks for the name of the file which contains the voice to be used for voice 1 . The program then asks which of the three voices in that file is to be used. For instance, if the first voice of the file being created is to come from voice 3 of the song COMMODORE.MUS, here's how you would respond:

## FILE FOR VOICE 1 ? COMMODORE USE WHICH VOICE ? 3

The program loads the requested voice from the specified file. This may take a while. The procedure is then repeated for voices 2 and 3 .

After all the voices have been loaded, the program requires one more filename to use when saving the new file.

The "Cross File Merge" program can be used to change the order of the voices in a file. This is sometimes necessary if you start a song and later decide to use the synchronization mode or ring modulation. As an example, let's say that you want to switch voices 2 and 3 in the song "MINUET." Here's how you would reply to the program prompts:
FILE FOR VOICE 1 ? MINUET
USE WHICH VOICE ? 1

## FILE FOR VOICE 2 ? MINUET

USE WHICH VOICE ? 3

## FILE FOR VOICE 3 ? MINUET USE WHICH VOICE ? 2

If you're using disk, remember to choose a filename other than MINUET when saving the new file to avoid the FILE EXISTS error.

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Part 4
Sprite
Control
System

## Introduction to the Sprite Control System

So far, you've seen utilities that let you access the Commodore 64's excellent bitmapping and sound capabilities. There's one more area to cover. One of the most widely used features of your computer is sprites, the movable object blocks of the 64. Games especially make wide use of sprites.

This last part of this book deals with sprites and sprite animation. In the pages which follow, you'll see how easy it can be to define a sprite and make it move across the screen.

Just as you were provided with utilities to help you use the bitmap screen and create sophisticated sound, so you'll have a Sprite Editor at your disposal. The Editor lets you use the joystick to create sprite definitions. You'll also find several machine language routines you can use to make it easier to move the sprites you create. You'll be able to get up to eight sprites moving at the same time, each with its own shape, color, size, direction, and speed. Best of all, you'll be able to do all of this from a BASIC program, without using a single POKE!

Before you see how to define and animate sprites, however, it's important to understand the basic characteristics of animation, and the advantages of sprite graphics over character and bitmapped graphics.

## Principles of Animation

There are two ways in which an object can be animated. The object can change its position or it can change its appearance.

Motion, which occurs when the position of an object is changing, is probably the more common type of animation. Two important characteristics of a moving object are its direction and its speed.

But an object can be animated even when it's not moving, simply by changing its appearance in some way. This can be done by altering the shape of the object, but it can also be done by changing its color or size.

To create effective animation on the Commodore 64, you
need a graphics system in which an object's position or appearance can be changed quickly and easily.

## Character Graphics

There are many reasons why it's preferable not to use character graphics for animation. New character shapes can be created by redefining the character set, but each character is always limited to an $8 \times 8$ grid. This size is often too small to be useful.

Another problem is in motion. A character can be moved to another place on the screen by just a couple of POKE statements, but the positioning is limited to 40 columns $\times 25$ rows, so motion appears jerky.

Bigger shapes can be created by using several characters, but motion is then more difficult because each character comprising the large figure has to be moved.

Thus, for many applications, character graphics are simply unsuitable for animation.

## Bitmapped Graphics

With bitmapped graphics, there are no size or positioning restrictions. A shape of any size can be drawn, starting at any of $64,000(320 \times 200)$ positions. Sometimes these shapes can be redrawn fast enough so that they appear to change shape. (Refer back to the shape demonstrations in Part 2 for a few examples.)

The only drawback to using bitmapped graphics is that motion is impossible in BASIC. Moving an object means erasing each point in the shape and replotting it at an adjacent position. Bitmapped graphics shapes usually contain too many points to be erased and redrawn quickly. If a shape is moved like this, it moves very slowly, with considerable flicker.

These problems are magnified when you want the shape to move without disturbing other things already on the screen. For instance, you may want to make a figure walk in front of a building. As the points in the figure are plotted in new positions, they may be placed in the same positions as points used to display the building. Those points must be restored after the figure has walked past. Motion is not as simple as just plotting and erasing points. For each point, the original contents must be remembered before the position is plotted so that the contents can later be restored.

Although bitmapped graphics has many applications (just some of which you saw in Part 2), animation is not one of them.

## Sprite Graphics

This graphics system combines the best features of character and bitmapped graphics. A sprite is a super character, because it can be defined on a grid of $24 \times 21$ points, about the size of eight characters. This size is large enough to create detailed shapes. Positioning is allowed on any of the $320 \times 200$ points, so a sprite can be placed anywhere on the screen. It also means sprite motion is smooth.

The best feature, however, is that the sprite definition is stored in memory separate from screen memory. This means you can use sprites at the same time as character graphics or bitmapped graphics. Also, the screen memory is not changed when the sprite is moved, so the background does not have to be restored.

The fact that a sprite is completely independent of the screen greatly simplifies its display and movement. Only three POKE statements are needed to move a whole sprite. Just one changes its shape, size, or color.

If this were all the Commodore 64 did, it would be an excellent system. What makes it even better is that the 64 supports up to eight sprites. Each sprite can have its own shape, color, size, and position. Other features, such as multicolor mode and priority, will be discussed later.

## The Sprite Control System

Sprites are well suited for animation, but there are a couple of problems. One is that it's difficult to create a sprite definition. The other is that the three POKE statements required to position a sprite are rather complicated and take time to execute. BASIC programs run too slowly to make a sprite move very quickly. And making eight sprites move at once is simply not feasible in BASIC.

That's where the Sprite Control System comes in. The Control System consists of a group of programs and machine language routines which make sprite animation easier than you ever thought possible.

Sprite Editor. The first part of the Control System is a Sprite Editor. Using the joystick, you plot points on a $24 \times 21$
grid to define a shape. A variety of editing features are available to scroll the shape, flip it to create a mirror image, turn it upside down, and so on. If necessary, over 100 shapes can be defined. The definitions can be saved as a disk or tape file, or can be converted into DATA statements and merged with a BASIC program. You'll never have to do any calculations or work with bits and bytes.

Machine language routines. The second part of the Control System is a set of machine language routines. These routines can be called from BASIC to make a sprite change its shape, color, size, or position. The routines can also make a sprite move in a given direction at a specified speed. There are even advanced features to make a sprite move under joystick control or change shape automatically whenever it changes direction. All of this is done without a single POKE statement.

## Before You See It Work

There are three impressive demonstration programs included here, but before you can enter them, you have to prepare two other files. Type in the following lines and save them with the filename SCS.BAS. It's important that you use this filename. We'll be referring to this filename throughout the next few chapters.

## Program 12-1. SCS.BAS <br> For error-free program entry, be sure to use "The Automatic Proofreader," Appendix D.

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { 58øøø POKE SA,1:POKE SX,DN:POKE SY,l:SYS 65466:F\$= } \\
& \text { "SCS.OBJ":GOSUB 59øøø :rem } 116 \\
& \text { 58ø1ø POKE SA,ø:SYS 65493:IF PEEK(SP)ANDI GOTO } 591 \\
& \varnothing \varnothing \\
& \text { :rem } 127 \\
& \text { 58ø2ø IN=49664:RE=49667:RL=4967ø:RS=49673:DF=49676 } \\
& \text { : BL=49679:CO=49682:WI=49685 :rem } 172 \\
& 58 \varnothing 3 \varnothing \mathrm{HE}=49688: \mathrm{PO}=49691: \mathrm{DI}=49694: \mathrm{WR}=49697: \mathrm{BO}=497 \varnothing \varnothing \\
& \text { : MO=49763:LB=497ø6:RB=497ø9 :rem } 148 \\
& 58 \varnothing 4 \varnothing \mathrm{~TB}=49712: \mathrm{BB}=49715: \mathrm{FR}=49718: \mathrm{UN}=49721: \mathrm{PR}=49724 \\
& \text { : MU=49727:EN=4973 }: \text { :JS=49733 :rem 149 } \\
& \text { 58ø5 AU=49736:CH=49739:RETURN :rem 14 } \\
& \text { 581øø GOSUB 58øøø:SYS 51123,LA:LA=LA+1191:RETURN } \\
& \text { :rem } 11 \\
& \text { 584øø POKE 49749,LA-256*INT(LA/256):POKE 4975ø,INT } \\
& \text { (LA/256) } \\
& \text { :rem } 182 \\
& 5841 \varnothing \text { READ J:POKE 49751,J:FOR K=Ø TO J:READ J:POKE } \\
& \text { LA, J:LA=LA+1 :rem } 16 \\
& 5842 \varnothing \text { IF J THEN FOR LA=LA TO LA+J-1:READ I:POKE LA } \\
& \text {, I: NEXT LA } \\
& \text { :rem } 92
\end{aligned}
$$

```
58430 NEXT K:RETURN :rem l68
5850ø POKE SA,1:POKE SX,DN:POKE SY,0:SYS 65466:F$=
    F$+".DEF":GOSUB 59øø\emptyset :rem 24
5851\varnothing POKE SA,\varnothing:POKE SX,LA-256*INT(LA/256):POKE SY
    ,INT(LA/256) :rem 78
5852ø SYS 65493:IF PEEK(SP)ANDI GOTO 591ø\emptyset :rem 44
58530 LA=LA+1:POKE 49749,LA-256*INT(LA/256):POKE 4
    9750,INT(LA/256) :rem 167
58540 POKE 49751,PEEK(LA-1):LA=PEEK(SX)+256*PEEK(S
    Y) : RETURN
    :rem 31
59øø\emptyset FOR K=1 TO LEN(F$):POKE 584+K,ASC(MID$(FS,K)
    ):NEXT :rem 88
5901Ø POKE SA,LEN(F$):POKE SX,73:POKE SY,2:SYS 654
    69:RETURN :rem 6
591ø\emptyset P=PEEK(SA):PRINT " ERROR: ";:IF P=4 THEN PRI
    NT "FILE NOT FOUND":END :rem 2øø
5911\varnothing IF P=5 THEN PRINT "DEVICE NOT PRESENT":END
                                    :rem 36
59120 PRINT ST:END :rem 7\emptyset
```

These lines do not form a complete program. Rather, they're subroutines which must be included in every program that uses the Sprite Control System.

The next file contains the machine language routines used to display sprites and make them move. As with all the complete machine language programs in this book, you have to use "The Machine Language Editor: MLX," found in Appendix C, to type it in. Be sure to read the accompanying article if you haven't already. If you have a copy of MLX from another COMPUTE! publication, you can use it to enter the listings in this book. However, if you use tape and have another version of MLX, you must change line 763 to match what's listed in this book. (Tape users who have a copy of MLX which does not have a line 763 must use this book's version of MLX.)

Once you've loaded and run MLX, you'll be asked to make two responses. Here are the numbers you should enter:

## Starting Address: 49664

Ending Address: 51199
Filename: SCS.OBJ
Begin typing in Program 12-2. Follow the instructions in Appendix $C$ if you enter the program in more than one sitting. When you're finished, save this file using the filename SCS.OBJ. If you're saving to tape, put it on a cassette all by itself so that you can easily find it when you need it. A bit later, you'll have to load it into memory to see the demonstration.

 QNQQQMHNQHQQQQQNQHQGQQHNNQHQNHN














[^20]| 49664 |  |
| :---: | :---: |
| 9670 |  |
| 49676 |  |
| 49682 | :076,073,196,076,097,196,22ø |
| 49688 | :076,1øø,196,076,134,196,034 |
| 49694 | : $076, \boxed{1} 7,197, \boxed{6}, 061,197,132$ |
| $4970 \square$ | : $076,064,197,076,025,197,159$ |
| 49766 | : $076, \boxed{55,197,076,088,197,249 ~}$ |
| 971 | :076,119,197,076,122,197,067 |
| 49718 | : $076,188,196,076,2 ø 0,196,218$ |
| 49724 | : $076,103,196,076,106,196,045$ |
| 49730 | :076,1ø9,196,076 |
| 49736 | : $076,146,197,076,253,196,248$ |
| 49742 | :ø76,173,197,øøø, Øøø,øø7,ø19 |
| 49748 |  |
| 49 |  |
| 49 | :øøø, Øø1, Øø2, øø4, Øø8,ø16,127 |
| 49766 | : ø32, $664,128,254,253,251,060$ |
| 49772 | : 247,239,223,191,127,øøø,111 |
| 49778 |  |
| 4978 |  |
| 49790 | :øø4, Øø8, Øø1, øø2, Ø05, Ø09,155 |
| 49796 | : Øø6, Ø1ø, Øø , øø $4, \varnothing \varnothing 2, \varnothing \varnothing 8,164$ |
| 49862 | :øøø,øø2,øø6, Øø7, Ø08,187,ø92 |
| 49808 | :194,186,194,032,241,183,150 |
| 4981 | :224,008,176, $063,134,002,185$ |
| 9820 | : $096,076,072,178,032,147,245$ |






${ }_{m}^{m}$







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Once you have this program on disk or tape, you can easily make copies of it to place on other disks or tapes. This will be necessary when you begin to write your own programs which make use of "SCS.OBJ" (the Sprite Control System, explained in more detail in Chapters 14 and 15).

Here's how you can create copies. First of all, load and run MLX. When you see the beginning and ending address prompts, enter 49664 and 51199, respectively. Press the SHIFT and L keys at the same time (this is MLX's Load feature). You'll be asked for a filename. Enter SCS.OBJ and press RETURN. Another prompt appears, asking you whether you're using disk or tape. Make sure the disk or tape containing SCS.OBJ is in the drive or Datassette, then press D or T. The program loads into memory. You'll know it's completed when you see the DONE message. Press the SHIFT and S (Save) keys at the same time, then enter the filename SCS.OBJ. Check that the disk or tape you want SCS.OBJ to be copied to is in the drive or recorder before hitting D or T . When the DONE message appears again, you know that the machine language file has been successfully copied to the new disk or tape.

You can use this same procedure to make copies of "SID.OBJ," "BMG.OBJ," "EDITOR.OBJ," or any machine language program which requires MLX for its entry. Of course, the beginning and ending addresses, as well as the filenames, will change.

## On with the Show

Each of these three examples is composed of several parts. You need all of them in order to make the Sprite Control System operate as it should. SCS.OBJ, the program you just typed in, displays the sprites and makes them move. You also need a BASIC program (which contains all the lines from Program 12-1, "SCS.BAS") and another machine language file that creates the sprite shapes or definitions.

If you're using disk, just make sure all three components are on the same disk. If you're using tape, however, you have to save the programs in a specific order.

Save the BASIC program first, then the machine language definition file. Since SCS.OBJ, Program 12-2, is on a tape by itself already, all you'll have to do is follow the prompts on the screen, changing tapes after loading the BASIC program
and before loading the definition file.
You're now ready to enter the first example program. Notice that much of this program is a repetition of what you entered for Program 12-1, SCS.BAS. When you type in Program 12-3, you can save time by first loading Program 12-1 into memory, then adding the additional lines. Once SCS.BAS is in memory, just type in all the lines you see up to line 58000. Save this program using the filename DEMO\#1. (If you're using the Datassette, change the $\mathrm{DN}=8$ in line 120 to $\mathrm{DN}=1$.)

## Program 12-3. DEMO\#1

For error-free program entry, be sure to use "The Automatic Proofreader," Appendix D.

| 1øø POKE 5328ø, 12:POKE 53281, $0:$ PRINT "\{CLR\}\{DOWN\} |  |
| :---: | :---: |
|  | [5习 SPRITE CONTROL SYSTEM DEMO \#1" :rem 182 |
| 110 | PRINT " BY CRAIG CHAMBERLAIN":PRINT :rem 65 |
| 120 | DN=8:SA=780: $\mathrm{SX=781}$ : $\mathrm{SY}=782: \mathrm{SP}=783:$ REM DN=1 FOR |
|  | \{SPACE\}TAPE :rem 181 |
| 125 | F\$="SCS.OBJ":GOSUB 9øø :rem $20 \varnothing$ |
| 130 | GOSUB 58øøø:REM LOAD CONTROL SYSTEM :rem 85 |
| 140 | F\$="BUNNY":LA=16384:GOSUB 9ø0:GOSUB 585øø:REM |
|  | \{SPACE\}LOAD DEFINITIONS :rem 159 |
|  | SYS IN:REM INSTALL :rem 94 |
| $31 \varnothing$ | SYS DF,255,ø:REM DEFINE BLOCK 255 WITH DEFINIT |
|  | ION Ø :rem 102 |
| 320 | FOR SN=ø TO 7:REM LOOP WITH SPRITE NUMB |
|  | 52 |
| 330 | SYS PO,SN, 150,90:REM SET POSITION (SAME FOR AL |
|  | L SPRITES) :rem 56 |
| 340 | SYS DI,SN,INT(SN/2)*2+1:REM SET DIRECTION (DIF |
|  | FERENT FOR EACH SPRITE) :rem 116 |
| 350 | SYS MO, SN, SN/ $2+1,(\mathrm{SN}+1) / 2+1:$ REM SET SPEED (DIF |
|  | FERENT FOR EACH SPRITE) :rem 243 |
| 360 | SYS BO,SN,1:REM TURN ON BOUNCE :rem 19 |
| 370 | SYS BL,SN,255:REM ASSIGN BLOCK 255 TO SPRITE ( |
|  | AND ENABLE) :rem 235 |
| 380 | NEXT SN :rem 123 |
| 390 | GET K\$:IF K\$="" GOTO 390:REM WAIT FOR KEYPRESS |
| $40 \square$ | SYS RE:REM REMOVE :rem 22 |
| 410 | END :rem 108 |
| 800 | REM DEFINITION DATA (USED IN LATER DEMONSTRATI |
|  | ON) : rem 247 |
| 801 | DATA $0,63,12, \varnothing, 48,15,129,240,12,195,48,12,102$, |
|  | 48,7,1ø2,224,3,231,192,ø,195 :rem 229 |
| $8 \emptyset 2$ | DATA $\varnothing, 1,255,128,3,24,192,7,255,224,12,60,48,1$ |
|  | $5, \varnothing, 24 \varnothing, 7,255,224, \varnothing, 255, \varnothing, 28$ :rem 230 |

$8 \emptyset 3$ DATA 6Ø,56,7,6Ø,224,1,255,128,48,126,12,124,60
, 62,127,60,254,255,255,255 :rem 163
$9 \varnothing \emptyset$ IF DN=8 THEN RETURN :rem 62
$91 \varnothing$ PRINT "POSITION TAPE TO THE BEGINNING OF":PRIN
T F\$;" AND PRESS RETURN" :rem 164
92ø WAIT 198,15:GET K\$:RETURN :rem 167
58øøø POKE SA,1:POKE SX,DN:POKE SY,1:SYS 65466:F\$=
"SCS.OBJ":GOSUB 59øøø :rem 116
5801ø POKE SA,ø:SYS 65493:IF PEEK(SP)ANDI GOTO 591
Øø :rem 127
$58 \varnothing 2 \emptyset \mathrm{IN}=49664: \mathrm{RE}=49667: \mathrm{RL}=4967 \varnothing: \mathrm{RS}=49673: \mathrm{DF}=49676$
: $\mathrm{BL}=49679: \mathrm{CO}=49682: \mathrm{WI}=49685$ :rem 172
$5803 \varnothing \mathrm{HE}=49688: \mathrm{PO}=49691: \mathrm{DI}=49694: \mathrm{WR}=49697: \mathrm{BO}=497 \varnothing \varnothing$
$: M O=49703: L B=49706: R B=49709 \quad: r e m 148$
$5804 \emptyset \mathrm{~TB}=49712: \mathrm{BB}=49715: \mathrm{FR}=49718: \mathrm{UN}=49721: \mathrm{PR}=49724$
:MU=49727:EN=49730:JS=49733 :rem 149
5805ø AU=49736:CH=49.739:RETURN :rem 14
581øø GOSUB 58øøø:SYS 51123,LA:LA=LA+1191:RETURN
:rem 11
584øø POKE 49749,LA-256*INT(LA/256):POKE 4975ø,INT
(LA/256) :rem 182
5841ø READ J:POKE 49751,J:FOR K=ø TO J:READ J:POKE
LA,J:LA=LA+1 :rem 16
$5842 \emptyset$ IF J THEN FOR LA=LA TO LA+J-1:READ I:POKE LA
, I:NEXT LA
: rem 92
58430 NEXT K:RETURN :rem 168
585øø POKE SA,1:POKE SX,DN:POKE SY, $0: S Y S$ 65466:F\$=
F\$+".DEF":GOSUB 59øøø :rem 24
5851ø POKE SA, Ø: POKE SX,LA-256*INT(LA/256):POKE SY
, INT(LA/256) :rem 78
58520 SYS 65493:IF PEEK(SP)AND1 GOTO 591øø :rem 44
58530 LA=LA+1:POKE 49749,LA-256*INT(LA/256):POKE 4
9750, INT(LA/256) : rem 167
5854 (POKE 49751, PEEK(LA-1):LA=PEEK (SX) +256*PEEK (S
$\mathrm{Y}):$ RETURN $\quad$ :rem 31
59øøø FOR K=1 TO LEN(F\$):POKE 584+K,ASC(MID\$(F\$,K)
):NEXT :rem 88
59ø1Ø POKE SA,LEN(F\$):POKE SX,73:POKE SY,2:SYS 654
69:RETURN :rem 6
591øø P=PEEK(SA):PRINT " ERROR: ";:IF P=4 THEN PRI
NT "FILE NOT FOUND":END :rem 2øø
$5911 \varnothing$ IF P=5 THEN PRINT "DEVICE NOT PRESENT": END
: rem 36
$5912 \varnothing$ PRINT ST:END :rem 70

Now type in and save the sprite definition file. It's in machine language, so you'll need MLX to enter it. These are the responses you need to give:

## Starting Address: 49152

Ending Address: 49217
Filename: BUNNY.DEF
Make sure the filename is BUNNY.DEF, or the "DEMO\#1" program will not be able to load it properly. If you're using disk, place this on the same disk as the previous two programs. If you're using tape, make sure BUNNY.DEF follows DEMO\#1.

## Program 12-4. BUNNY.DEF

To enter this program, you must use "The Machine Language Editor (MLX)," a program found in Appendix C.

```
49152 : Øøø, Ø63, Ø12, Ø00, 048, 015,138
49158 : 129,24ø, Ø12,195,048,øi2,13ø
49164 : 102, \(048,007,102,224,003,242\)
49170:231,192,øøø,195,øøø, Ø01,125
49176 : 255,128, Ø03, 024,192,ø07,121
49182 : 255,224,012,060,048,015,132
49188 : Øøø,24Ø, Øø7,255,224, Øøø,25ø
49194 : 255, Øøø, Ø28, Ø60,056,007,192
49200 : 060,224,001,255,128,048,252
49206 : 126, Ø12,124,060,062,127,053
49212 : Ø6Ø, 254, 255,255,255,013,128
```

Load and run DEMO\#1. If you're using disk, the SCS.OBJ and BUNNY.DEF files are automatically loaded. All eight sprites then appear on the screen.

However, if you're using the Datassette, you'll have to do some tape switching. Once DEMO\#1 is run, you'll see the prompt POSITION TAPE TO THE BEGINNING OF SCS.OBJ AND PRESS RETURN. Take the tape containing DEMO\#1 out of the Datassette and insert the tape you made earlier which has SCS.OBJ on it. (Make sure this second tape is rewound to the beginning of the SCS.OBJ file.) Press RETURN, then the PLAY button on the recorder. The machine language file will load. Once it's finished, you'll see another prompt, this time POSITION TAPE TO THE BEGINNING OF BUNNY AND PRESS RETURN. Insert the first tape (don't rewind it-leave it where it ended after loading DEMO\#1). Press RETURN, and then PLAY. The machine language sprite definition file now loads. When that's completed, you'll see the eight sprites
bouncing around the screen.
The sprites all have the same shape, but each sprite has a different color, direction, and speed. Also notice that whenever a sprite hits the screen edge, it rebounds.

While the program is running, press the RUN/STOP key. The sprites continue to move! Type LIST, and watch the bunnies go bouncing over the program listing. This illustrates that the Sprite Control System can animate sprites while BASIC is doing something else. A program can handle things like printing a score and generating sound effects while the Control System is moving the sprites.

Enter the command CONT to make the program resume execution, then press any key to end the program and turn off the sprites.

## Getting Fancy

The second example demonstrates some of the more advanced features of the Sprite Control System. Enter the following program and save it with the filename DEMO\#2. Again, if you're using tape, change line 120 so that $\mathrm{DN}=1$.

## Program 12-5. DEMO\#2

For error-free program entry, be sure to use "The Automatic Proofreader," Appendix D.

|  | POKE 5328ø, | R\} \{DOWN |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | \{BLK\} SPRITE CONTROL SYSTEM DEMO \#2" | :rem 175 |
|  | PRINT " BY CRAIG CHAMBERLAIN":PRINT | m 65 |
| $\square$ | DN=8: $\mathrm{SA}=789 \mathrm{SX}=781: \mathrm{SY}=782: \mathrm{SP}=783 \mathrm{REM}$ | =1 |
|  | \{SPACE ${ }^{\text {d TAPE }}$ | 1 |
| 125 | F\$="SCS.OBJ": GOSUB 9øø | rem $2 ø 0$ |
| 10 | GOSUB 58øø0:REM LOAD CONTROL SYSTEM |  |
| 140 | F\$="GOBBLER":LA=16384:GOSUB 9ø0:GOS | 585ø0:RE |
|  | M LOAD DEFINITIONS | :rem 16 |
| 360 | SYS IN:REM IN | :rem 94 |
| 310 | FOR K=ø TO 11:SYS | DEFINE B |
|  | LOCKS 244 TO 255 | :rem 135 |
|  | SYS CO, $\varnothing, 7:$ REM SET COLOR TO YELLO | :rem 237 |
| $33 \varnothing$ | SYS JS, 0,2 :REM SELECT JOYSTICK | :rem 108 |
| $34 \varnothing$ | SYS MO, $0,3,2:$ REM SET MOTION (SPEED) | rem 237 |
|  | SYS WR, $0,1:$ REM TURN ON WRAPAROUND |  |
| 360 | SYS PO,0,80,80:REM POSITION SPR | 37 |
| 378 | SYS BL, $\varnothing, 252:$ REM ASSIGN BLOCK 252 TO (SPACE] (AND ENABLE) | SPRITE ø - rem 164 |
|  | SYS AU, $\varnothing, 9,244$ :REM AUTOSHAPE | NS PLUS |
|  | CENTERING, BASE BLOCK $=244$ |  |
|  | SYS CO,1,2,1,ø:REM COLORS RED, BLACK, | ND WHIT |
|  |  |  |

$40 \emptyset$ SYS MU,1,1:REM TURN ON MULTICOLOR :rem 253
410 SYS PO,1,240,120:REM POSITION SPRITE :rem 123
$42 \varnothing$ SYS MO,1,1,1:REM SET MOTION (SPEED) :rem 234
$43 \varnothing$ SYS CH, 1, $\varnothing$ :REM HAVE SPRITE 1 CHASE SPRITE $\varnothing$
:rem 143
$44 \varnothing$ SYS BL, 1,254:K=2ø:REM ASSIGN BLOCK 254 TO SPRI
TE 1 (AND ENABLE)
:rem 204
450 IF PEEK(53278) GOTO 510:REM COLLIDED :rem 212
$46 \varnothing$ K=K-1:IF K GOTO 45ø:REM LOOP $2 \varnothing$ TIMES OR UNTIL COLLISION
:rem 198
$47 \varnothing$ SYS BL,1,255:K=2ø:REM ASSIGN BLOCK 255 TO SPRI TE 1 :rem 6
$48 \emptyset$ IF PEEK (53278) GOTO 510:REM COLLIDED :rem 215
490 K=K-1:IF K GOTO 480:REM LOOP $2 \varnothing$ TIMES OR UNTIL COLLISION
: rem 204
5øø GOTO 44ø:REM CONTINUE ALTERNATING BETWEEN TWO \{SPACE \} SHAPES
: rem 234
510 SYS EN,l,ø:REM DISABLE SPRITE 1 :rem 251
52ø SYS JS, $\varnothing, \varnothing: S Y S$ DI, $\varnothing, \varnothing: R E M$ STOP MOVING SPRITE $\varnothing$
: rem 164
530 SYS AU, ø, $\varnothing: S Y S$ BL, $\varnothing, 253:$ REM TURN AUTOSHAPE OFF , DISPLAY FROWN FACE :rem 151
54Ø FOR K=1 TO 999:NEXT:REM DELAY LOOP :rem 199
550 SYS RE:REM REMOVE :rem 28
560 END
$90 \emptyset$ IF DN=8 THEN RETURN : rem 62
910 PRINT "POSITION TAPE TO THE BEGINNING OF":PRIN T FS;" AND PRESS RETURN" :rem 164
920 WAIT 198,15:GET K\$:RETURN :rem 167
58øøø POKE SA,1:POKE SX,DN:POKE SY,1:SYS 65466:F\$= "SCS.OBJ":GOSUB 59øøø :rem 116
58ø1ø POKE SA, Ø:SYS 65493:IF PEEK(SP)AND1 GOTO 591 $\varnothing \varnothing$
: rem 127
$5802 \varnothing \mathrm{IN}=49664: \mathrm{RE}=49667: \mathrm{RL}=49670: \mathrm{RS}=49673: \mathrm{DF}=49676$ : $\mathrm{BL}=49679$ : $\mathrm{CO}=49682: \mathrm{WI}=49685$ :rem 172
$58 \varnothing 3$ б $\mathrm{HE}=49688: \mathrm{PO}=49691: \mathrm{DI}=49694: \mathrm{WR}=49697: \mathrm{BO}=497 \varnothing \varnothing$ : MO = 497Ø3: LB=497ø6: RB=497ø9 :rem 148
$58040 \mathrm{~TB}=49712: \mathrm{BB}=49715: \mathrm{FR}=49718: \mathrm{UN}=49721: \mathrm{PR}=49724$ : $\mathrm{MU}=49727$ : $\mathrm{EN}=49730: \mathrm{JS}=49733$ :rem 149
58050 AU=49736:CH=49739:RETURN :rem 14
581øø GOSUB 58øø日:SYS 51123,LA:LA=LA+1191:RETURN
:rem 11
584øØ POKE 49749,LA-256*INT(LA/256): POKE 4975ø,INT (LA/256)
: rem 182
5841ø READ J:POKE 49751,J:FOR K=ø TO J:READ J:POKE LA, J:LA $=\mathrm{LA}+1$
: rem 16
5842ø IF J THEN FOR LA=LA TO LA+J-1:READ I:POKE LA ,I:NEXT LA :rem 92
58430 NEXT K:RETURN :rem 168
585øø POKE SA, 1:POKE SX,DN:POKE SY, $0: S Y S$ 65466:F $=$ F\$+".DEF":GOSUB 59øøø :rem 24

| 58510 | POKE SA, Ø: POKE SX,LA-256*INT(LA/256):POKE SY ,INT(LA/256) :rem 78 |
| :---: | :---: |
| 58520 | SYS 65493:IF PEEK(SP)AND1 GOTO 591øø :rem 44 |
| 58530 | LA=LA+1: POKE 49749,LA-256*INT(LA/256) : POKE |
|  | 9750, INT (LA/256) : rem 167 |
| 58540 | POKE 49751, PEEK(LA-1) : LA=PEEK (SX) +256*PEEK(S |
|  | $Y):$ RETURN $\quad$ :rem 31 |
| $590 \varnothing 0$ | FOR K=1 TO LEN(F\$): POKE 584+K,ASC(MID\$(F\$,K) |
|  | ):NEXT :rem 88 |
| 59010 | POKE SA,LEN(F\$): POKE SX,73:POKE SY, $2:$ SYS 654 |
|  | 69:RETURN : rem |
| 59100 | P=PEEK (SA) : PRINT " ERROR: ";:IF P=4 THEN PRI |
|  | NT "FILE NOT FOUND":END :rem $20 \emptyset$ |
| 59110 | IF P=5 THEN PRINT "DEVICE NOT PRESENT": END |
|  | : rem 36 |
| 59120 | PRINT ST:END :rem 70 |

You'll also need to type in and save the file containing the definitions used by the "DEMO\#2" program. That's this next program, which is in machine language. The starting and ending addresses you'll need for MLX are:
Starting Address: 49152
Ending Address: 49829
Filename: GOBBLER.DEF
Save it with the filename GOBBLER.DEF immediately after the DEMO\#2 program if you're using tape.

If you've got a Datassette, the procedure for loading the three sections is the same as that for the DEMO\#1 program. Refer to the explanation if you've forgotten the process.

Before you run DEMO\#2, plug a joystick into port 2. Be ready to move the joystick as soon as you see the sprites.

The motion of the first sprite, the one with the smiling face, is controlled by the joystick. If you move this sprite past the edge of the screen, it wraps around to the other side. Also notice that this sprite changes shape when you change directions. There's a different shape for each of the eight directions, plus a shape for when the sprite is stationary.

The second sprite alternates between two shapes and chases the first sprite. The program ends when the second sprite catches the first.

While all the action is taking place, the BASIC program is doing only two things. It's alternating the second sprite between the two shapes, and it's watching for when the two sprites collide.




Program 12-6. GOBBLER.DEF
To enter this program, you must use "The Machine Language



## Hi, Guy

This final program demonstrates a few other features of the Sprite Control System. Enter Program 12-7 and save it with the filename DEMO\#3. Remember to change the value of DN in line 120 to 1 if you're using the Datassette.

## Program 12-7. DEMO\#3

For error-free program entry, be sure to use "The Automatic Proofreader," Appendix D.

$47 \varnothing$ SYS MU,SN, $1:$ REM TURN ON MULTICOLOR MODE : rem 153 $48 \varnothing$ SYS WI,SN,1:SYS HE,SN,1:REM SET DOUBLE WIDTH A ND HEIGHT :rem 38 $49 \varnothing$ SYS PO,SN, 18ø,1ø2+(SN-2)*42:REM SET POSITION : rem 23
5øø SYS JS,SN,1,3:REM SET JOYSTICK 1 CONTROL, 4 DI RECTIONS, MOMENTUM :rem $12 \varnothing$
$51 \varnothing$ SYS MO,SN,1,1:REM SET SPEED :rem 51
520 SYS BO,SN,1:REM TURN ON BOUNCE :rem 17
530 SYS RB,SN,319-48:REM SET BOUNDARIES :rem 8ø
535 SYS TB,SN,(SN-2)*42:SYS BB,SN,199-73+42*(SN-2)
:REM SET BOUNDARIES $\quad$ rem 254
540 NEXT SN :rem 121
55ø SYS BL, Ø, 254:SYS BL,1,255:SYS BL,2,254:SYS BL, 3,255:REM MAKE SPRITES APPEAR :rem 47
560 SYS UN, $1+2+4+8:$ REM UNFREEZE SPRITES :rem $1 \varnothing 1$
570 IF (PEEK (56320)AND16) AND (PEEK(56321)AND16) G
OTO 57ø:REM WAIT FOR TRIGGER :rem 36
$58 \emptyset$ SYS RE:REMOVE SPRITE CONTROL SYSTEM :rem 24
585 POKE 198, Ø:REM CLEAR KEY BUFFER :rem 247
590 END :rem 117
9øø IF DN=8 THEN RETURN :rem 62
$91 \varnothing$ PRINT "\{CLR\}\{DOWN\}POSITION TAPE TO THE BEGINNI NG OF":PRINT FS;" AND PRESS RETURN" :rem 72
915 PRINT:FOR K=1 TO 17:PRINT "\{6 SPACES\}\{RVS\}
\{4 SPACES\}\{OFF\}\{7 SPACES\}\{RVS\}\{5 SPACES\}\{OFF\}
\{7 SPACES\}\{RVS\}\{4 SPACES\}":NEXT :rem 239
920 WAIT 198,15:GET K\$:RETURN :rem 167
58øøø POKE SA, 1:POKE SX,DN:POKE SY,1:SYS 65466:F\$= "SCS.OBJ":GOSUB 59øøø :rem 116
5801ø POKE SA,ø:SYS 65493:IF PEEK(SP)AND1 GOTO 591 ØØ
: rem 127
$58 \varnothing 2 \varnothing \mathrm{IN}=49664: \mathrm{RE}=49667: \mathrm{RL}=4967 \varnothing: \mathrm{RS}=49673: \mathrm{DF}=49676$ : $\mathrm{BL}=49679$ : $\mathrm{CO}=49682$ : $\mathrm{WI}=49685$
:rem 172
$58 \emptyset 3 \emptyset \mathrm{HE}=49688: \mathrm{PO}=49691: \mathrm{DI}=49694: \mathrm{WR}=49697: \mathrm{BO}=497 \varnothing \varnothing$ $: \mathrm{MO}=497 \emptyset 3: \mathrm{LB}=49706: \mathrm{RB}=49709$ : rem 148
$5804 \varnothing \mathrm{~TB}=49712: \mathrm{BB}=49715: \mathrm{FR}=49718: \mathrm{UN}=49721: \mathrm{PR}=49724$ : MU=49727: EN=49730:JS=49733 :rem 149
5805ø AU=49736:CH=49739:RETURN :rem 14
581øø GOSUB 58øøø:SYS 51123,LA:LA=LA+1191:RETURN
:rem 11
584øø POKE 49749,LA-256*INT(LA/256):POKE 4975Ø,INT (LA/256) : rem 182
$5841 \varnothing$ READ J:POKE 49751,J:FOR K=ø TO J:READ J:POKE LA,J:LA=LA+1
: rem 16
$5842 \varnothing$ IF J THEN FOR LA=LA TO LA+J-1:READ I:POKE LA , I:NEXT LA : rem 92

```
58430 NEXT K:RETURN :rem 168
585ø\emptyset POKE SA,l:POKE SX,DN:POKE SY,\varnothing:SYS 65466:F$=
    F$+".DEF":GOSUB 59øø\emptyset :rem 24
58510 POKE SA,\varnothing:POKE SX,LA-256*INT(LA/256):POKE SY
    ,INT(LA/256) :rem 78
5852ø SYS 65493:IF PEEK(SP)AND1 GOTO 591ø\emptyset :rem 44
5853ø LA=LA+1:POKE 49749,LA-256*INT(LA/256):POKE 4
    9750,INT(LA/256) :rem 167
58540 POKE 49751,PEEK(LA-1):LA=PEEK(SX)+256*PEEK(S
    Y) : RETURN
    :rem 31
59øøø FOR K=1 TO LEN(F$):POKE 584+K,ASC(MID$(F$,K)
        ):NEXT :rem 88
5901\varnothing POKE SA,LEN(F$):POKE SX,73:POKE SY,2:SYS 654
    69:RETURN :rem 6
591ø\varnothing P=PEEK(SA):PRINT " ERROR: ";:IF P=4 THEN PRI
    NT "FILE NOT FOUND":END :rem 2Ø\emptyset
5911\varnothing IF P=5 THEN PRINT "DEVICE NOT PRESENT":END
                                    :rem 36
                                    :rem 70
```

Type in and save the following machine language file to tape or disk. Your responses to MLX's prompts will be:

## Starting Address: 49152

Ending Address: 49265
Filename: GUY.DEF
If you have a tape drive, place this file immediately after "DEMO\#3."

## Program 12-8. GUY.DEF

To enter this program, you must use "The Machine Language Editor (MLX)," a program found in Appendix C.

| 49152 | : |
| :---: | :---: |
| 49158 | :ø85, Øøø, øø1 |
| 49164 | : 255 , 064, $001,255,064,003,142$ |
| 4917ø | :ø60,192, Øø 2 ,255,192,øøø,2ø8 |
| 49176 | :195, øøø, øøø,255, $000, \varnothing \varnothing 0,218$ |
| 49182 | : $060,000, \varnothing 02,170,128,010,144$ |
| 49188 | : $170,160,042,170,168,042,020$ |
| 49194 | : $170,168,040,170,040,040,158$ |
| $4920 \square$ | : $170,040,040,170,040,040,036$ |
| 49206 | : $170,040,040,170,040,040,042$ |
| 49212 | : $170,040,060,170,060,048,096$ |
| 49218 | : $060,085,060, \varnothing 02,170,128,059$ |
| 49224 |  |
| 49230 | : $002,170,128,002,170,128,166$ |
| 49236 | : $062,130,128,062,130,128,092$ |
| 49242 | :øø2,13ø,128, $062,130,128,098$ |

49248 : $002,130,128,0 \varnothing 2,130,128,104$
49254 : øø2,130,128, Øø3,195,192,24ø
$49260=015,195,240,063,195,252, \varnothing 44$
Loading from tape is identical to the previous two examples. Make sure you have the tape with the SCS.OBJ file handy.

A joystick plugged into port 2 controls the figure on the left. The figure actually consists of two sprites, one above the other. The sprites are synchronized so that they move together to create the appearance of one large object.

Also notice that the figure doesn't stop moving when you stop pushing the joystick. Instead, it keeps moving in the current direction. Another feature is that only four directions are allowed. The joystick is ignored when it's pushed in a diagonal direction.

To make the other guy move, plug the joystick into port 1. The Sprite Control System can control sprites through either joystick port, or even both at the same time. This second figure does not wrap around the screen, but simply rebounds off the edges.

One other feature demonstrated by this program is the foreground/background priority feature. The first figure (initially on the left) moves in front of the drawing on the screen, while the second moves behind the drawing.

Press the joystick button to end this program.
These three demonstration programs have illustrated many of the things possible with the Sprite Control System. But this has been only an introduction. The next chapters will show you how to design your own sprites using the Sprite Editor, how to use the Sprite Control System in your own BASIC programs, how to control sprites with joysticks, how to automatically change their shapes, even how to detect sprite-to-sprite collisions. You've just started. But as promised, you'll find the Control System simple to use, easy to learn, and a tremendous aid when it comes to anything dealing with sprites.

## Defining Sprite Shapes

You've just seen how the Sprite Control System can quickly and easily move and animate sprites on your Commodore 64's screen. But before you can use the Control System, you have to have some sprites. "The Sprite Editor" is a utility which helps you design and create sprites, without the tedious task of plotting on graph paper, counting up bit values, or even retyping the sprite definition into the computer. The Editor does all this for you. With this program and a joystick, it's easy, even fun, to design sprite shapes.

Here's the listing for the Sprite Editor. Remember to change $\mathrm{DN}=8$ in line 110 to $\mathrm{DN}=1$ if you're using tape.

## Program 13-1. The Sprite Editor

For error-free program entry, be sure to use "The Automatic Proofreader," Appendix D.
$1 \varnothing \varnothing$ PRINT CHRS(147):PRINT " SPRITE DEFINITION EDIT
OR":REM Vl. $\varnothing$ :rem 161

110 PRINT " BY CRAIG CHAMBERLAIN":DN=8:SA=780:SX=7 81:SY=782:SP=783:GOTO 8øø :rem 178
$2 \varnothing \varnothing$ IF SN AND SN=NS AND SL= $\varnothing$ THEN NS=NS $-1: T A=A S-1$ : RETURN $\quad$ :rem 23
$2 \varnothing 5$ IF SN>NS AND SL THEN NS=SN:AS=TA+1:SL\%(SN)=ø:T
A=AS :rem 191
$2 ø 6$ IF SN>NS THEN RETURN :rem 182
$21 \varnothing$ IF SL=SL\% (SN) GOTO $230 \quad$ :rem $13 \emptyset$
$22 \varnothing$ SYS MV, AS+SL\% (SN),TA-AS-SL\% (SN), AS+SL:TA=TA-SL \% (SN) + SL: SL\& (SN) $=$ SL $\quad$ rem 224
230 SYS MV,DB,SL,AS:RETURN :rem 142
$25 \varnothing$ PRINT "\{UP\}" TAB(6) N "\{LEFT\}\{2 SPACES\}":FOR K =1 TO 30:NEXT:WAIT 56320,28,28 :rem 122
260 P=PEEK(5632ø):IF PAND4 GOTO $27 \varnothing$ :rem 141
262 IF $N$ AND $N<=N S$ THEN $N=N-1: S L=S L 8(N): A=A-S L-1: S$
YS 51257,A,SL,DB:GOTO $250 \quad$ :rem 229
264 IF $\mathrm{N}=\varnothing$ AND SL8(NS) AND NS $<M X$ THEN N=NS $+1: S L=\varnothing$ :
SYS 51266:GOTO 25ø :rem 8
$266 \mathrm{~N}=\mathrm{NS}: \mathrm{SL}=\mathrm{SL} \%(\mathrm{~N}): \mathrm{A}=\mathrm{TA}-\mathrm{SL}: \mathrm{SYS}$ 51257,A,SL,DB:GOTO \{SPACE\}25б
:rem 141
$27 \varnothing$ IF PANDB GOTO $28 \varnothing$ :rem 86
272 IF N<NS THEN N=N+1:A=A+SL+1:SL=SL\%(N):SYS 5125
7,A,SL,DB:GOTO $25 \varnothing$ :rem $13 \varnothing$
274 IF N=NS AND SL AND NS <MX THEN N=NS+1:SL= $\varnothing$ :SYS \{SPACE\}51266:GOTO 25ø
:rem 99
$276 \mathrm{~N}=\varnothing$ :SL=SL\%( $\varnothing$ ):A=BA+2:SYS 51257,A,SL,DB:GOTO 25 Ø :rem 126
$28 \emptyset$ IF PAND16 GOTO $25 \emptyset$ : rem 131
$29 \varnothing$ WAIT 56320,16:POKE 198, $\varnothing:$ RETURN :rem 228
$3 \varnothing \varnothing$ GOSUB 620:PRINT "EDITING" SN ..... :rem 91
$31 \varnothing$ K=FRE ( $\varnothing$ ):SYS 5ø832:SL=PEEK(SX):GET K\$ :rem 117$32 \emptyset$ IF K\$="E" AND (NS OR SN OR SL) GOTO $5 ø \emptyset$
:rem 11ø
325 IF K\$="C" AND (NS OR SN OR SL) GOTO 51ø
:rem 114
330 IF K\$="\{INST\}" THEN A=DB+3*PEEK(5ø983):SYS 5ø5
11,A,E-A,A+3,A:GOTO 310 : rem 163
335 IF K\$=CHR (20) THEN A=DB+3*PEEK (50983):SYS 505
$33, A+3, E-A, A: G O T O \quad 31 \varnothing$ ..... :rem 27
340 IF K\$="\{LEFT\}" THEN SYS 5ø643:GOTO 31ø:rem 234
342 IF K\$="\{RIGHT\}" THEN SYS 5ø671:GOTO 31ø
: rem 109
344 IF K\$="\{UP\}" THEN SYS 50549:GOTO 31ø :rem 231
346 IF K\$="\{DOWN\}" THEN SYS 5Ø568:GOTO 31ø:rem 106
35Ø IF K\$="F" THEN SYS 5ø699:GOTO 310 :rem 159
355 IF K\$="I" THEN SYS 5ø587:GOTO 310 :rem 163
360 IF K\$="\{Fl\}" THEN POKE 5ø371,17ø:GOTO $31 \varnothing$
:rem 198
362 IF K\$="\{F3\}" THEN POKE 5ø371,85:GOTO 31ø
: rem 158
364 IF K\$="\{F5\}" THEN POKE 5ø?371,255:GOTO 310
: rem 208
370 IF K\$<>"\{F2\}" GOTO 373 ..... : rem 181
371 GOSUB 640:IF N>=ø THEN POKE 53288,N:POKE 50373
+PEEK (5ø37Ø), N:SYS 50735 ..... :rem 27
372 GOTO 3øø ..... :rem 104
373 IF K\$<>"\{F4\}" GOTO 376 ..... :rem 188
374 GOSUB 64ø:IF N>=ø THEN POKE 53285,N:POKE 50374-PEEK(5037ø),N:SYS 50735 :rem 30
375 GOTO 3øØ ..... :rem 107
376 IF K\$<>"\{F6\}" GOTO 380 ..... :rem 187
377 GOSUB 64ø:IF N>=ø THEN POKE 53286,N:POKE 50375,N:SYS $5 \emptyset 735$ :rem 129
378 GOTO $3 \varnothing \varnothing$ :rem $11 \varnothing$
380 IF K\$<>"\{F8\}" GOTO $39 \emptyset$ ..... :rem 184
381 GOSUB 64ø:IF N>=ø THEN POKE 53282,N ..... :rem 84
382 GOTO $3 \varnothing \varnothing$ ..... :rem 105
39ø IF K\$="M" THEN SYS 51179:GOTO 31ø ..... :rem 164
4øø IF K\$="W" THEN POKE 53277,NOTPEEK(53277)AND2:GOTO $31 \varnothing$:rem 119
405 IF K\$="H" THEN POKE 53271,NOTPEEK(53271)AND2:GOTO 310:rem 97
$41 \varnothing$ IF K\$<>"\{CLR\}" GOTO $42 \emptyset$ ..... :rem 179
412 GOSUB 620:PRINT "ERASE?":GOSUB 630:IF K\$="Y" T HEN SYS 51266 :rem $\varnothing$
414 GOTO 3øø420 TF K\$="L" GOTO 520:rem 49
430 IF K\$="S" AND (NS OR SN OR SL) GOTO 53ø: rem 129
$44 \varnothing$ IF K\$="D" AND (NS OR SN OR SL) GOTO $54 \emptyset$
: rem 116
$45 \varnothing$ IF K\$<>"Q" GOTO 31ø ..... :rem 115
452 GOSUB 62ø:PRINT "QUIT?":GOSUB 630:IF K\$="N" GO TO $3 \varnothing 0$
:rem $1 \varnothing 2$
454 POKE 648,4:SYS 51386:END ..... rem 31
5øø GOSUB 2øø:IF TA>MT THEN F\$="MEMORY FULL":GOTO\{SPACE \} 710
: rem 21
505 GOSUB 620:PRINT "EDIT":N=SN:A=AS:GOSUB 250:SN=N:AS=A:GOTO 300: rem 158
51ø GOSUB 200:GOSUB 620:PRINT "COPY":N=SN:A=AS:GOSUB 250:GOTO 300: rem 73
520 GOSUB 620:PRINT "LOAD:";:F\$="":GOSUB 670:IF F\$ ="" GOTO 300 ..... : rem 75
521 GOSUB 660:SYS 51266:GOSUB 6øø : rem 65
522 POKE SA, $\varnothing$ :POKE SX,FNL(BA):POKE SY,FNH(BA):POKE214,20:GOSUB 680:rem 131
523 SYS 65493:GOSUB 690:IF PEEK(SP)AND1 GOTO 7øø
: rem 179
524 IF PEEK(SX)+256*PEEK(SY)>MT THEN F\$="NOT ENOUG H MEMORY":GOTO 71ø : rem 243
525 NS=PEEK (BA) : A=BA+1:FOR K=ø TO NS:SL\%(K)=PEEK (A ) : A=A+SL\% (K) $\mathrm{Cl}: \mathrm{NEXT}$ ..... : rem 14
$3 \varnothing \varnothing$
rem 133
530 GOSUB 620:PRINT "SAVE:";:F\$="":GOSUB 67ø:IF F\$="" GOTO 3øø: rem 91
531 GOSUB 2øø:POKE BA,NS:A=BA+1:FOR K=ø TO NS:POKEA,SL\% (K):A=A+SL\% (K) Cl : NEXT :rem 167
532 GOSUB 6øØ:POKE SA,251:POKE 251,FNL(BA):POKE 252, FNH (BA): rem 48
534 POKE SX,FNL(TA):POKE SY,FNH(TA):POKE 214,21:GOSUB 680: rem 82
535 SYS 65496:GOSUB 690:ON (PEEK(SP)AND1)+1 GOTO 3øø,7øø :rem 51
540 GOSUB 620:PRINT "LINE:";:D\$="" :rem 124
541 WAIT 198,15:GET K\$:IF D\$="" THEN ON (K\$=CHR\$(13))+2 GOTO 30Ø,544:rem 175
542 IF K\$=CHR\$(2ø) THEN PRINT K\$;:D\$=LEFT\$(D\$,LEND\$)-1):GOTO 541:rem 6
543 IF K\$=CHR\$(13) THEN N=VAL(D\$):GOTO 546:rem 245
544 IF VAL(D\$)>6399 OR K\$<"Ø" OR K\$>"9" OR (K\$="Ø"AND D\$="") GOTO 541:rem 13
545 PRINT K\$;:D\$=D\$+K\$:GOTO 541 ..... :rem 195
546 GOSUB 2øø:POKE BA,NS:A=BA+1:FOR K=ø TO NS:POKE$A, S L \%(K): A=A+S L \%(K)+1: N E X T \quad$ :rem 173
547 GOSUB 62ø:P=BA:A=TA ..... : rem 79

550 PRINT N:PRINT "\{UP\}\{2 RIGHT\}";:Q=76-LEN(STRS (N )):D\$=STR\$(PEEK(P)) :rem 231
$551 \mathrm{P}=\mathrm{P}+1: I F \mathrm{P}=\mathrm{TA}$ GOTO 554 :rem $15 \emptyset$
$552 \mathrm{~K}=\operatorname{STR}(\operatorname{PEEK}(\mathrm{P})): J=\operatorname{FRE}(\varnothing) \quad$ : rem 155
553 IF LEN (D\$)+LEN (K\$) <Q THEN D $=\mathrm{D} \$+", "+M I D(K \$, 2)$ $: P=P+1: I F P<T A$ GOTO 552 :rem $1 \varnothing 7$
$554 \mathrm{R}=\mathrm{A}+6+\mathrm{LEN}(\mathrm{D} \$): \operatorname{POKE} \mathrm{A}, \mathrm{FNL}(\mathrm{R}): \operatorname{POKE} \mathrm{A}+1, \mathrm{FNH}(\mathrm{R})$
:rem 156
555 POKE A+2,FNL(N):POKE A+3,FNH(N):POKE A+4,131
: rem 144
556 FOR K=1 TO LEN(D\$): POKE A+4+K,ASC(MID\$(D\$,K)):
NEXT:POKE R-1, $0: A=R \quad$ :rem 116
557 IF A>MT THEN F\$="NOT ENOUGH MEMORY":GOTO $71 \varnothing$
: rem 5
558 IF P<TA THEN N=N+1:GOTO 550 :rem 195
559 POKE A, $:$ POKE $A+1, \varnothing: A=A+2 \quad$ :rem 39
560 GOSUB 620:PRINT "FILE:";:F\$="":GOSUB 670:IF F\$ $=" "\{2$ SPACES $\} G O T O$ $30 \emptyset \quad$ :rem 79
561 POKE SA,l:POKE SX,DN:POKE SY, $0: S Y S$ 65466:F\$=F\$ +".DAT":GOSUB 61ø :rem 85
562 POKE SA, 251:POKE 251,FNL(TA): POKE 252,FNH(TA): POKE SX,FNL(A): POKE SY,FNH(A) :rem 104
563 POKE 214,21:GOSUB 680:SYS 65496:GOSUB 690:ON ( PEEK (SP)AND1)+1 GOTO 3øø,7øø :rem 27
6øØ POKE SA,l:POKE SX,DN:POKE SY, Ø:SYS 65466:FS=F\$ +".DEF"
: rem 244
610 FOR K=1 TO LEN(F\$): POKE 584+K,ASC(MID\$(F\$,K)):
NEXT :rem 241
615 POKE SA,LEN(F\$):POKE SX,73:POKE SY,2:SYS 65469 : RETURN
:rem 163
$62 \varnothing$ POKE 214, 22:PRINT:PRINT "\{2ø SPACES\}":PRINT " \{UP\}\{2 SPACES\}";:RETURN :rem 177
630 GET K\$:IF K\$<>"Y" AND K\$<>"N" GOTO 630 :rem 87
635 RETURN :rem 126
640 GOSUB 62Ø:PRINT "ENTER COLOR:"; :rem 47
641 GET K\$:IF K\$=CHR\$(13) THEN N=-1:RETURN :rem 71
642 IF K\$<"Ø" OR K\$>"9" GOTO 641 :rem 233
643 PRINT K\$;:N=ASC(K\$)-48 :rem 201
644 GET K\$:IF K\$=CHR\$(13) THEN RETURN :rem 39
645 IF K\$=CHR\$(2Ø) THEN PRINT K\$;:GOTO 641 :rem 2
646 IF N<>l OR K\$<"Ø" OR K\$>"5" GOTO 644 :rem 134
647 PRINT K\$;:N=ASC(K\$)-38 :rem 204
648 GET K\$:IF K\$=CHR\$(13) THEN RETURN :rem 43
649 IF K\$=CHR (2Ø) THEN PRINT K\$;:N=1:GOTO 644
: rem 255
$65 \emptyset$ GOTO 648
:rem 118
$66 \varnothing$ NS $=\varnothing: S N=\varnothing: A S=B A+2: S L=\varnothing: S L \%(\varnothing)=\varnothing: T A=A S:$ RETURN
:rem $2 \not 1$
$67 \varnothing$ K=FRE ( $\varnothing$ ) : WAIT 198,15:GET K\$:IF K\$く" " OR K\$>"Z " OR LEN(F\$)=12 GOTO 674
:rem 8

672 F\＄＝F\＄＋K\＄：PRINT K\＄；：GOTO 67ø
：rem 203
674 IF K\＄＝CHR\＄（20）AND F\＄＞＂＂THEN PRINT K\＄；：F\＄＝LEF T\＄（F\＄，LEN（F\＄）－1）：GOTO $67 \varnothing \quad$ ：rem 212
676 IF K\＄＜＞CHR\＄（13）GOTO 670 ：rem 167
678 RETURN ：rem 133
$68 \varnothing$ POKE 648，4：PRINT＂\｛WHT\}":POKE 53269,ø:RETURN
：rem 199
690 POKE 53269，3：POKE 648，192：PRINT＂\｛HOME\}区4习":RE TURN
：rem 216
$7 \varnothing \varnothing \mathrm{P}=\mathrm{PEEK}(\mathrm{SA}): I F \mathrm{P}=4$ THEN $\mathrm{F} \$=$＂FILE NOT FOUND＂：GOT 0710
：rem 106
$7 \emptyset 2$ IF P＝5 THEN F\＄＝＂DEVICE NOT PRESENT＂：GOTO $71 \varnothing$
：rem 209
704 F\＄＝＂ERROR＂＋STR\＄（ST）
：rem 80
710 GOSUB 62ø：PRINT F\＄：WAIT 198，15：GET K\＄：GOTO 3øø
：rem 19
$8 \emptyset \emptyset$ FOR K＝5ø37Ø TO 51421：READ P：POKE K，P：NEXT
：rem 245
$81 \varnothing \mathrm{DB}=503 \varnothing 4: \mathrm{MV}=50376: \mathrm{E}=50367: \mathrm{DEF}$ FNH $(\mathrm{N})=\mathrm{INT}(\mathrm{N} / 256$
）： $\operatorname{DEF} \operatorname{FNL}(\mathrm{N})=\mathrm{N}-256 * \mathrm{FNH}(\mathrm{N}) \quad$ ：rem 209
815 SYS 51149：SYS MV，53248，2048，53248：FOR K＝53464 \｛SPACE\}TO 53503:READ P:POKE K,P:NEXT :rem 124
82ø SYS 51164：POKE 648，192：PRINT＂\｛CLR\}\{WHT\}\{H\}":S YS 51272
：rem 82
835 FOR K＝1 TO 21：PRINT＂ 22 SPACES $\}\{R V S\}[£[£[£[$ £［£［£［£［£［£［£［£［£†＂：NEXT
：rem $2 ø 6$
 ＜E4习\｛HOME\}"
：rem 64
845 FOR K＝1 TO 8：PRINT TAB（28）＂\｛1ø SHIFT－SPACE\}": NEXT
：rem 114
848 PRINT：FOR K＝1 TO 12：READ F\＄：PRINT TAB（28）F\＄：N EXT
：rem 13
850 SYS 51246：SYS MV，DB，63，50176：SYS MV，DB，63，5ø24 $\emptyset \quad$ ：rem 58
860 FOR K＝ø TO 18 STEP 3：READ P，Q，R：POKE 5ø176＋K，P
：rem 183
865 POKE 5ø24Ø＋K，Q：POKE 50241＋K，R：NEXT ：rem 146
869 MX＝255：DIM SL\％（MX）：rem 243
$87 \varnothing \mathrm{BA}=\operatorname{PEEK}(49)+256 * \operatorname{PEEK}(5 \emptyset)+5 \varnothing \emptyset: \operatorname{MT}=\operatorname{PEEK}(51)+256 * \operatorname{P}$ EEK（52）－5øø：GOSUB 66Ø ：rem 17Ø
890 POKE 53269，3：GOTO 30ø ：rem 62
9øØ DATA Ø，17Ø，1，14，2，7，32，70，197，132，251，133，252， 32，70，197，140，68，197，141，69 ：rem 203
901 DATA 197，32，70，197，132，253，133，254，165，253，56， 229，251，17Ø，165，254，229，252 ：rem 235
$9 \varnothing 2$ DATA $236,68,197,237,69,197,144,35,160,0,174,69$ ，197，240，14，177，251，145，253 ：rem 253
903 DATA $2 ø \varnothing, 2 \emptyset 8,249,23 \varnothing, 252,230,254,202,208,242,1$ $74,68,197,24 \varnothing, 8,177,251,145 \quad$ ：rem 219

9ø4 DATA $253,2 \varnothing \varnothing, 202,208,248,96,173,69,197,168,1 \varnothing 1$ ,252,133,252,152,24,101,254
:rem 218
905 DATA $133,254,172,68,197,240,8,136,177,251,145$, 253,152,208,248,174,69,197
:rem 206
906 DATA $240,15,198,252,198,254,136,177,251,145,25$ 3,152,2ø8,248,2ø2,2ø8,241,96
: rem 34
$9 \emptyset 7$ DATA $\varnothing, \varnothing, 32,253,174,32,138,173,76,247,183,32,2$ Øø,196,32,70,197,132,251,133 :rem 4
$9 \varnothing 8$ DATA $252,169, \varnothing, 160,2,145,251,136,16,251,76,47$, 198,169, ø,162,2,157,191,196 :rem 233
909 DATA $202,16,250,32,200,196,76,47,198,162,2,189$ ,128,196,157,191,196,202,16
:rem 242
91Ø DATA $247,162,0,32,176,199,76,47,198,162,2,32,1$ 76,199,162,2,189,191,196,157 :rem 52
911 DATA $128,196,202,16,247,76,47,198,160,27,162,3$ 3,185,128,196,72,189,128,196 :rem 56
912 DATA $153,128,196,164,157,128,196,185,129,196,7$ 2,189,129,196,153,129,196,1ø4 :rem llø
913 DATA $157,129,196,185,130,196,72,189,130,196,15$ 3,130,196,1ø4,157,130,196,232 : rem 87
914 DATA $232,232,136,136,136,16,206,48,92,162,60,1$ 72,194,196,189,128,196,10,62 :rem 31
915 DATA $130,196,62,129,196,62,128,196,136,16,240$, $2 \varnothing 2,2 \boxed{2,2 ø 2,16,232,48,64,162} \quad$ :rem 12
916 DATA 60,172,194,196,189,130,196,74,126,128,196 ,126,129,196,126,130,196,136 :rem 53
917 DATA $16,240,202,202,202,16,232,48,36,160,60,18$ 5,128,196,32,142,199,72,185 :rem 219
918 DATA $130,196,32,142,199,153,128,196,185,129,19$ 6,32,142,199,153,129,196,104 :rem 50
919 DATA $153,130,196,136,136,136,16,222,169,42,133$ ,97,169,216,133,98,169,2,133 :rem 36
920 DATA $99,173,194,196,56,42,133,254,169,23,133,1$ øø,164,99,185,128,196,133,253 :rem 95
921 DATA $162,8,165,253,37,254,168,185,196,196,164$, $1 \varnothing 0,145,97,172,194,196,240,9$
: rem 52
922 DATA $198,1 \varnothing 0,7 \varnothing, 253,202,164,100,145,97,198,10 \varnothing$ , 70,253,202,208,223,198,99 :rem 174
923 DATA $165,1 \varnothing \varnothing, 16,208,165,97,24,105,40,133,97,14$ $4,2,230,98,165,99,24,165,6 \quad:$ rem 174
924 DATA $133,99,201,65,208,182,96,32,130,199,165,1$ 98,240,11,162,63,189,127,196 :rem 44
925 DATA 2ø8,3,2ø2,2ø8,248,96,173, $0,220,73,15,41,1$ $5,240,6,32,40,199,32,130,199$
: rem $\varnothing$
926 DATA $173, \varnothing, 220,41,16,208,219,173,38,199,74,74$, 74,133,254,173,39,199,10,109
:rem 33
927 DATA 39,199,161,254,168,173,38,199,41,7,174,19 $4,196,208,1 \varnothing, 17 \varnothing, 185,128,196$
:rem 58
928 DATA $93,26,199,76,251,198,74,170,189,34,199,17$ Ø, 45,195,196,133,254,138,57
: rem 28

929 DATA $128,196,197,254,208,5,89,128,196,176,8,13$ 8,73,255,57,128,196,5,254,153 :rem 124
930 DATA $128,196,32,47,198,32,130,199,173, \varnothing, 22 \varnothing, 41$ $, 16,2 \varnothing 8,13 \varnothing, 173, \varnothing, 22 \varnothing, 73,15 \quad: r e m 203$
931 DATA 41,15,240,240,32,40,199,76,181,198,128,64 , 32,16,8,4,2,1,192,48,12,3,ø :rem 249
932 DATA $\varnothing, 172,39,199,74,144,5,136,16,2,160,20,74$, $144,7,200,192,21,208,2,160,0 \quad: r e m 241$
933 DATA $140,39,199,174,38,199,172,194,196,240,15$, 74,144,6,2ø2,2ø2,16,2,162,22 :rem 23
934 DATA $74,144,20,232,208,11,74,144,5,202,16,2,16$ $2,23,74,144,6,232,224,24,2 \varnothing 8 \quad$ :rem $24 \varnothing$
935 DATA $1,170,142,38,199,173,38,199,10,10,10,105$, $41,141, \varnothing, 2 \varnothing 8,173,39,199,1 \varnothing, 1 \varnothing \quad$ :rem 44
936 DATA $10,105,59,141,1,208,96,162,8,165,162,197$, 162,240,252,202,2ø8,247,96 :rem 178
937 DATA $174,194,196,208,11,162,8,10,102,253,202,2$ ø8,250,165,253,96,162,4,10,38 :rem 57
938 DATA $254,10,102,253,70,254,102,253,202,2 \emptyset 8,243$ , 165,253,96,169,128,133,251 :rem 216
939 DATA $133,253,169,196,133,252,133,254,169,131,1$ 49,251,169,63,141,68,197,169 :rem 55
$94 \emptyset$ DATA Ø,141,69,197,76,223,196,173,14,22Ø,41,254 ,141,14,220,165,1,41,251,133 :rem 249
941 DATA $1,96,165,1,9,4,133,1,173,14,220,9,1,141,1$ $4,220,96,173,194,196,170,73,1 \quad$ :rem 42
942 DATA $141,194,196,24,105,16,168,189,42,200,141$, $28,2 \varnothing 8,32,2 \varnothing 5,199,189,44,2 \varnothing \varnothing \quad$ :rem 22
943 DATA $162,6,157,225,208,2 \emptyset 2,16,250,32,22 \emptyset, 199,7$ 8,38,199,14,38,199,140,248 :rem 194
944 DATA 195,32,107,199,173,197,196,174,198,196,14 $2,197,196,141,198,196,76,47 \quad$ :rem 40
945 DATA $198,2, \varnothing, 255,127,169,0,160,62,153,128,196$, $136,16,250,96,32,46,200,32 \quad:$ rem $17 \varnothing$
946 DATA 2øø,196,76,47,198,32,46,2øø,76,47,198,12ø $, 169,217,141,40,3,169,200,141 \quad$ : rem 74
947 DATA $41,3,88,173,2,221,9,3,141,2,221,173,0,221$ $, 41,252,141,0,221,169,4,141$ : rem 176
948 DATA $24,208,169,11,141,32,208,169,1,141,33,208$ ,169, 0,141,34,2ø8,141,35,2ø8 : rem Ø
949 DATA 141,39,208,141,27,208,141,28,208,169,91,1 $41,17,208,169,16,141,248,195$
:rem 35
950 DATA 169,18,141,249,195,169,8,141,2,208,169,2, $141,23,2 ø 8,141,29,2 ø 8,141,16$ :rem 18
951 DATA 2ø8,169,66,141,3,208,169,14,141,40,208,16 9,2,141,37,208,169,7,141,38 :rem 227
952 DATA 2ø8,76,107,199,120,169,237,141,40,3,169,2 $46,141,41,3,88,173,2,221,9,3 \quad$ :rem 16
953 DATA 141,2,221,173, $0,221,9,3,141, \varnothing, 221,76,129$, $255,169,255,201,127,96 \quad$ :rem 212

```
96\emptyset DATA Ø,127,127,127,127,127,127,127,0,127,127,1
    27,127,127,127,127,0,255,255 :rem 5
961 DATA 255,255,255,255,255,127,127,127,127,127,1
    27,127,127,127,255,255,255 :rem 196
962 DATA 255,255,255,255 :rem 175
97Ø DATA EDIT,COPY, LOAD,SAVE,DATA,QUIT, ,FLIP, INVER
    T,MULTICOLOR,WIDTH,HEIGHT :rem 241
980 DATA 254,255,254,198,192,6,198,192,6,198,192,6
    ,198,192,6,198,192,6,254,255 :rem 76
981 DATA 254 :rem 87
```

Plug a joystick into port 2 and run the program. It takes a moment to initialize. You'll see a $24 \times 21$ grid on the left side of the screen. In the upper-right corner will be a black square, and below that a list of some of the editing commands. At the bottom of the screen the message EDITING 0 appears, indicating that you're currently editing definition number 0 .

## Joystick Editing

The cursor is displayed in the grid as a small box with thick edges. Push the joystick in any of the eight directions to move the cursor from one grid square to another. If you move the cursor off one side of the grid, it wraps around to the other side.

Press the joystick button to fill a square. To fill an area or draw a line, hold down the button while you push the joystick. Erasing is just as simple; move the cursor to the desired square and press the button again. If you hold the button down and move the cursor over filled areas, you can erase entire sections.

As you edit on the large grid, you'll notice that the shape is displayed as an actual sprite in the black square at the topright corner of the screen. This can give you an idea of what the sprite will look like in a BASIC program.

The remainder of this chapter explains each of the Sprite Editor's features and commands. As you read, try them out with a shape you've drawn on the editing grid.

## The Sprite Editor Commands and Features

Flip and Invert. To flip the current definition left to right, press the F key. This gives you a mirror image of the definition. Of course, the change will not be noticeable if the definition is symmetrical. Press the I key to invert the definition. This turns the definition upside down.

Scrolling. Use the cursor keys (along with the SHIFT key to move up or left) to scroll the shape in any of four directions.

Insert. Sometimes it's necessary to expand or contract a sprite definition. To expand it, move the cursor to the row where you want the expansion to occur and press the SHIFT and INST/DEL keys at the same time. The row on which the cursor is positioned, and all the rows below it, will scroll down one row to create a gap. The bottom row will scroll off the grid and will not be recoverable.

Delete. This contracts a sprite definition. Press the DEL key (unSHIFTed INST/DEL) to delete the row on which the cursor is currently positioned. All the rows below the cursor will scroll up one row to fill in the gap.

Erase. To clear the editing grid, press SHIFT-CLR/HOME and then hit the $Y$ key in response to the ERASE? prompt. If you accidentally hit SHIFT-CLR/HOME, press the N key to cancel the clear.

Change color. You can change the color of the sprite at any time. This color, however, does not necessarily have to be the same color that will be used to display the sprite in BASIC.

To change the current color, press the f2 key (SHIFT and f 1 together). When the prompt ENTER COLOR: appears, type a color number from 0 to 15 . The color numbers are listed in the Commodore 64 User's Guide. The color changes as soon as you press the RETURN key. Notice that the color changes in both the editing grid and in the shape box in the upper-right corner.

If you decide not to change the color, just press the RETURN key without entering a number. The color will not be changed.

You can also change the background color of the box in the upper right. Press the f8 key (SHIFT and f7 keys) and enter the number of the desired color. This feature shows you how a sprite will look on different background colors.

To set the box background back to black, press the $f 8$ key and enter 0 .

Width and Height. Press the W key to make the sprite shown in the upper right alternate between normal and double width. Press the H key to alternate the sprite between normal and double height. You can use these keys in combination to
reduce or enlarge the sprite in either, or both, directions.
Like the color change feature, this is provided for editing purposes only. The size chosen in the Editor has no effect on the size used when the sprite is displayed by a BASIC program.

Multicolor. The Sprite Editor also supports multicolor mode editing. In multicolor mode, a sprite can display up to three different colors, instead of just one. The only trade-off is that the horizontal resolution of the sprite is reduced from 24 to 12 pixels across.

Press the M key to switch to multicolor mode. The grid will change to show a grid $12 \times 21$. Any previous drawing will appear as garbage, so you may also want to press SHIFTCLR/HOME.

Push the joystick and press the trigger as normal to fill in the squares with the first color. To change to the second color, press f 3 . All subsequent drawing is now done in the second color. Press the f5 key to switch to the third color. When you want to return to the first color, press the f 1 key.

Key effect. f1: Draw using first color; f3: Draw using second color; f5: Draw using third color.

If you want to change one of these colors, just press SHIFT with the corresponding function key. Recall that you pressed f2 (SHIFT and f1) to change the first color when you were in normal color mode. Press f4 (SHIFT-f3) or f6 (SHIFTf5) to change the second or third color.

Key effect. f2: Change first color; f4: Change second color; f6: Change third color.

Changing a color does not change which color is currently used for drawing. This means that if you're filling in squares with the first color and then press f 6 to change the third color, the third color will change, but drawing will continue with the first color.

Press the $M$ key a second time to turn off the multicolor mode. The drawing in the grid will appear distorted again.

Edit. The Sprite Editor lets you edit multiple definitions. In fact, the program can handle up to 256 definitions, but it's doubtful that you'll ever need that many.

The Edit feature is used to switch from one definition to another. The program won't let you use this feature until at least one of the squares in definition 0 has been filled. Once definition 0 has been edited, definition 1 can be accessed.

To switch from one definition to another, select the Edit feature by pressing the E key. Now as you push the joystick left or right, the grid will switch between definitions 0 and 1. Definition 1 will be blank because it has not been edited yet. To edit definition 1, push the stick until definition 1 appears, press the joystick button to select that grid, and then begin editing. The message at the bottom of the screen should now read EDITING 1.

As soon as you've filled some of the squares in definition 1 , you can press the E key and push the stick left or right to select definition 0,1 , or 2 . You can go back to definition 0 , continue editing definition 1, or create a new definition 2. Just press the joystick button when you see the desired definition.

After definition 2 has been defined, definition 3 can be accessed, and so on. This process of creating new definitions one at a time can be continued for as long as necessary.

When you have a sequence of definitions, press the E key and push the joystick left or right to cycle through them all. This creates an animation effect. For example, you could define a sequence of definitions to show a person walking. The person's legs are in a slightly different position in each definition. Pressing the E key and cycling through the definitions will make the person appear to walk.

The number of definitions is reduced whenever the last one is erased. For instance, if definitions 0 through 6 have been edited, pressing the E key lets you cycle through definitions 0 to 7 . Definition 7 will be blank because it has not been defined yet. But if definition 6 is erased, it will be blank, so the Edit feature will only cycle through definitions 0 to 6 .

This happens only when the last definition is erased. If definitions 0 to 6 have been edited and you erase definition 3 , you'll still be able to access all the definitions. Definition 3 will just be blank.

One final note is that when you press the E key, the other editing features won't work until you select a definition. If it seems that the keyboard has locked up, it's probably because you forgot to press the joystick button to select a definition.

Copy. Use this feature to copy a definition into the current definition space. This can be a very handy feature when two definitions are very similar to each other. For example, definition 0 may show a figure walking to the left. You want definition 1 to show the same figure, only walking to the
right. Instead of drawing definition 1 from scratch, it's a lot easier to copy definition 0 into definition 1 and then use the $F$ key to flip the definition.

To use the Copy feature, make sure you're in the destination definition, the one that is going to be changed. You should see the prompt EDITING $n$, where $n$ is the number of the definition. Press the C key and push the stick left or right. When you come to the source definition, the one you want to copy to the destination definition, press the joystick button. You'll now be editing the destination definition. (The source definition has not been altered.)

Let's run through an example. You want to copy definition 2 into definition 4 . Definition 4 is the destination, definition 2 is the source. Make sure you're currently editing definition 4. If not, use the Edit feature to select it. Then press the $C$ key, push the joystick until definition 2 appears, and press the button. Definition 4 now matches definition 2. Definition 2, remember, has not been changed.

Save. The Save feature is used to store the current set of definitions as a tape or disk file. This file can later be loaded by a BASIC program, or retrieved for more editing by the Editor.

To save the current definitions, press the $S$ key and enter a filename up to 12 characters long. You may have noticed in Chapter 12 that the definition filenames have the extension .DEF-don't include this in the filename. It's automatically added by the Editor.

If you're saving the file to disk, be sure that the filename is not already in use to avoid the FILE EXISTS error. If an error does occur, the drive light will start to flash. The only error reported by the program is the DEVICE NOT PRESENT error.

The normal PRESS PLAY \& RECORD ON TAPE prompt will not appear if you're using the Datassette, so you'll have to remember to press both the buttons yourself. Also make sure that the tape has been advanced to an unused area so that you're not overwriting another program you may want intact.

If you accidentally press the S key and don't want to save a file, just press the RETURN key without entering a filename.

When you are defining a lot of shapes, it's a good idea to periodically save your work. There may be a power failure, or surge, which could erase all your work currently in memory.

Load. Use this feature to retrieve a set of definitions stored on tape or disk by the Save feature.

Since loading a new set of definitions erases those already in memory, you may want to save the current definitions before using Load.

To load a definition file, press the L key and enter the desired filename. The requested file is loaded into memory, replacing the current definitions. If you're using disk, the error FILE NOT FOUND will be reported if the requested file is not on the disk.

If you're using the Datassette, there will be no PRESS PLAY ON TAPE prompt, so you must remember to press the PLAY button on the Datassette. Be careful that you don't also press the RECORD button.

If you accidentally press the $L$ key and don't want to load a new file, just press the RETURN key without entering a filename. The current definitions will not be erased.
(Note: The Load feature can be used to load the definition files used by the demonstration programs you earlier typed in from Chapter 12.)

Errors. If you get an error while using the Sprite Editor, such as DEVICE NOT PRESENT or FILE NOT FOUND, the program will wait for you to press a key to acknowledge the error. You can then continue editing, or try to load or save again.

Data. This feature lets you save the definition information to tape or disk in the form of DATA statements. The DATA statements can then be merged with a BASIC program.

To create the file of DATA statements, press the D key. The Editor will ask for a starting line number, the line number used for the first DATA statement. Line numbers will be incremented by one for the succeeding DATA statements.

After you enter the starting line number and press RETURN, the Editor begins building the DATA statements in memory. The line number is displayed as the line is built. This process takes awhile.

The Sprite Editor then asks for a filename before it saves the file. Type in a filename (up to 12 characters long). The Editor automatically adds the extension .DAT to the filename and saves the file to tape or disk. As with the Save feature, you should choose a filename not already in use on your disk. Since the prompts do not appear, remember to press both the

PLAY and RECORD buttons if you're using the Datassette.
The file created by the Data feature is an actual program which can be loaded in BASIC. A merge utility is provided in Appendix E to help you append this data file with other programs.

If the Editor reports the error NOT ENOUGH MEMORY while it's building DATA lines, it means that the current definition file is too large to be converted. Use Program 16-2, "Extract" to break the file into two parts, then convert each to DATA statements. Be aware, however, that the DATA lines for large definition files eat up memory very quickly and are usually not practical.

The Load feature can load only definition files stored by the Save feature and cannot be used to load definition files stored as DATA statements by the Data feature. Therefore, whenever you store the definitions as a file of DATA statements, it's a good idea also to save the definitions with the Save feature, in case you want to modify them later.

To cancel the Data feature, press the RETURN key instead of entering either the starting line number or the filename.

The advantage of storing sprite definitions as data in a program is that when the program runs, one less file has to be loaded. Each time you ran Program 12-3, "DEMO\#1," for instance, it had to load both "SCS.OBJ" and a definition file. If you're using the Datassette, it can take awhile for these two files to be found and loaded. Storing the definitions in DATA statements in the program eliminates the need for loading the second file.

If you choose not to use the Sprite Control System machine language routines for sprite motion, you can still use the Sprite Editor to create definitions and convert them to DATA statements. The format used to store definitions as data is very simple.

Here's a sample sprite definition data file. It's what you could use in your own BASIC program to recreate the bunny shape you saw in Chapter 12.

The first data number is the number of definitions minus one. For example, if you have a set of four definitions, numbered 0 to 3 , the first data number will be a 3 . Notice that in Program 13-2, the first number is 0 . It indicates that there's only one definition.

Program 13-2. Bunny Data

```
30ø\emptyset DATA 0,63,12,0,48,15,129,240,12,195,48,12,102
    ,48,7,102,224,3,231,192,0,195
30ø1 DATA Ø,1,255,128,3,24,192,7,255,224,12,60,48,
    15,\varnothing,240,7,255,224,0,255,\varnothing,28
30ø2 DATA 60,56,7,60,224,1,255,128,48,126,12,124,6
    0,62,127,60,254,255,255,255
```

The next number specifies the number of bytes in the first definition. This number can range from 0 , if the definition is empty, to 63 , if the definition is full. The bunny definition is full, for it has 63 bytes. If the definition is not empty, the following data numbers form the actual definition. If the length is less than the full 63 bytes, the remaining bytes in the definition block should be set to 0 .

Assume that the second data number indicates the definition is 43 bytes long. The next 43 numbers form the sprite definition, and the remaining 20 bytes in the definition block would all be set to 0 .

This format, a length byte followed by 0 to 63 definition bytes, is repeated for each definition.

Quit. When you're finished editing and have saved your work, press the $Q$ key and type $Y$ in response to the QUIT? confirmation prompt. The program ends and returns you to BASIC. If you accidentally press the $Q$ key and don't want to quit the Editor yet, just press N to cancel.

Note that the RUN/STOP key has been disabled to prevent you from accidentally stopping the program without having a chance to save your created definitions or convert them to DATA statements. The only way to exit the Sprite Editor is to use the Quit command.

## Sprites and More Sprites

What sprites you design with the Editor are, of course, up to you. The Editor is only a tool. It can't design the sprites for you, it can only make that design easier. That's the purpose of this program, and it fills that purpose very well. You can create several sprites with the Editor in the time that it used to take you to design just one on paper. Better yet, since the Editor is so easy to use, and because it does so much for you, you
can almost forget about the mechanics and concentrate just on sprite design. In a matter of a few minutes, you can have a handful of intricate sprite shapes ready to be placed in motion or animation.

To do that, however, you need to know more about the Sprite Control System, the machine language routines which make it simple to move and control sprites from BASIC programs. That's what Chapter 14 is all about.

# Using the Sprite Control System in BASIC 

Moving and controlling sprites in a BASIC program can be a difficult task. Simply getting a sprite across the invisible "seam" on the screen means POKEs and constant checking. Even more complicated sprite movements are almost impossible in BASIC, especially if you're planning on having more than one or two sprites on the screen at the same time. The more sprites, the more time it takes for your Commodore 64 to execute the commands. In BASIC, this can slow a program down to a crawl.

That's why you see so many programs with sprites written in machine language. Machine language gives you the speed to move all eight sprites on the screen at once, without slowing anything down. Unfortunately, not everyone knows how to write machine language programs. If you're like most people, you learned to program in BASIC. And even if you do know machine language programming, BASIC is often the language of choice, for it's simple to write.

With the Sprite Control System, first demonstrated in Chapter 12, you can move and control sprites with the speed of machine language, but from the convenience of your own BASIC program. Just like the demonstration programs in Chapter 12, your BASIC programs, whether they're spreadsheets or arcade games, can call on the Control System.

## Sophisticated

The Sprite Control System, sophisticated as it is, requires you to follow a very specific procedure when you use it with a BASIC program. Because of the Control System's power, this may seem complicated at first. It can be a bit involved. But with some practice, you'll soon find it second nature.

This procedure consists of calling two subroutines in BASIC and using several SYS statements. To help you learn this procedure, we'll go through it step by step in the immediate mode (without using line numbers). As you become more familiar with them, the steps will seem both simple and logical.

Every program that uses the Sprite Control System must contain the lines in the "SCS.BAS" file (Program 12-1), so before you begin, load these lines into memory with the command:
LOAD "SCS.BAS"
Make sure you add 8 if you're using a disk. You'll now execute several statements in the immediate mode, in the order that they would actually be used in a program calling the Sprite Control System.

## Variable Assignments

The first step is to perform the standard assignments that have been used throughout this book in preparation for SYS calls and disk and tape file input/output (I/O). Enter the following statement. As always, change the $\mathrm{DN}=8$ to $\mathrm{DN}=1$ if you're using the Datassette.
$\mathrm{DN}=8: \mathrm{SA}=780: \mathbf{S X}=781: \mathbf{S Y}=782: \mathbf{S P}=783$

## Load Machine Language Routines

Now that these variables have been assigned, you can load the "SCS.OBJ" file (Program 12-2), which contains the machine language routines. To do this, make sure that the program is on the disk currently in the drive or that the Datassette contains the tape with the program. Type in the following line. It calls the subroutine at line 58000 .

## GOSUB 58000

Besides loading the SCS.OBJ file, this subroutine assigns several more variables that will be used later in SYS statements.

## Load Definitions

You also need to load a definition file. For this demonstration, use the bunny definition from Chapter 12. To load the definition file, you must assign the filename to a string variable, specify a LOAD address, and call a subroutine.

Assign the name of the definition file to the variable $\mathrm{F} \$$. Do not include the .DEF extension as part of the filename. Assuming that you called the file BUNNY, you'd type:
F\$="BUNNY"

The LOAD address is set to be in the middle of free memory with the statement:
LA $=16384$
Finally, call the subroutine at 58500 to load the definitions with:
GOSUB 58500
You've just loaded the "BUNNY.DEF" file.

## Install Sprite Control System

Next, use the following SYS statement to install the Control System. This SYS call establishes a raster scan interrupt and initializes sprite graphics.

## SYS IN

This SYS call should be done only once, and must be done before you use any of the Control System SYS calls described below.

In case you're wondering, the variable IN, which stands for INstall, was assigned by the subroutine at 58000 . You could have used SYS 49664 instead, the value assigned to IN. But it's much easier to remember variable names than the corresponding numbers.

The only problem is that you must type the variable name exactly. Remember that all variables have an initial value of 0 . If you make a mistake and type a variable name which has not been assigned, the address for the SYS statement will be interpreted as location 0 , and the computer may crash. The keyboard may lock up, and the screen may be altered.

If the computer does crash, no permanent damage has been done. Just turn the power off and back on, and start over from the beginning of the procedure. To avoid this inconvenience, be careful as you're typing.
(Note: Since entering a program line clears all variables, do not enter any program lines while working in the immediate mode.)

## Define Block

To make a sprite appear, you have to give it a shape. Unfortunately, it's not possible to directly assign one of the definitions loaded from the definition file to a sprite. Instead, you have to copy a definition into a definition block, and then assign the definition block to the sprite.

Sprite memory is divided into 64-byte sections. These sections are called definition blocks and are numbered from 0 to 255. Each block can hold one definition.

To define a block with one of the definitions loaded in the file, you'll use the following SYS statement format:

## SYS DF,block number,definition number

(The SYS statement normally allows only one number after the keyword, but the machine language routines of the Sprite Control System have been designed so that several numbers can be used.)

Let's assume that block 255 is available. The BUNNY.DEF file contains only one definition, numbered 0 , so to define block 255 with definition 0 , enter the statement:
SYS DF,255,0
Definition 0 has now been copied into block 255. Block 255 is ready to be assigned to a sprite.

For now, you'll be using only block 255 . A more complete discussion on which definition blocks are available is provided in the next chapter.

The preceding SYS calls have been general system calls. The SYS IN installs the Sprite Control System so that sprites can be used, and SYS DF defines blocks that can be used by all of the sprites.

Now that the general SYS calls have been issued, you can take a look at SYS statements which pertain to an individual sprite. Each of the following SYS statements contains a sprite number to identify which sprite is to be affected. The letters SN represent this Sprite Number. For purposes of demonstration, you'll use only sprite 0 .

## Assign Block to Sprite

The following statement format assigns a block to a sprite to give it a shape and make it appear.

## SYS BL,SN,block number

You've already defined block 255, so to make sprite 0 appear, enter:
SYS BL,0,255
The sprite should appear in the upper-left corner of the screen. If it didn't display, you've made an error somewhere in
the procedure. Double-check what you typed in (much of it should still be on the screen) or begin again.

## Set Sprite Color

The format to set a sprite's color is:

## SYS CO,SN,color number

where color number ranges from 0 to 15 . The default color of sprite 0 is white, or color 1 . Type in the following to change sprite 0 's color to light red (color 10). You can find the color numbers listed in the Commodore 64 User's Guide.

## SYS CO,0,10

## Set Sprite Size

One of the interesting features of sprites on the Commodore 64 is the ability to enlarge, both horizontally and vertically, a sprite shape. To do this with the Sprite Control System, use the following statements:
SYS WI,SN, 0 to select normal width (default)
SYS WI,SN,1 to select double width
SYS HE,SN,0 to select normal height (default)
SYS HE,SN,1 to select double height
For instance, to expand sprite 0 to twice its normal width, just type:

## SYS WI,0,1

When you double the width of a sprite, the expansion always occurs to the right. Doubling the height makes the sprite expand downward. Let's expand the bunny's height as well with this statement:
SYS HE,0,1

## Set Sprite Position

Another vital part of sprite manipulation is its position. You have a huge number of possible positions for any sprite62,400 to be exact. Placing a sprite at any of these locations insures that at least part of the sprite will appear on the screen.

To position a sprite, you'll use this format:
where $X$ and $Y$ represent points on a coordinate system. This system is the same as the one used for bitmapped graphics in Part 2. Take a look at Figure 14-1 to see how the coordinates are mapped out.

Figure 14-1. Sprite Position Coordinates


The coordinates you specify refer to the upper-left corner of the sprite. For example, if a sprite is moved to the position 80,120 , the upper-left pixel of the sprite appears at this position. The rest of the definition is displayed below and to the right of this location.

The default position of a sprite is 0,0 , known as the home position. Let's move sprite 0 out of the home position. To move sprite 0 to the center of the screen, enter this statement. SYS PO,0,160,100
Remember that the position refers to the upper-left corner of the sprite. That's why the sprite may not seem to be actually centered on the screen.

Type in this statement to move sprite 0 to the right edge of the screen.
SYS PO,0,319-24,100

The 24 was subtracted from the rightmost position to account for the sprite width. If the $X$ coordinate was 319 , only the leftmost edge of the sprite would be visible. But because you earlier expanded the sprite horizontally, you still see only part of the shape. Reduce the sprite to normal size by entering:
SYS WI,0,0
and
SYS HE,0,0
Now the entire sprite should be visible. The rightmost edge of the shape just fits on the screen.

This statement places sprite 0 in the lower-right corner of the screen.
SYS PO,0,319-24,199-21
To make sure all the sprite stayed on the screen, 21 was subtracted from the maximum $Y$ coordinate. The numbers which are subtracted need to be adjusted if the sprite is displayed with double width or height.

Negative values or values greater than 319 or 199 may be used to position a sprite so that it's partially off the screen. When this is done, the part off the screen is covered by the border.

## SYS PO,0,-10,-10

You can even make the sprite disappear from the screen display area altogether. This feature can be used to make a sprite appear to vanish without actually disabling or turning off the sprite. Try this:
SYS PO,0,-10,-30
Now the bunny is completely hidden. You can bring it back on the screen with something like:
SYS PO,0,160,100
All of the above SYS calls have dealt with a sprite's appearance-how and where the sprite is displayed. The following SYS calls deal with motion.

## Set Sprite Direction

Moving the sprite is just as simple as placing it. The movement statement format is:
where direction number refers to one of the eight directions. Figure 14-2 illustrates the directions and their numbers.

Figure 14-2. Sprite Direction Numbers


Go ahead and enter this statement. Try several different direction numbers. To make sprite 0 move up and to the left, for instance, type:

## SYS DI,0,7

You can change the direction at any time. To stop a sprite's movement, use 0 for the direction number.

## Select Wraparound or Bounce

You've already noticed that the screen edges act as boundaries which limit a sprite's motion. When a sprite reaches one of these boundaries, it stops moving.

You may elect instead to have the sprite wrap around to the opposite side of the screen when it reaches a boundary. To select the wraparound option, you'll use the following format:

## SYS WR,SN,1

Thus, to select the wraparound option for sprite 0 , you'd use:

## SYS WR,0,1

Sprite 0 will now move continuously, as long as the direction set by SYS DI is a value from 1 to 8 .

The wraparound option is turned off by:

## SYS WR,SN, 0

Another boundary option is bounce. With this option selected, a sprite reverses direction whenever it hits a boundary. This was used in Program 12-3, "DEMO\#1."

Turning on the bounce option requires this format:

## SYS BO,SN,1

Selecting bounce for sprite 0 just needs:

## SYS BO,0,1

Bounce is turned off by:

## SYS BO,SN,0

The wraparound and bounce options cannot be used at the same time. Turning on one turns off the other.

For the next few examples, the sprite needs to continue moving, so leave the bounce option turned on.

## Set Sprite Speed

When a sprite's direction is other than 0 , it appears to move because its position is changed at regular intervals. This interval is called a frame and lasts $1 / 60$ second ( $1 / 50$ second on European Commodore 64s). A value is added to either or both of the sprite's coordinates each frame, depending on the current direction.

If this value is 1 , the sprite moves one position every frame. If the value is larger, the sprite moves several positions each frame so that it appears to move faster. To control the speed of a sprite, then, all you have to do is specify how far it should be moved each frame.

To set the speed of a sprite, you'll use this format:

## SYS MO,SN,delta X,delta $\mathbf{Y}$

The delta values are the offsets added to the position coordinates each frame, and can range from 0 to 7 . The larger the delta value, the further the sprite moves in that direction each frame, so the faster it appears to move.

The default values are 2 for delta $X$ and 1 for delta $Y$. To see sprite 0 move a little faster, enter:

## SYS MO,0,3,3

A sprite can move extremely fast. Enter this statement to see sprite 0 move at top speed.

## SYS MO,0,7,7

It's almost out of control!
A delta value of 0 prevents a sprite from moving in the corresponding direction. Let's try it out. The next statement sets the delta $Y$ value at 0 , so the sprite never moves vertically, no matter which direction number is used. All the sprite does is bounce back and forth across the screen.

## SYS MO,0,3,0

Slow the sprite down by typing:

## SYS MO,0,1,1

This is pretty slow, but for some applications this speed may still not be slow enough. To make the speed even slower, add a, 1 to the end of the SYS MO statement. This selects the half-speed option.

## SYS MO,0,1,1,1

When the half-speed option is in effect, a sprite moves every other frame. For the best results, use this option only with delta $X$ and delta $Y$ set to 1 . Motion appears too jerky when other delta values are used.

To return to normal speed, either remove the, 1 or change it to 0 .

## SYS MO,0,1,1

## or

## SYS MO,0,1,1,0

Though it might be easier to remember the variable name SP (for SPeed), that variable is already used for tape and disk I/O SYS calls. The variable name MO, representing MOtion, is used instead.

## Set Sprite Boundaries

The movement boundaries are normally set at the screen edges, but they can be changed. To modify a boundary, use one of these SYS statement formats.

| SYS Call | Boundary |
| :--- | :--- |
| SYS LB,SN,X | Left |
| SYS RB,SN,X | Right |
| SYS TB,SN,Y | Top |
| SYS BB,SN,Y | Bottom |

$X$ and $Y$ refer to the normal coordinate locations. If you wanted to move the top boundary for sprite 0 down to the middle of the screen, for example, you could use:
SYS TB,0,100
Sprite 0 is now confined to the bottom half of the screen.
The default values for the boundaries are:

| Boundary | Default Values |
| :--- | :---: |
| Left | 0 |
| Right | $295(319-24)$ |
| Top | 0 |
| Bottom | 178 (199-21) |

As with the SYS PO statement, values are subtracted to take into consideration a sprite's width or height. These values may have to be adjusted in some cases. Negative boundary values are also allowed.

## Remove Sprite Control System

To turn off sprite graphics and remove the Sprite Control System from the raster scan interrupt processing, simply enter:

## SYS RE

This call undoes everything done by the SYS IN. Tape and disk I/O will not work properly when the Sprite Control System is installed, so you must remember to remove the system when you've finished using sprites. Once the Control System has been removed, it can be reinstalled by using SYS IN again.

The SYS RE should be done only after the Control System has been installed, and should not be done a second time unless the system is installed again.

Hitting RUN/STOP-RESTORE also removes the Sprite Control System. If you hit this key combination, you must reinstall the Control System in order for motion to work.

## Review

Here's a quick review of the whole procedure. You might find this checklist useful as a reminder once you're actually trying to place the SYS calls in your own program.

1. Make sure the lines from the SCS.BAS file (Program 12-1) are included as part of your BASIC program.
2. Assign variables and load the SCS.OBJ file and a definition file.

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \mathrm{DN}=8: \mathrm{SA}=780: \mathrm{SX}=781: \mathrm{SY}=782: \mathrm{SP}=783 \\
& \mathrm{GOSUB} 58000 \\
& \mathrm{~F} \$=\text { filename }: \mathrm{LA}=16384: \mathrm{GOSUB} 58500
\end{aligned}
$$

3. Install the Sprite Control System as part of regular interrupt processing and define a block with a definition from the definition file.
```
SYS IN
SYS DF,block number,definition number
```

4. Use the following SYS calls, in any order, to make a sprite appear and to set its color, size, position, direction, speed, boundaries, and boundary options.
Appear-SYS BL,SN,block number
Color-SYS CO,SN, color number
Width-SYS WI,SN,width number
Height-SYS HE,SN,height number
Position-SYS PO,SN, $X, Y$
Direction-SYS DI,SN, direction number
Wraparound-SYS WR,SN,wraparound on/off
Bounce-SYS BO,SN,bounce on/off
Speed-SYS MO,SN,delta X,delta $Y$ (, 1 for half speed)
Boundaries-SYS LB,SN,X; SYS RB,SN,X; SYS TB,SN, $\boldsymbol{Y}$; SYS BB,SN,Y
It's suggested that you set values for color, size, and position before using SYS BL to make the sprite appear.
5. Remove the Sprite Control System when you are finished using sprites.
SYS RE
The procedure is really very simple. Only the description is long.

## Errors

Some errors in SYS calls are detected. If you forget one of the required parameters, BASIC will report a SYNTAX ERROR.
This also occurs if you try to use SYS DF before loading a definition file.

The ILLEGAL QUANTITY error may occur when a value is out of range. Using a sprite number out of the range $0-7$ is one way of causing this error.

## Multiple Sprites

Now that you've seen how to animate one sprite, let's see how easy it is to animate several.

Begin by reinstalling the Sprite Control System with:

## SYS IN

The machine language routines and the definition file should still be in memory, which is why you don't need to load them again. In fact, block 255 should still be defined, so you can skip ahead and assign block 255 to sprite 0 to make the sprite appear.

## SYS BL,0,255

The SYS IN resets all the default values, which is why the sprite appeared back in the upper-left corner, normal sized, and in white.

Set the sprite so that it moves continuously.

## SYS DI,0,3:SYS BO,0,1

Though this is the first time you've put two SYS statements on one line, remember that it's always allowed, whether you're in program or immediate mode. Just separate the statements with the usual colon (:).

Now make sprite 1 appear:

## SYS BL,1,255

and make it move continuously.

## SYS DI,1,3:SYS BO,1,1

How about the rest?
FOR SN=2 TO 7:SYS BL,SN,255:SYS DI,SN,3:SYS BO,SN,1:NEXT
Wasn't that easy?
Take the time now to experiment with multiple sprites. When you're done, remember to remove the Control System. SYS RE

What you've just done in the immediate mode can also be done in a program. It would be a good idea to go back and look at the listing of Program 12-3, "DEMO\#1." You should now be able to understand everything that happens in the program. You may also want to run the program several times, changing some of the statements and adding new ones each time. One suggestion is to change the size of the sprites. If you do this, you will also need to change the right and bottom boundaries. Experiment with the Sprite Control System. The more you play with it, the more familiar you'll become with its powerful features and abilities.

## SCS Advanced Features

There's more to the Sprite Control System than just positioning and moving sprites. What you saw demonstrated in Chapter 14 isn't all the Control System can do. Various advanced features, including vital elements like joystick control and automatic shape changing, are also available. As always, the best way to learn how these features work, and how to work them yourself, is through example. Let's take a look at the advanced capabilities of the Sprite Control System.

## Available Definition Blocks

A definition block must be assigned to a sprite so that it can display a shape. As you saw both in Chapter 12 and in Chapter 14, all eight sprites can use the same definition block. (Remember the bunnies?) But if you want each sprite to display a different shape, each requires a different definition block. To do this, more blocks are needed.

There are 256 definition blocks, numbered 0-255. This would seem to be enough. The only problem is that many of these blocks are not available. Some are located in memory that's needed by the Commodore 64 Kernal or by BASIC. Others are located in memory which holds the current BASIC program. The remaining, located in BASIC free memory, are the ones safe to use.

Since the amount of free memory changes according to the size of the current BASIC program, the number of available blocks may vary. Higher numbered blocks are usually available, but lower numbered ones are not.

To find out exactly which are available, execute the following line anytime after most of the variables have been assigned and all arrays have been dimensioned.
PRINT INT((PEEK(49)+256*PEEK(50))/64) + 16
This will tell you the number of the lowest block that can be used. All blocks from this number through block 255 should be available for use.

You'll probably never run out of definition blocks. A typical application may need 20, or at most 30, blocks. In Program 12-3, "DEMO\#1," for instance, only one block is used, but the program is so short that blocks 81-255 are available. Program

12-5, "DEMO\#2," is a little longer, but with blocks 96-255 available, there are still more than enough. The only time when you should be concerned about available blocks is when your program starts to get larger than 8 K .

Just to be safe, it's a good idea to always work from the top down. If you need only 1 block, use block 255. If you need 5 blocks, use blocks 251-255. Or, if you need 16 blocks, use blocks 240-255.

A quick and easy way to define several blocks at once is to use a FOR-NEXT loop. If a definition file contains 16 definitions, a line like this copies them in order to 16 blocks.

## FOR K=0 TO 15:SYS DF,240+K,K:NEXT

Block 240 gets definition 0, block 241 gets definition 1, and so on.

To assign one of these blocks to a sprite, just use the corresponding block number in the SYS BL call (see Chapter 14 for a description of this SYS statement). Here's how you would assign block 247 to sprite 5:

## SYS BL,247,5

The block assigned to a sprite can be changed at any time. That's often how animation is done with sprites. When you have several blocks defined in a sequence, you can simply cycle through them. The second sprite in Program 12-5 alternated between two shapes like this. A bird could be made to fly by cycling through several sprite definition blocks, each showing the bird with its wings in a slightly different position.

## Automatic Shape Changing

When a sprite moves in different directions, it makes the movement more realistic if the sprite displays a different shape for each direction. The autoshape feature can do this shape changing for you automatically.

To show how to use this feature, let's start with a sprite that can move in all eight directions. Eight definition blocks are needed, one for each direction. These blocks must be consecutive, and they must be defined in a particular order. This order is:

| Block Definition | Direction <br> Left |
| :--- | :--- |
| Base +0 | Base +1 |


| Base+3 | Down |
| :--- | :--- |
| Base +4 | Up and left |
| Base +5 | Up and right |
| Base +6 | Down and left |
| Base +7 | Down and right |

The number of the first block being used is called the Base, so if blocks 240-247 are being used, block 240 must contain the definition for left, block 241 must contain the definition for right, and so on.

To turn on the autoshape feature, use the following statement format (in program or immediate mode).

## SYS AU,SN,direction code,base block number

Direction code specifies whether two, four, or eight directions are to be supported. The values 2,4 , or 8 indicate the number. In the example above, eight directions are supported, and the base block number is 240 , so the SYS statement would look like this:

## SYS AU,SN,8,240

The sprite shape will now automatically change to reflect the direction in which it's moving.

The autoshape feature does not always have to work with all eight directions. Only two directions, left and right, may be supported. The direction code for this is 2 , and the order in which the blocks must be defined is:

| Block Definition | Direction |
| :--- | :--- |
| Base +0 | Left |
| Base +1 | Right |

To enable the autoshape feature using only these two directions (and assuming the Base is still block definition 240), you'd enter:

## SYS AU,SN,2,240

Now, whenever the sprite moves in a leftward direction, whether it's left, up and left, or down and left, the shape for left displays. The shape for right appears when the sprite moves rightward. If the sprite moves straight up or down, the shape does not change from its previous shape.

To support only the four cardinal directions, use 4 for the direction code and define the blocks like this:

| Block Definition |  |
| :--- | :--- |
| Base +0 | Direction <br> Left |
| Base +1 | Right |
| Base+2 | Up |
| Base +3 | Down |

One other arrangement that's supported is two directions, up and down. The direction code for this arrangement is 6 , and the blocks must be defined in this order:

## Block Definition Direction <br> Base +0 <br> Base+1 <br> Up <br> Down

Each of these four arrangements supports a centering option. With centering, one additional block is specified which is displayed by the sprite only when the sprite isn't moving.

To select centering, add 1 to the direction code, and put the centered definition in the last block. For example, to support eight directions with centering, the direction code would be 9 and block BASE +8 would hold the definition used when the sprite stops moving.

For reference, look to the following two tables.
Direction Directions
Code
2 Horizontal directions only
$4 \quad$ Four cardinal directions only
6 Vertical directions only
$8 \quad$ All eight directions
To support no motion (centering), add 1 to the direction code.
Direction Order of Blocks
Code
2
3
4
5
6
7
8
9 Left, right, up, down, up left, up right, down left, down right, center
The autoshape feature is turned off with:
SYS AU,SN,0

## Multicolor Mode

When a sprite is displayed in multicolor mode, it can consist of three different colors. The trade-off is that the sprite's horizontal resolution is reduced from 24 to 12 pixels. (For help in creating multicolored sprites, take a look at the Sprite Editor in Chapter 13.)

To turn the multicolor mode on or off, use these statements:

## SYS MU,SN,0 Turn off multicolor mode (default)

SYS MU,SN, 1 Turn on multicolor mode
The sprite's main color, the one displayed when the multicolor mode is turned off, is used as the first of the three colors. To set the additional colors, use the following variation of the SYS CO format:

## SYS CO,SN,first color,second color,third color

Any combination of sprites may select the multicolor mode. When two or more are displayed in multicolor mode, however, there's one restriction. All sprites in multicolor mode must share the same second and third colors. If you change the second and third colors on one sprite, those colors will change on all the other sprites displayed in multicolor mode.

Each sprite has its own default color, the color which it shows if it's not changed.

| Sprite | Color |
| :--- | :--- |
| 0 | 1 (White) |
| 1 | 2 (Red) |
| 2 | 3 (Cyan) |
| 3 | 4 (Purple) |
| 4 | 5 (Green) |
| 5 | 6 (Blue) |
| 6 | 7 (Yellow) |
| 7 | 12 (Medium Gray) |

When in multicolor mode, the second and third colors also have default settings. Normally, the second color is 4 (purple) and the third color is 0 (black).

## Priority

Sprites are completely independent of the normal screen display, and except for sharing colors in multicolor mode, they're independent of each other. This independence is handy, because it lets you use several sprites on one screen, and it lets
you use sprites along with text or bitmapped graphics.
The only time that this causes a problem is when a sprite is positioned at the same location as another sprite or other screen information. What happens when two sprites are placed so that they partially overlap? The sprites' colors don't blend together-only one sprite is displayed in the overlapped area. But which one?

This is where priority is important. It establishes which sprite will appear in front of other sprites, or whether a sprite seems to be in front of, or behind, other screen displays. Sprite priority is fixed; lower numbered sprites always have priority over higher numbered sprites whenever they overlap. If, for instance, sprites 2 and 3 overlap, only sprite 2 will be displayed in the overlapped area. In other words, sprite 2 appears to be in front of sprite 3 . Sprite 0 always seems to be in front of all the other sprites; sprite 7 always appears behind the others.

Priority over normal screen information, however, can be individually set for each sprite. A sprite can be made to appear in front of or behind text characters and bitmapped graphics. To set this priority, use one of the following statements:
SYS PR,SN, 0 Make sprite appear in front of screen data (default) SYS PR,SN,1 Make sprite appear behind screen data

Sprites always appear in front of screen data displayed by the multicolor mode bit pair 01, regardless of how the priority is set. If multicolor bitmapped graphics is used (modes $1,3,5$, and 7 in Part 2), sprites will always appear in front of points displayed by the bit pair 01 (those points drawn with pen 1).

Priority can be used to add the illusion of depth to a screen for three-dimensional effects. Program 12-7, "DEMO\#3," was a good example.

## Joystick Control

Up to now, the direction of a moving sprite has been set in the immediate mode or in a program by the SYS DI call. With the Sprite Control System, a sprite's motion can also be controlled by a joystick. This is the general form of the statement to switch from program control to joystick control.

## SYS JS,SN,joystick port number

Thus, to make sprite 0 move under control of a joystick plugged into port 2, you'd use:

## SYS JS,0,2

Sprite 0 now moves in the same direction that the joystick is pushed. The sprite will not move when the joystick is not being pushed.

Speed. When a sprite is being moved by a joystick, its speed is still controlled by the delta values. The following statement makes sprite 0 move very quickly whenever the joystick is pushed.

## SYS MO,0,5,5

For slow movement, use this statement.

## SYS MO,0,1,1

In other words, simply use the usual SYS MO call, as you did earlier for setting sprite speed under program control. Note that you don't have to set the speed with a SYS MO, since the default values are 2 for delta $X$ and 1 for delta $Y$. However, if you want a different speed, do use the SYS MO.

Limiting directions. If you want a sprite to move in only two directions, set one of the delta values to 0 . In this line, the delta $Y$ value is 0 , so sprite 0 won't move up or down even when the joystick is pushed in those directions.
SYS MO,0,3,0
How about limiting the sprite's movement to up and down? It's just as simple-set the delta $X$ value to 0 , as in: SYS MO,0,0,3
(Reset the delta $X$ value by entering SYS MO, $0,2,1$ before going on.)

To limit a sprite's movements to just the four cardinal directions, you can use a special option of the SYS JS call. If a , 1 is added to the end of the call, the diagonal directions of the joystick will be ignored. This is what the format should look like:
SYS JS,SN,joystick number, 1 (Allows only four directions)
An interesting effect is to force the sprite to continue to move, even when the joystick isn't being pushed. With the Sprite Control System, this effect is just a matter of adding ,2 to the end of the SYS JS call. When this is used, the sprite will keep moving in the last direction the joystick was pushed. It's sort of a "momentum" effect.
SYS JS,SN,joystick number, 2 (Turn on momentum)

Both of these options may be used at the same time. Just add the 1 and 2 together.
SYS JS,SN, joystick number, 3 (Select both four directions and momentum)
To turn off these options, simply omit the additional value after the joystick number, or use 0 .

## SYS JS,SN,joystick number

or

## SYS JS,SN,joystick number,0

Port 1. You used port 2 in all the previous examples, but port 1 can also be used. In fact, you can have one sprite controlled by a joystick in port 2 , while another is controlled by a joystick plugged into port 1. This feature is vital for two-player games.

Keep in mind, however, that if you experiment with joystick control in the immediate mode, use only port 2 . Be careful not to push the joystick while you're typing. The keyboard and the joystick ports can interfere with each other, and using both at the same time causes the wrong keys to be read.

This interference between the keyboard and joystick ports is even worse when port 1 is used. Pushing a joystick plugged into this port makes the computer think that keys are being pressed. It's okay to use port 1 in a program as long as that program doesn't require input from the keyboard. At the end of the program, use the following POKE statement to clear the keyboard buffer:

## POKE 198,0

Back to program control. To take a sprite off joystick control and return it to program control, use:

## SYS JS,SN,0

The sprite will continue moving in the current direction. For example, if the joystick is being pushed to the left when motion returns to program control, the sprite will continue to move to the left until its direction is changed by a SYS DI call.

## Chase Mode

One more way to make a sprite move is to have it chase after another sprite. The Sprite Control System includes a SYS call format which allows you to do this. It looks like:

## SYS CH,SN, number of sprite to chase

To make sprite 2 chase sprite 6, for example, you could use:

## SYS CH,2,6

Sprite 2 will always move in the same direction as sprite 6 , and will stop moving only when it's at the same position as sprite 6.

If a sprite in chase mode has delta values greater than 1, it may appear to jiggle when it stops moving. Try using different delta values and starting positions for both sprites to eliminate this problem.

Selecting the chase mode for a sprite turns off its program or joystick control. To disable the chase mode and return the sprite to program control, enter (either in program or immediate mode):
SYS JS,SN,0

## Synchronized Sprite Motion

Sometimes it's useful to make two or more sprites move together. One application of this is to create objects made up of more than one sprite, as was done in Program 12-7, "DEMO\#3."

The only problem with this is getting the sprites to start moving at the same time. If two sprites are to move together, for example, a SYS DI must be executed for each one. But after the SYS DI is executed for the first sprite, that sprite may start moving before the second SYS DI can be executed.

To solve this problem, the Control System provides a method for stopping and starting the motion of any or all sprites, all at the same time. To freeze one or more sprites, use the following SYS format:

## SYS FR,sprite number total

To calculate the sprite number total, first decide which sprites you want to have stopped. Look at the numbers in the chart below which correspond to these sprites, and add the numbers together.

| Sprite | Number |
| :--- | :---: |
| 0 | 1 |
| 1 | 2 |
| 2 | 4 |
| 3 | 8 |
| 4 | 16 |
| 5 | 32 |
| 6 | 64 |
| 7 | 128 |

Freezing sprites 2 and 3 requires this line:

## SYS FR,4+8

or

## SYS FR,12

Once the motion of these sprites is stopped, any values, such as position, direction, and speed, can be set without the sprites going anywhere. After the desired values have been set, the sprites can be unfrozen with:

## SYS UN,sprite number total

To unfreeze sprites 2 and 3, you'd use:

## SYS UN,12

Both sprites will now start moving, with the new motion values in effect.

This feature helps you get sprites traveling together, but if you want several sprites to move side by side, a couple of other things must be done. First, the boundaries for the different sprites must be set differently. Let's say you want two sprites to move together. One displays the left half of an object, the other displays the right half. Each sprite is defined as a full 24 pixels wide. Here are the left and right boundaries that should be used.

## Left sprite

Left boundary: 0
Right boundary: 319-24-24

## Right sprite

Left boundary: $0+24$
Right boundary: 319-24
All these boundary settings do is limit the movement of each sprite. The leftmost sprite can go all the way to the left edge, but it can only move as far right as position 271. It's
prevented from overlapping any of the rightmost sprite.
You must experiment to find combinations of starting positions and delta values which allow the sprites to stay synchronized. With some delta values, for example, synchronized sprites will be separated when they hit a boundary.

Another application of synchronized sprite motion is to display several sprites at one position, to get an overlay effect for color. Perhaps you want more colors than available with multicolor mode, or you want several colors without reducing the horizontal resolution from 24 to 12 pixels. Since the sprites should all start at the same position, any position can be used, and the boundaries would be the same for each sprite.

## Enable/Disable

The display of a sprite can be turned off or on.
SYS EN,SN,0 Disable (default)
SYS EN,SN,1 Enable
When a sprite is disabled, it can continue to move, change shape, and so on. It just isn't displayed.

All sprites are initially disabled. The SYS BL call enables a sprite when it assigns a block number.

Disabling a sprite is an easy way (even easier than placing the sprite off the screen) to make a sprite disappear. Other than that, this SYS call has very few uses.

## Miscellaneous Topics

Although you've seen how to use the Sprite Control System, from simple sprite movement to advanced synchronized sprites, there's still more you can do. This chapter presents two utility programs and gives additional tips on how to use the Sprite Control System in your own BASIC programs. Some of these tips, hints, and techniques are quite sophisticated, like relocating the Control System or relocating screen memory. Others are much simpler, such as detecting sprite-tosprite collisions or protecting free memory. You'll even see how to use all three major utilities included in this book together.

## The Merge Utility

Once in a while you may want to add the definitions in one file to those in another. Program 16-1, "Merge," lets you combine two or more sprite definition files to create one larger file. It's simple to use and can save you considerable redefining. With Merge, you can combine as many definition files (which you create with the Sprite Editor) as you want.

As with almost all other programs in this book, make sure you change the $\mathrm{DN}=8$ to $\mathrm{DN}=1$ if you're using tape. That variable value is assigned in line 110.

## Program 16-1. Merge

For error-free program entry, be sure to use "The Automatic Proofreader," Appendix D.

| øø | PRINT CHR (147):PRINT " SPRITE DEFINITION MERG E UTILITY" :rem 123 |
| :---: | :---: |
| 105 | PRINT " BY CRAIG CHAMBERLAIN":PRINT :rem 69 |
| 110 | DN=8:SA=78 :SX=781:SY=782:SP=783:REM DN=1 FOR \{SPACE\}TAPE :rem 18Ø |
| 120 | $\operatorname{DEF} \operatorname{FNDP}(\mathrm{N})=\operatorname{PEEK}(\mathrm{N})+256 * \operatorname{PEEK}(\mathrm{~N}+1): \operatorname{BA}=\operatorname{FNDP}(49)+$ 1 1øø $\quad$ :rem 8 |
| 130 |  |
| 300 | FS="":INPUT "\{YEL\} LOAD FILENAME®7ヨ";F\$:IF F\$= "" OR LEN(FS)>12 GOTO 3øø :rem 38 |
| 310 | LA=BA:GOSUB 63ø:NS=PEEK(BA):PRINT " LOADED DEF INITIONS ø TO" NS :rem 169 |
| $4 \varnothing \square$ | EA=FNDP (SX) : PRINT |
| 410 | FS="":INPUT "\{YEL\} APPEND FILENAMEK7习";FS:IF L |
|  | EN(F\$)>12 GOTO 41ø :rem 54 |

```
42\emptyset IF FS="" THEN PRINT:GOTO 5\emptysetØ :rem 212
430 LA=EA-1 : P=PEEK (LA) :GOSUB 630:PRINT " APPENDED
    {SPACE}DEFINITIONS" NS+l "TO"; :rem 9
440 NS=NS+PEEK(LA)+1:PRINT NS:POKE LA,P:IF NS<256
    {SPACE}GOTO 400 :rem 139
450 PRINT " ERROR: TOO MANY DEFINITIONS":END
    :rem 162
5ø\emptyset F$="":INPUT "{YEL} SAVE FILENAMEE7习";F$:IF FS=
    "" OR LEN(F$)>12 GOTO 5\emptyset\emptyset :rem 57
510 POKE BA,NS:GOSUB 6ØØ:POKE SA, 251:POKE 251,FNL(
    BA):POKE 252,FNH(BA) :rem 229
520 POKE SX,FNL(EA):POKE SY,FNH(EA):SYS 65496:IF P
    EEK(SP)ANDI GOTO 7ØØ :rem 69
530 PRINT " SAVED" EA-BA "BYTES":END :rem 238
60\emptyset PRINT:POKE SA,1:POKE SX,DN:POKE SY,\varnothing:SYS 65466
    :FS=FS+".DEF" :rem 187
610 FOR K=1 TO LEN(F$): POKE 584+K,ASC(MID$(F$,K)):
    NEXT :rem 241
62Ø POKE SA,LEN(FS):POKE SX,73:POKE SY,2:SYS 65469
    :RETURN :rem 159
630 GOSUB 60\emptyset:POKE SA,\emptyset:POKE SX,FNL(LA):POKE SY,FN
    H(LA) :rem l
64\emptyset SYS 65493:IF PEEK(SP)ANDl GOTO 7\emptyset\emptyset :rem 90
650 RETURN :rem 123
7\emptyset\emptyset P=PEEK(SA):PRINT " ERROR:";:IF P=4 THEN PRINT
    {SPACE}"FILE NOT FOUND":END
    :rem 96
710 IF P=5 THEN PRINT "DEVICE NOT PRESENT":END
                                    :rem 188
72Ø PRINT ST:END :rem 222
```

When you run this program, it first asks for the name of a file to load. Enter the name of the first file (you don't have to type in the .DEF suffix placed on the end of the filename by the Editor) and wait a few moments.

Next, you'll need to enter the name of the file to be appended to the end of the file just loaded. After you type in the name of the second file, it loads, then is added to the end of the first file. Merge requests the name of another file to append. You can combine several if necessary.

When you're through appending files, just press RETURN instead of entering another filename. The program asks for one last filename-the one used to name the composite file. After that's typed in, the merged definitions are saved to tape or disk as a new file.

You can even use Merge as a quick and easy way to copy a definition file from disk to disk or tape to tape. Just run

Merge, load the file to be moved, append nothing, and save the file out to the new disk or tape.

Merge can also be used to copy a definition file from tape to disk or from disk to tape. To copy from tape to disk, assign the value 1 to the variable DN in line 110, and insert the statement $\mathrm{DN}=8$ at the beginning of line 510. A file can then be transferred by loading the file, appending nothing, and then saving the file to disk. To copy from disk to tape, just switch the order of the numbers so that $\mathrm{DN}=8$ appears in line 110 and $\mathrm{DN}=1$ in line 510.

To keep things straight, refer to the short table below for the modifications you need to make to Merge for this kind of file copy/transfer process.
Copy Direction Line 110 Line 510

| Tape to Disk | $\mathrm{DN}=1$ | $\mathrm{DN}=8$ |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Disk to Tape | $\mathrm{DN}=8$ | $\mathrm{DN}=1$ |

## The Extract Utility

Instead of merging several files together into one, Program 162, "Extract," does just the opposite. It pulls a sequence of definitions from a definition file. The extracted definitions are then saved as a new file. A major use of this utility is to break a definition file into two parts.

Make sure to change the $\mathrm{DN}=8$ in line 110 to $\mathrm{DN}=1$ if you're using tape.
Program 16-2. Extract
For error-free program entry, be sure to use "The Automatic Proofreader," Appendix D.

|  | PRINT CHRS(147):PRINT " DEFINITION EXTRACTION \{SPACE\}UTILITY" :rem 53 |
| :---: | :---: |
| 105 | PRINT " BY CRAIG CHAMBERLAIN":PRINT :rem 69 |
| 110 | DN=8: SA=780: $\mathrm{SX=781}$ : $\mathrm{SY}=782$ : SP=783 : rem 133 |
| 120 | DEF FNH (N) = INT (N/256) : DEF FNL (N)=N-256*FNH (N): |
|  | LA=PEEK (49)+256*PEEK(5ø)+1øøø :rem 146 |
| 300 | F\$="":INPUT " LOAD FILENAME"; FS:IF F\$="" OR LE |
|  | N(F\$)>12 GOTO 3øø :rem 238 |
| 310 | GOSUB 6øØ: POKE SA, $0:$ POKE SX,FNL(LA): POKE SY,FN |
|  | H(LA) :rem 252 |
| 320 | SYS 65493:IF PEEK(SP)AND1 GOTO 7øØ :rem 85 |
| 330 | NS=PEEK(LA):PRINT " LOADED DEFINITIONS ø TO" N |
|  | S:PRINT :rem 162 |
| $4 \varnothing 0$ | FD=-1:INPUT " NUMBER OF FIRST DEFINITION"; FD:I |
|  | F FD<ø OR FD>NS GOTO 4øø :rem 24 |

```
41| FA=LA+1:IF FD THEN FOR K=1 TO FD:FA=FA+PEEK(FA
    )+1:NEXT :rem 19
420 PRINT :rem 35
450 LD=-1:INPUT " NUMBER OF LAST{2 SPACES}DEFINITI
    ON";LD:IF LD<FD OR LD>NS GOTO 45\emptyset :rem 25
460 EA=FA:FOR K=\emptyset TO LD-FD:EA=EA+PEEK(EA)+1:NEXT:P
    RINT :rem 237
500 F$="":INPUT " SAVE FILENAME";FS:IF FS="" OR LE
    N(F$)>l2 GOTO 5ø0 :rem l
510 FA=FA-1 :POKE FA,LD-FD:GOSUB 6ø\emptyset :rem 242
520 POKE SA,251:POKE 251,FNL(FA):POKE 252,FNH(FA)
                                    :rem 229
530 POKE SX,FNL(EA):POKE SY,FNH(EA) :rem 73
540 SYS 65496:IF PEEK(SP)ANDI GOTO 7ø\emptyset :rem 92
550 PRINT " SAVED" EA-FA "BYTES":END :rem 244
6øØ PRINT:POKE SA,l:POKE SX,DN:POKE SY,\varnothing:SYS 65466
    :F$=F$+".DEF" :rem 187
61\emptyset FOR K=1 TO LEN(F$):POKE 584+K,ASC(MID$(FS,K)):
    NEXT :rem 241
62\emptyset POKE SA,LEN(F$):POKE SX,73:POKE SY,2:SYS 65469
    :RETURN :rem 159
7ø\varnothing P=PEEK(SA):PRINT " ERROR:"::IF P=4 THEN PRINT
    {SPACE}"FILE NOT FOUND":END :rem 96
710 IF P=5 THEN PRINT "DEVICE NOT PRESENT":END
                                    :rem 188
72Ø PRINT ST:END :rem 222
```

Once you run Extract, you're asked for the name of the file which contains the definitions to be extracted. Enter the filename and wait for the file to load.

The next two prompts ask for the numbers of the first and last definitions in the sequence that you want to pull out of this file. Type in the appropriate numbers.

Finally, the program requests a filename to use in saving the extracted definitions. After you enter the filename, the program saves the specified range of definitions as a new file. The original file has not been changed, however. The definitions you extracted are still there.

To completely break up a definition file, then, you have to perform two extractions. If the original file contains definitions $0-5$, for instance, and you want two three-definition files, first extract definitions $0-2$, save those to a new filename, then extract definitions $3-5$, saving them out under a different name. Then, if you want, you can scratch the original file from disk or overwrite it on tape.

## Sprite-to-Sprite Collisions

In games it's often necessary to know when a sprite has collided with another sprite or some other screen data. There's an easy way, using a PEEK and the AND operator, to tell if a sprite has been involved in a collision.

Location 53278 is a hardware location in the VIC-II chip. The eight bits in this location, one for each sprite, are normally clear ( 0 ). When two sprites overlap, a collision is said to occur, and the bits in location 53278 which correspond to the colliding sprites are set to 1 . The bits remain set even after the sprites stop overlapping. To determine if a particular sprite has been involved in a collision, all a BASIC program has to do is PEEK location 53278 and examine the appropriate bit.

The general procedure is to PEEK the location, assign the value to a variable, and then use the variable with the AND operator and sprite numbers to check individual bits. Something like this:

## $\mathbf{P}=$ PEEK(53278):IF P AND N THEN sprite was involved in collision

The value for N , the bit value, is determined from the table below. (This is the same table used for freezing and unfreezing sprites.)

| Sprite | Number |
| :--- | :---: |
| 0 | 1 |
| 1 | 2 |
| 2 | 4 |
| 3 | 8 |
| 4 | 16 |
| 5 | 32 |
| 6 | 64 |
| 7 | 128 |

For example, the numbers which correspond to sprites 2 and 3 are 4 and 8 , respectively.
$100 \mathrm{P}=\mathrm{PEEK}(53278)$
110 IF P AND 4 THEN sprite 2 collided 120 IF P AND 8 THEN sprite 3 collided

Actual program statements would be placed after each THEN. In the example below, execution jumps to line 300 if sprite 5 is involved in a collision.
100 P=PEEK(53278):IF P AND 32 THEN 300

The bits in location 53278 are cleared after the location is PEEKed so that new collisions can be detected. So far, the PEEKed value has been assigned to a variable so that it can be checked for multiple collisions. If you're going to be watching only one sprite to see when it collides, however, you can eliminate the variable assignment.

## 100 IF PEEK(53278) AND 32 THEN 300

If you don't care which sprite is involved in a collision, and only need to detect when any sprite collision occurs, the AND operation can also be eliminated. This is the method used in Program 12-5, "DEMO\#2."

## 100 IF PEEK(53278) THEN 300

It's important to understand that location 53278 tells you only which sprites were involved in collisions. It does not tell you which sprite collided with which. For example, if location 53278 reports that sprites $1,2,3$, and 4 have all been involved in collisions since the last time the location was PEEKed, several combinations of collisions are possible. Perhaps sprite 1 collided with sprite 2, and sprite 3 collided with sprite 4. Maybe it was sprites 1 and 3 and sprites 2 and 4. Or maybe sprites 1 and 4 collided, and sprites 2 and 3 collided. Another possibility is that all four sprites collided with each other.

The only way to determine which sprites hit is to compare their positions. A method for doing this is discussed a bit later.

## Sprite-to-Screen-Data Collisions

Location 53278 only reports sprite-to-sprite collisions, in which one sprite hits one or more other sprites. To check if a sprite has overlapped any screen data, such as characters or bitmapped graphics, use the same technique with location 53279. $\mathbf{P}=$ PEEK(53279):IF P AND N THEN sprite hit screen data
To check, for example, if sprite 6 hit a character-drawn barrier, use a line like the following.

## P=PEEK(53279):IF P AND 64 THEN 500

As with priority, the multicolor bit pair 01 is a special exception. No collision is detected when a sprite overlaps anything displayed by the bit pair 01 in character or bitmapped graphics mode.

## POKEing and PEEKing

You were earlier promised that you would be able to animate sprites with the Control System without having to use a single POKE statement. That promise has been kept. But you can still use POKE statements if you want to. For instance, location 53287 holds the color for sprite 0 . To change this color you can use either of the following two statements:

## SYS CO,0,color number

or

## POKE 53287,color number

Both statements do the same thing. Other sprite characteristics, such as size and position, can also be set by POKE statements. In most cases, however, the SYS calls in the Sprite Control System are more convenient to use.

On the other hand, it can be very useful to PEEK hardware locations which control sprites. This lets you determine things like current color or position. The following statements, for example, return the current coordinates of a sprite.
X $=$ PEEK(53248 + 2*SN) $+256 *$ SGN(PEEK(53264)AND2个SN)-24
$\mathbf{Y}=$ PEEK(53249 + $\mathbf{2 *}^{*}$ SN) -50

## Reading Definitions from DATA

As mentioned earlier, definitions can be stored as data in a program so that you have one less file to load whenever you run a program using sprites. The procedure is very simple.

First, use the Data feature in the Sprite Editor to convert the definitions to DATA statements. Then use Program E-1, "Merge Utility," found in Appendix E to merge the DATA statements with your program.

The last step is to replace the call to the definition loading subroutine at 58500 (line 58500 is part of "SCS.BAS," the BASIC file you must include as part of your own program when you want to use the Sprite Control System) with a call to the subroutine at 58400 . This subroutine reads the definitions into memory instead of loading them from tape or disk.

Before you call the subroutine at 58500 , you have to specify a filename and a loading address. But with the subroutine at 58400 , only the loading address has to be set. In your own program, the line would probably look like:

## LA $=16384: G O S U B$ 58400:REM READ DEFINITIONS

The data for the bunny shape definition is already included in Program 12-3, "DEMO\#1." To see how the subroutine at 58400 works, just modify line 140 in Program 12-3 to:

## 140 LA=16384:GOSUB 584ø0:REM READ DEFINITIONS

Run the program and you'll see the same end result. Notice, however, that if you're using tape, you have to load only one additional file, "SCS.OBJ," not two as you did before. Reading definitions from DATA is especially efficient when you have to use tape.

When using this method, be careful if the program contains DATA statements for other purposes.

One drawback to using this method is that DATA statements make a program grow quickly. For large definition files, then, this method is impractical.

## Protecting Free Memory

No matter which technique is used to load definitions, they end up stored in free memory. This presents no problem unless your program uses string variables. Free memory is used when strings are assigned. If your program assigns string variables, you should periodically call the free memory function to reorganize free memory.
K=FRE(0)

## Relocating Screen Memory

You'll remember that the number of the lowest definition block available can be determined by the expression $\operatorname{INT}((\operatorname{PEEK}(49)+256 * \operatorname{PEEK}(50)) / 64)+16$. If the value of this expression is greater than 255, you have a small problem. It means there are no definition blocks available. This can happen when your BASIC program is larger than 8 K .

There is a way to get around this problem. It's a bit involved, but by following the instructions below, you shouldn't have any trouble.

What you'll do is use a different bank of memory for definition blocks. The Commodore 64's memory is divided into four sections, called banks. Each bank consists of 16 K bytes, which is enough for 256 definition blocks. The default bank when you turn the computer on is bank 0 . When there is no
room in this bank for definition blocks, you can switch to bank 1, 2, or 3 instead.

| Bank | Memory Locations |
| :--- | :--- |
| 0 | $0-16383$ |
| 1 | $16384-32767$ |
| 2 | $32768-49151$ |
| 3 | $49152-65535$ |

The only difficulty with using another bank is that screen memory must be located in the same bank used for definition blocks. If you switch to bank 2, for example, you must move the screen memory from bank 0 to bank 2.

Bank 2. This bank is a good choice because the RAM under the BASIC ROM can be used to hold sprite definitions. This gives you 128 definition blocks, numbered from 128 to 255. Another advantage of bank 2 is that the VIC-II chip sees an image of the character set in this bank, so you don't have to define your own character set.

However, when you use bank 2, you'll run into some problems finding a place for screen memory. No matter where it's put, the top of free memory is going to have to be lowered. To preserve as much free memory as possible, start the screen memory at location 35840 .

To relocate screen memory, use the following statement.
SYS RL,address of screen memory/256
If you want to relocate the screen memory to start at 35840, for example, you'd use:
SYS RL,35840/256
or
SYS RL,140
Do this after the call to the subroutine at 58000, but before the Sprite Control System is installed by SYS IN.

To lower the top of free memory, POKE location 56 with the same number used above, and then use a CLR to reset the memory pointers. In the previous example, with the screen memory set to start at 35840, you should enter:

## POKE 56,140:CLR

Place this at the beginning of your program, before any variables are assigned.

Since you're no longer using bank 0 , you don't have to set the LOAD address to start at the beginning of the next
bank. Instead of using the statement $\mathrm{LA}=16384$ to set the LOAD address, use this:
LA = PEEK(49) + 256*PEEK(50) +1000
The screen memory should not be placed at 35840 if some other utilities have been installed at the top of free memory earlier. To check if the top of free memory has already been lowered, examine the value in location 56 before you change it.

## PRINT PEEK(56)

Normally, this will give you the value 160, which is fine. If you get a number less than 144, however, you should not start the screen at 35840 . Instead, subtract 4 from this value, AND the value with the number 252, and use the result in the SYS RL and POKE 56 statements. For instance, if you PEEK location 56 and receive 141 as an answer, these statements should be used to relocate screen memory and lower the top of free memory.

## SYS RL,141-4AND252:POKE 56,141-4AND252:CLR

Don't use bank 2 if the value in location 56 is less than 132.
Bank 3. If you use bank 3, the memory under the Kernal ROM can be used to hold definitions. This gives you blocks 128-254. You must not use block 255 in bank 3. Doing so will make the computer crash.

Another area of memory in bank 3 that can be used to store definitions is the RAM under the I/O chips and color memory. This RAM cannot be easily POKEd from BASIC, so it's rarely used. The SYS DF routine, however, banks this RAM in when it defines a block. The result is that in bank 3, blocks 64 through 127 are also available.

Screen memory can be placed at either location 51200 or location 52224. Neither of these is in free memory, so the top of free memory does not have to be lowered. This is a major advantage of using bank 3-no free memory is used.

The only disadvantage to using bank 3 is that the VIC-II chip does not see an image of the character ROM, so you have to supply your own. The best place to put the character set is in the RAM under the I/O chips, starting at location 53248. If you do this, blocks 64 through 95 will no longer be available.

Bank 1. This offers a full 16K of RAM in the middle of free memory. Even after subtracting 1 K for screen memory
and 2 K for a character set, you should still have plenty of room for definition blocks. If you use this bank, put the screen memory at location 29696, and a character set at 30720 . Since you're using the middle of free memory, the top of memory does not have to be lowered.

Definition blocks up to block 207 are available. To find the number of the lowest available block, use this statement after the definition file has been loaded:
PRINT INT(LA - 16384)/64) +16
If this number is negative, all the blocks from 0 to 207 can be used. If the number is greater than 207, don't use bank 1.

Reset screen memory. At the end of your program, you'll want to reset screen memory back to bank 0 . This can be done by the following SYS call.

## SYS RS

Do this after the Sprite Control System has been removed.
You'll also need to use SYS RS if you have relocated the screen memory and pressed RUN/STOP-RESTORE to remove the Control System.

If you've changed the top of memory, you may also want to reset it. POKE location 56 with the value that it contained before you changed it, and then perform a CLR.

Here's a summary of the steps to take to relocate the screen memory. Bank 2 is usually the best choice, because it supports 128 definition blocks (blocks 128-255) and no character set has to be defined.

To use bank 2:

- Remember the contents of location 56.
- POKE 56,140:CLR to lower the top of free memory.
- Load the SCS.OBJ and definition files.
- Use SYS RL,140 to relocate screen memory
- Use SYS IN to install the Sprite Control System, and then proceed as usual.
- After SYS RE, use SYS RS to reset the screen.
- Restore the original contents of location 56.

When you select bank 3, blocks 64-254 can be used. The only drawback is that no character set is supplied. If one is needed, it should be put at location 53248, in which case only blocks 96-254 can be used for definitions.

## To use bank 3:

- Define a character set at location 53248 if one is needed.
- Follow the standard procedure to use the Sprite Control System, but insert the statement SYS RL, 200 before SYS IN to relocate screen memory.
- At the end of the program (after SYS RE), use SYS RS to reset the screen.

Bank 1 supports the most blocks, from INT((LA-16384)/ $64)+16$ to 207, but like bank 3 , it does not contain a character set.

To use bank 1:

- Define a character set at location 30720 if one is necessary.
- Follow the standard procedure, but perform a SYS RL,116 before SYS IN.
- Use SYS RS after SYS RE at the end of the program.

Whenever any of these three banks is used, the LOAD address is no longer set as LA $=16384$, but is calculated by the formula:
LA $=$ PEEK(49) $+256 * \operatorname{PEEK}(50)+1000$
If the screen has been relocated to one bank and you want to place it back in bank 0, just use SYS RL,4. Be sure that the Sprite Control System is not installed when you do this.

## Relocating the Sprite Control System

The machine language routines for the Sprite Control System are stored in memory from locations 49664 to 51199. The Control System also uses locations 2 and 251-254, and memory in the tape buffer. You cannot use the Sprite Control System with another utility that uses any of this memory.

Both the Bitmapped Graphics and Sidplayer utilities use some of this memory. In order to use the Control System with one or more of these other utilities, then, you have to have a way to relocate the Sprite Control System. It's possible.

Those portions of the Control System which conflict with the other utilities can be moved to free memory. This lets you use the Sprite Control System with the bitmapped graphics extensions or Sidplayer. You can even use all three utilities at the same time. (More on that in a bit.)

To relocate the Sprite Control System to free memory, as-
sign the LOAD address and call the subroutine at 58100, instead of calling the subroutine at 58000 . The subroutine at 58100 loads the SCS.OBJ file, moves it to free memory starting at LA, and advances LA to point to the first byte of free memory after the SCS.OBJ file. The line in your BASIC program might look like this:

## 13Ø LA=16384:GOSUB 581øø

When you load the definitions, just set the filename and call the subroutine at 58500. Do not reassign LA. The LOAD address should be set only once.

```
14ø F$="BUNNY":GOSUB 585øø
```


## Using the Control System with the Bitmapped Graphics Extensions

When using the Sprite Control System with the bitmapped graphics extensions to BASIC, the procedure to relocate the Control System is complicated by the fact that the bitmap is placed in bank 3. Thus, besides relocating the Control System, you must also relocate screen memory.

Begin with the bitmapped graphics extensions to BASIC already installed. Then you can start placing the Control System in memory. First, assign LA:

## LA $=$ PEEK(49) +256 *PEEK(50) +1000

This is used instead of $\mathrm{LA}=16384$ because screen memory will be relocated.

Next, call the subroutine at 58100 .

## GOSUB 58100

Now, specify the filename of the definition file and call the subroutine at 58500 to load the definitions.

## $\mathbf{F} \$=$ filename:GOSUB 58500

The Bitmapped Graphics utility requires that screen memory start at location 50176, and since 50176/256 is 196, use the following to relocate screen memory.

## SYS RL,196

You're now ready to use the graphics statements and Control System SYS calls. There are, however, a few restrictions. The first is that whenever you use the statement GRAPHICS,
you must immediately follow it with this POKE statement: POKE 53265,PEEK(53265)AND127

Location 53265 controls various features of the VIC-II graphics chip, including bitmap mode. The GRAPHICS statement changes this location when it turns on the mode. The only problem is that the location also controls raster scan interrupts. Bit 7 of location 53265 must be kept clear if the raster scan interrupt used by the Sprite Control System is to work reliably. The above statement insures that bit 7 is clear.

A second restriction is that you must not use the TEXT statement. Doing so while the Sprite Control System is installed can cause the computer to crash.

The final restriction is that the RAM under the Kernal is used to store the bitmap, so the corresponding definition blocks are not available. You may use only blocks 64-127 and blocks 253 and 254.

Since no character set is used in bitmapped graphics, you don't have to worry about defining one.

If you want to draw bitmapped graphics shapes with the SHAPE statement, merge the lines in the "SHP.BAS" file with your program, and load the shape file before you load the sprite definitions.

The following program lines summarize the steps you should take to use the Bitmapped Graphics and Sprite Control System utilities together.

```
20\emptyset LA=PEEK(49)+256*PEEK(50)+1øø0:GOSUB 581ø0:REM
    {SPACE}LOAD AND RELOCATE SCS.OBJ
210 F$="FILENAME":GOSUB 58500:REM LOAD DEFINITIONS
22\emptyset SYS RL,196:REM RELOCATE SCREEN MEMORY
23ø GRAPHICS Ø:POKE 53265,PEEK(53265)AND127:REM CA
    N USE ANY MODE
24ø SYS IN:REM INSTALL SPRITE CONTROL SYSTEM
250 ...
```

"FILENAME" in line 210 should be changed to match the definition file's name you're calling.

If you're also using bitmapped graphics shapes (the
SHAPE statement), insert the following line:

```
205 F$="FILENAME":GOSUB 56500:REM LOAD SHAPES
```

End the program in the normal way.

```
560 ...
570 SYS RE:REM REMOVE SPRITE CONTROL SYSTEM
58\emptyset SYS RS:REM RESET SCREEN
590 END
```


## Using the Sprite Control System with Sidplayer

It's much easier to use the Sprite Control System with the Sidplayer. You should have no problems as long as you follow this process.

Your program must contain the Sidplayer subroutine lines starting at 57000 , as well as the lines beginning at 58000 used by the Sprite Control System. The lines from 57000 can be found in Program 11-1, "SID.BAS."

Your BASIC program should begin by assigning the LOAD address.
LA =16384
Load and relocate the "SID.OBJ" file with:
GOSUB 57100
Next, load the "SCS.OBJ" file. It's not necessary to relocate the file this time.
GOSUB 58000
Now load the song and sprite definition files.
F\$=filename:GOSUB 57500:REM LOAD SONG F $\$=$ filename:GOSUB 58500:REM LOAD DEFINITIONS

The last step is to use the SYS HK call to install Sidplayer before you use the SYS IN call to install the Sprite Control System. This order is important.
SYS HK:SYS IN
Proceed as normal from this point. At the end of the program, the utilities must be removed in the reverse order. SYS RE:SYS DP

There are a few important notes about using these two utilities together. The first is that both utilities are interruptdriven. Both utilities take an amount of processing time away from BASIC, so your programs may run noticeably slower.

Using the utilities in tandem increases the chance of a crash-causing error. If the music or sprite motion ever stops suddenly for no apparent reason, it means that music and motion processing took more than one frame. If this is ever a
problem, try using fewer special options between notes in the music, or reduce the number of moving sprites.

Finally, when the two utilities are used together and your computer is operating on 50 Hz power (in Europe, for example), the tempo of the music will be slightly decreased.

## Using All Three Utilities Together

If you want, you can use the Bitmapped Graphics, Sidplayer, and Sprite Control System utilities simultaneously. To do so, start with the bitmapped graphics extensions already installed. Assign the LOAD address, load and relocate the SID.OBJ file, load and relocate the SCS.OBJ file, and then load the shape, song, and definition files. Make sure that you use SYS HK and SYS RL,196 before SYS IN, and be sure to clear bit 7 of location 53265 whenever you use the GRAPHICS statement. At the end of the program, use SYS RE, SYS RS, and SYS DP, in that order.

The following demonstration is not intended to be a typical application of the three utilities, but it does show you how to get all three going at the same time.

## Program 16-3. Three at Once

For error-free program entry, be sure to use "The Automatic Proofreader," Appendix D. Remember to install the bitmapped graphics extensions to BASIC before entering this program.

|  | PRINT "\{CLR\}\{DOWN $\}$ ALL ABOUT THE COMMODORE 64: VOLUME TWO" |
| :---: | :---: |
| 110 | PRINT TAB(10) "GRAND DEMONSTRATION":PRINT |
| 120 | DN=8: $\mathrm{SA}=780 \cdot \mathrm{SX=781}: \mathrm{SY}=782 \cdot \mathrm{SP}=783 \quad$ :rem 6 |
| 200 | $\mathrm{LA}=\mathrm{PEEK}(49)+256$ PEEK ( $5 \varnothing)+1 \varnothing \varnothing \varnothing \quad$ :rem 248 |
| 10 | GOSUB 571ø0:REM LOAD AND RELOCATE SID.OBJ |
| $22 \varnothing$ | GOSUB 581øø:REM LOAD AND RELOCATE SCS.OBJ |
| $23 \varnothing$ | F\$="COMMODORE":GOSUB 575øø:REM LOAD SONG |
| 240 | F\$="BUNNY":GOSUB 58500:REM LOAD DEFINITION |
|  | 40 |
| 300 | GRAPHICS 6:POKE 53265, PEEK(53265)AND127:REM TU |
|  | RN ON BITMAPPED GRAPHICS :rem 135 |
| 310 | SYS HK:REM INSTALL SIDPLAYER :rem |
| $32 \varnothing$ | SYS RL, 196:REM RELOCATE SCREEN MEMORY :rem |
| 330 | SYS IN:REM INSTALL SPRITE CONTROL SYSTEM |

$34 \varnothing$ SYS DF,254, $0: R E M$ DEFINE BLOCK 254 WITH DEFINIT
ION $\varnothing \quad$ :rem 103
350 SYS FR,255:REM FREEZE ALL SPRITES :rem 217
$36 \varnothing$ FOR SN=ø TO 7:REM LOOP WITH SPRITE NUMBER
: rem 156
370 SYS CO,SN,1:REM SET COLOR TO WHITE :rem 2
$38 \emptyset$ SYS PO,SN,5ø+SN*25,2ø+SN*22:REM SET POSITION
:rem 91
390 SYS DI,SN, 3:REM SET DIRECTION :rem 255
$4 \varnothing \varnothing$ SYS MO,SN,2,2:REM SET SPEED :rem 51
410 SYS BO,SN,1:REM TURN ON BOUNCE :rem 15
420 SYS BL,SN,254:REM ASSIGN BLOCK 254 TO SPRITE (
AND ENABLE) :rem 229
430 NEXT SN :rem 119
44Ø POKE SX,LO:POKE SY,HI:SYS PL:POKE SS,7:REM STA
RT SONG PLAYING :rem 73
$45 \emptyset$ SYS UN,255:REM START SPRITES MOVING :rem 169
$46 \varnothing$ SETPEN 1,RND ( $\varnothing$ )* $14+2$ : DRAW RND ( $\varnothing) * 4 \varnothing, \operatorname{RND}(\varnothing) * 25$
\{SPACE\}TO RND( 0 ) $4 \varnothing$, RND( $\varnothing$ )*25 :rem 76
47ø IF PEEK(SS)AND7 GOTO 460:REM DRAW LINES UNTIL
\{SPACE\}SONG ENDS :rem 215
$48 \emptyset$ SYS RE:REM REMOVE SPRITE CONTROL SYSTEM
: rem 251
490 SYS RS:REM RESET SCREEN :rem 162
$5 \emptyset \emptyset$ SYS DP:REM REMOVE SIDPLAYER :rem 193
510 PRINT:PRINT " WOWI WHAT A SHOW!" :rem 35
520 END :rem $11 \varnothing$
57øøø POKE SA,1:POKE SX,DN:POKE SY,1:SYS 65466:F\$=
"SID.OBJ":GOSUB 59øøø :rem 106
57ø1Ø POKE SA,Ø:SYS 65493:IF PEEK(SP)AND1 GOTO 591
øø :rem 126
$57 \varnothing 2 \varnothing$ SS=49152: HK=49435: PL=49458: DP=49629: RETURN
: rem 77
57100 GOSUB 57øø0:POKE SX,LA-256*INT(LA/256):POKE
\{SPACE\}SY,INT(LA/256):SYS 51042 :rem 218
57110 LA=LA+1398:RETURN :rem 111
575øø POKE SA, 1:POKE SX,DN:POKE SY, Ø:SYS 65466:F\$=
FS+".MUS":GOSUB 59øøØ :rem 61
$57510 \mathrm{HI}=\mathrm{INT}(\mathrm{LA} / 256$ ):LO=LA-256*HI :rem 137
$5752 \emptyset$ POKE SA, $0:$ POKE SX,LO:POKE SY,HI:SYS 65493:IF
PEEK (SP)AND1 GOTO 591øø :rem 49
57530 LA=PEEK (SX) +256*PEEK (SY):RETURN :rem 29
58øøø POKE SA,1:POKE SX,DN:POKE SY,1:SYS 65466:F\$=
"SCS.OBJ":GOSUB 59øøø :rem 116
58ø1ø POKE SA, Ø:SYS 65493:IF PEEK(SP)ANDI GOTO 591
øø :rem
127
$58 \varnothing 2 \varnothing$ IN=49664:RE=49667:RL=4967Ø:RS=49673:DF=49676
: $\mathrm{BL}=49679: \mathrm{CO}=49682: \mathrm{WI}=49685$ :rem 172
$58 \emptyset 3$ ( $\mathrm{HE}=49688: \mathrm{PO}=49691: \mathrm{DI}=49694: \mathrm{WR}=49697: \mathrm{BO}=497 \varnothing \varnothing$
: MO=497ø3:LB=497ø6: RB=497ø9 :rem 148

```
\(58040 \mathrm{~TB}=49712: \mathrm{BB}=49715: \mathrm{FR}=49718: \mathrm{UN}=49721: \mathrm{PR}=49724\)
    : MU=49727:EN=4973ø:JS=49733 :rem 149
58ø5Ø AU=49736:CH=49739:RETURN :rem 14
581øØ GOSUB 58øøø:SYS 51123,LA:LA=LA+l191:RETURN
                            :rem 11
584øØ POKE 49749,LA-256*INT(LA/256):POKE 4975Ø,INT
    (LA/256) :rem 182
5841Ø READ J:POKE 49751,J:FOR K=Ø TO J:READ J:POKE
        LA,J :LA=LA+1 :rem 16
5842ø IF J THEN FOR LA=LA TO LA+J-1:READ I:POKE LA
    ,I:NEXT LA :rem 92
58430 NEXT K:RETURN :rem 168
585øØ POKE SA,1:POKE SX,DN:POKE SY,ø:SYS 65466:F\$=
    FS+".DEF":GOSUB 59øøØ :rem 24
5851ø POKE SA, Ø:POKE SX,LA-256*INT(LA/256):POKE SY
    ,INT(LA/256) :rem 78
5852ø SYS 65493:IF PEEK(SP)ANDl GOTO 591ø0 :rem 44
58530 LA=LA+1: POKE 49749,LA-256*INT(LA/256):POKE 4
    9750, INT (LA/256)
                                    : rem 167
58540 POKE 49751, PEEK(LA-1):LA=PEEK (SX) +256*PEEK (S
    Y):RETURN :rem 31
59øøØ FOR K=1 TO LEN(F\$): POKE 584+K,ASC(MID\$ (F\$,K)
    ):NEXT :rem 88
59ø1Ø POKE SA,LEN(F\$):POKE SX,73:POKE SY, \(2:\) SYS 654
    69:RETURN :rem 6
591øø P=PEEK(SA):PRINT " ERROR: ";:IF P=4 THEN PRI
    NT "FILE NOT FOUND": END \(\quad\) rem \(20 \emptyset\)
59110 IF P=5 THEN PRINT "DEVICE NOT PRESENT": END
    : rem 36
\(5912 \emptyset\) PRINT ST:END :rem 7Ø
```

When this program runs, it loads the files SID.OBJ, SCS.OBJ, COMMODORE.MUS, and BUNNY.DEF, in that order. If you're using disk, all of these files must be on the same disk. If you are using tape, the files should be stored on the same tape in that order.

## Final Comments

The Sprite Control System makes it possible to animate sprites in ways that are otherwise not possible in BASIC. If applications don't seem readily apparent, it's probably because you're not used to having such capabilities available.

The two biggest areas of potential use are probably educational programs and games. An effective use of animation can greatly enhance educational software, and action games and adventures are made more feasible by the Sprite Control System.

With the bitmapped graphics extensions to BASIC, Sidplayer, and the Sprite Control System, you now have a complete sound and graphics package. In fact, you have a whole new computer. Have fun in discovering your new Commodore 64!

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Appendices

# A Beginner's Guide to Typing In Programs 

## What Is a Program?

A computer cannot perform any task by itself. Like a car without gas, a computer has potential, but without a program, it isn't going anywhere. Many of the programs published in this book are written in a computer language called BASIC. BASIC is easy to learn and is built into all Commodore 64s.

## BASIC Programs

Computers can be picky. Unlike the English language, which is full of ambiguities, BASIC usually has only one right way of stating something. Every letter, character, or number is significant. A common mistake is substituting the letter $O$ for the numeral 0 , a lowercase $l$ for the numeral 1 , or an uppercase $B$ for the numeral 8. Also, you must enter all punctuation, such as colons and commas, just as it appears in the book. Spacing can be important. To be safe, type in the listings exactly as they appear.

## Braces and Special Characters

The exception to this typing rule is when you see the braces, such as \{DOWN\}. Anything within a set of braces is a special character or characters that cannot easily be listed on a printer. When you come across such a special statement, refer to "How to Type In Programs" (Appendix B).

## About DATA Statements

Some programs contain a section or sections of DATA statements. These lines provide information needed by the program. Some DATA statements contain actual programs (in machine language), while others may contain graphics codes. These lines are especially sensitive to errors.

If a single number in any one DATA statement is mistyped, your machine could lock up, or crash. The keyboard and RUN/STOP key may seem dead, and the screen may go blank. But don't panic. No damage has been done. To regain control, turn off your computer and then turn it back on. This
will erase whatever program was in memory, so always save a copy of your program before you run it. If your computer crashes, you can load the program and look for your mistake.

Sometimes a mistyped DATA statement will cause an error message when the program is run. The error message may refer to the program line that READs the data. However, the error is still in the DATA statements.

## Get to Know Your Machine

You should familiarize yourself with your computer before attempting to type in a program. Learn the statements you use to store and retrieve programs from tape or disk. You'll want to save a copy of your program so that you won't have to type it in every time you want to use it. Learn to use your machine's editing functions. How do you change a line if you made a mistake? You can always retype the line, but you should at least know how to backspace. Do you know how to enter reverse-video, lowercase, and control characters? It's all explained in your manual.

In order to insure accurate entry of each program line, we have included a checksum program. Please read "The Automatic Proofreader" (Appendix D) before typing in any of the programs in this book.

A Quick Review

1. Type in the program, a line at a time, in order. Press RETURN at the end of each line. Use backspace or the backarrow to correct mistakes.
2. Check the line you've typed against the line in the book. You can check the entire program again if you get an error when you run the program.

## How to Type In Programs

Some of the programs in this book contain special control characters (cursor controls, color keys, reverse-video, etc.). To make it easy to know exactly what to type when entering one of these programs into your computer, we have established the following listing conventions.

Generally, Commodore 64 program listings will contain words within braces which spell out any special characters: \{DOWN \} would mean to press the cursor-down key; \{5 SPACES\} would mean to press the space bar five times.

To indicate that a key should be shifted (hold down the SHIFT key while pressing the other key), the key would be underlined in our listings. For example, $\underline{S}$ would mean to type the S key while holding the SHIFT key. This would appear on your screen as a heart symbol. If you find an underlined key enclosed in braces (for example, $\{10 \underline{\mathrm{~N}}\}$ ), you should type the key as many times as indicated. In that case, you would enter ten shifted N's.

If a key is enclosed in special brackets, $[<\rangle$ ], you should hold down the Commodore key while pressing the key inside the special brackets. (The Commodore key is the key in the lowerleft corner of the keyboard.) Again, if the key is preceded by a number, you should press the key as many times as necessary.

Rarely, you'll see a solitary letter of the alphabet enclosed in braces. These characters can be entered by holding down the CTRL key while typing the letter in the braces. For example, \{A\} would indicate that you should press CTRL-A.

## Quote Mode

You know that you can move the cursor around the screen with the CRSR keys. Sometimes a programmer will want to move the cursor under program control. That's why you see all the $\{$ LEFT\}'s, \{HOME\}'s, and \{BLU\}'s in our programs. The only way the computer can tell the difference between direct and programmed cursor control is the quote mode.

Once you press the quote (the double quote, SHIFT-2), you are in the quote mode. If you type something and then try to change it by moving the cursor left, you'll only get a bunch of reverse-video lines. These are the symbols for cursor left. The
only editing key that isn＇t programmable is the INST／DEL key； you can still use INST／DEL to back up and edit the line．Once you type another quote，you are out of quote mode．

You also go into quote mode when you INSerT spaces into a line．In any case，the easiest way to get out of quote mode is to just press RETURN．You＇ll then be out of quote mode and you can cursor up to the mistyped line and fix it．

In order to insure accurate entry of each program line，we have included a checksum program．Please read＂The Auto－ matic Proofreader＂（Appendix D）before typing in any of the programs in this book．

Refer to the following table when entering cursor and color control keys：

| When You Read： |  | ress： | See： | When You Read： | Pres |  |  | See： |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| \｛CLR\} | SHIFT | CLR／HOME |  | E 1 习 | COMM | ORE | 1 | 4 |
| \｛HOME \} |  | CLR／HOME | ＋iz | ［2］ | COMM | ORE | 2 |  |
| \｛UP\} | SHIFT | $\dagger$ CRSR $\downarrow$ |  | K 3 习 | COMM | ORE | 3 | 8 |
| \｛DOWN |  | $\dagger$ CRSR $\downarrow$ | H | ［ 4 习 | COMM | ORE | 4 | ［1］ |
| \｛LEFT\} | SHIFT | $\leftarrow$ CRSR $\rightarrow$ | \％ | ［ 5 习 | COMM | OREE | 5 | R |
| \｛RIGHT\} |  | $\leftarrow$ CRSR $\rightarrow$ | 1 | ［6习 | COMM | ORE | 6 |  |
| \｛RVS\} | CTRL | 9 | ［ | ［7］ | COMM | ORE | 7 |  |
| \｛OFF\} | CTRL | 0 |  | ［8习 | COMM | ORE | 8 |  |
| \｛BLK\} | CTRL | 1 |  | \｛ F1 \} |  | $\mathrm{fl}_{1}$ |  |  |
| \｛WHT\} | CTRL | 2 | E | \｛ F2 \} | SHIFT | $f 1$ |  |  |
| \｛RED\} | CTRL | 3 | $\pm$ | \｛ F3 \} |  | 93 |  |  |
| \｛CYN \} | CTRL | 4 |  | \｛ F4 \} | SHIFT | ${ }_{6}$ |  |  |
| \｛PUR\} | CTRL | 5 |  | \｛ F5 \} |  | f5 |  |  |
| \｛GRN $\}$ | CTRL | 6 |  | \｛ F6 \} | SHIFT | f5 |  |  |
| \｛BLU\} | CTRL | 7 | F | \｛ F7 \} |  | 97 |  |  |
| \｛YEL\} | CTRL | 8 | TT | \｛ F8 \} | SHIFT | 7 |  |  |

# Using the Machine Language Editor: MLX 

Charles Brannon

Remember the last time you typed in the BASIC loader for a long machine language program? You typed in hundreds of numbers and commas. Even then, you couldn't be sure if you typed it in right. So you went back, proofread, tried to run the program, crashed, went back again, proofread, corrected a few typing errors, ran again, crashed again, rechecked your typing. . .

Frustrating, wasn't it?
Now, "MLX" comes to the rescue. MLX makes it easy to enter all those long machine language programs with a minimum of fuss. It lets you enter the numbers from a special list that looks similar to DATA statements, and it checks your typing on a line-by-line basis. It won't let you enter illegal characters when you should be typing numbers. It won't let you enter numbers greater than 255 . It will prevent you from entering the numbers on the wrong line. In short, MLX will make proofreading obsolete.

## Tape or Disk Copies

In addition, MLX will generate a ready-to-use tape or disk copy of your machine language program. You can then use the LOAD command to read the program into the computer, just like you would with a BASIC program. Specifically, you enter:
LOAD "program name", 1,1 (for tape)
LOAD "program name", 8,1 (for disk)
To start the program, you need to enter a SYS command that tranfers control from BASIC to your machine language program. The starting SYS will always be given in the article which presents the machine language program in MLX format.

## Using MLX

Type in and save MLX (you'll want to use it in the future). When you're ready to type in the machine language program,
run MLX. MLX will ask you for two numbers: the starting address and the ending address. Then you'll get a prompt showing the specified starting address; that tells you to type in the corresponding first line of the program.

Subsequent prompts will ask you to type in subsequent lines from the MLX listing. Each line is six numbers plus a checksum. If you enter any of the six numbers wrong, or enter the checksum wrong, the 64 will sound a buzzer and prompt you to reenter the entire line. If you enter the line correctly, a pleasant bell tone will sound and you may go on to enter the next line.

## A Special Editor

You are not using the normal 64 BASIC editor with MLX. For example, it will accept only numbers as input. If you make a typing error, press the INST/DEL key; the entire number is deleted. You can press it as many times as necessary, back to the start of the line. If you enter three-digit numbers as listed, the computer automatically prints the comma and goes on to accept the next number. If you enter less than three digits, you can press either the space bar or RETURN key to advance to the next number. The checksum automatically appears in reverse video for emphasis.

To make it even easier to enter these numbers, MLX redefines part of the keyboard as a numeric keypad (lines 581-584). The keypad can be used only to enter the data; you must use the regular number keys to enter the starting and ending addresses.


When testing it, I've found MLX to be an extremely easy way to enter long listings. With the audio cues provided, you don't even have to look at the screen if you're a touch-typist.

## Done at Last!

When you get through typing, assuming you type your machine language program all in one session, you can then save the completed and bug-free program to tape or disk. Follow the instructions displayed on the screen. If you get any error messages while saving, you probably have a bad disk, a full disk, or a typo in MLX. Sorry, MLX can't check itself!

## Command Control

What if you don't want to enter the whole program in one sitting? MLX lets you enter as much as you want, save the completed portion, and then reload your work from tape or disk when you want to continue. MLX recognizes these commands:
SHIFT-S: Save
SHIFT-L: Load
SHIFT-N: New Address
SHIFT-D: Display
Hold down SHIFT while you press the appropriate key. You will jump out of the line you've been typing, so I recommend you do it at a prompt. Use the Save command to store what you've been working on. It will write the tape or disk file as if you've finished. Remember what address you stop on. Then, the next time you run MLX, answer all the prompts as you did before and insert the disk or tape containing the stored file. When you get the entry prompt, press SHIFT-L to reload the file into memory. You'll then use the New Address command (SHIFT-N) to resume typing.

## New Address and Display

After you press SHIFT-N, enter the address where you previously stopped. The prompt will change and you can continue typing. Always enter a New Address that matches up with one of the line numbers in the special listing, or else the checksums won't match up. You can use the Display command to display a section of your typing. After you press SHIFT-D, enter two addresses within the line number range of the listing. You can stop the display by pressing any key.

## Tricky Stuff

You can use the Save and Load commands to make copies of the complete machine language program. Use the Load
command to reload the tape or disk, then insert a new tape or disk and use the Save command to create a new copy.

One quirk about tapes made with the MLX Save command: When you load them, the message "FOUND program" may appear twice. The tape will load just fine, however.

Programmers will find MLX to be an interesting program which protects the user from most typing mistakes. Some screen formatting techniques are also used. Most interesting is the use of ROM Kernal routines for loading and saving blocks of memory. To use these routines, just POKE the starting address (low byte/high byte) into memory locations 251 and 252, and POKE the ending address into locations 254 and 255. Any error code for the Save or Load can be found in location 253 (an error would be a code less than ten).

I hope you will find MLX to be a true labor-saving program. Since it has been tested by entering actual programs, you can count on it as an aid for generating bug-free machine language. Be sure to save MLX; it will be used for future applications in other COMPUTE! books.
(Note: If you have a copy of MLX from another COMPUTE! publication and you're using tape, change line 763 of your copy so that it matches line 763 as listed below. Tape users who have a copy of MLX which does not have a line 763 must use this version of MLX.)
The Machine Language Editor: MLX

For error-free program entry, be sure to use "The Automatic Proofreader," Appendix D.

23ø PRINT＂ $\mathbb{K} 5 习\{2$ UP\}ENDING ADDRESS?\{8 SPACES\}\｛9 LEFT\}";:INPUTE:F=1-F:C\$=CHR\$(31+119*F)
：rem 20
240 IFE＜256OR（E＞4Ø96ØANDE＜49152）ORE＞53247THENGOSUB3ØØ0：GOTO23Ø：rem 183
250 IFE＜STHENPRINTC\＄；＂\｛RVS\}ENDING < START \｛2 SPACES ${ }^{2}$＂：GOSUB1Øøø：GOTO $23 \varnothing$ ：rem 176
260 PRINT：PRINT：PRINT ：rem 179
3øø PRINT＂\｛CLR\}"; CHR (14):AD=S ..... ：rem 56
$31 \varnothing$ A＝1：PRINTRIGHT\＄（＂ØøøØ＂＋MID\＄（STR\＄（AD），2），5）；＂：＂
； ..... ：rem 33
315 FORJ＝ATO6 ..... ：rem 33
$32 \varnothing$ GOSUB57ø：IFN＝－1 THENJ＝J＋N：GOTO32ø ：rem 228
390 IFN＝－211THEN 710 ..... ：rem 62
$4 \varnothing \emptyset$ IFN＝－2ø4THEN 79Ø ..... ：rem 64
$41 \varnothing$ IFN＝－206THENPRINT：INPUT＂\｛DOWN\}ENTER NEW ADDRES S＂；ZZ ..... ：rem 44
415 IFN＝－2ø6THENIFZZ＜SORZZ＞ETHENPRINT＂\｛RVS\}OUT OF \｛SPACE \} RANGE": GOSUB1 Øøø: GOTO41 $\varnothing$ ..... ：rem 225
417 IFN＝－206THENAD＝ZZ：PRINT：GOTO31 $\varnothing$ ..... ：rem 238
$42 \emptyset$ IF $\mathrm{N}<>-196$ THEN $48 \emptyset$ ：rem 133
430 PRINT：INPUT＂DISPLAY：FROM＂；F：PRINT，＂TO＂；：INPUTT440 IFF＜SORF＞EORT＜SORT＞ETHENPRINT＂AT LEAST＂；S；＂\｛LEFT\}, NOT MORE THAN";E:GOTO4 $\overline{3} \emptyset \quad$ ：rem 159
$45 \varnothing$ FORI＝FTOTSTEP6：PRINT：PRINTRIGHT\＄（＂øøøø＂＋MID\＄（STRS（I），2），5）；＂：＂；：rem 30
451 FORK＝øTO5：N＝PEEK（I＋K）：PRINTRIGHT\＄（＂ØØ＂＋MID\＄（ST $\mathrm{R}(\mathrm{N}), 2), 3): ", " ; \quad$ ：rem 66
$46 \varnothing$ GETAS：IFAS＞＂＂THENPRINT：PRINT：GOTO31ø ：rem 25
$47 \varnothing$ NEXTK：PRINTCHR\＄（2ø）；：NEXTI：PRINT：PRINT：GOTO31Ø：rem 50
$48 \varnothing$ IFN $<\varnothing$ THEN PRINT：GOTO31 $\varnothing$ ：rem 168
49ø A（J）＝N：NEXTJ ..... ：rem 199
5øø CKSUM＝AD－INT（AD／256）＊256：FORI＝1TO6：CKSUM＝（CKSUM＋A（ I ）AND255 ：NEXT：rem $2 \varnothing \varnothing$
510 PRINTCHRS（18）；：GOSUB570：PRINTCHR\＄（146） ：rem 94
511 IFN $=-1$ THENA＝6：GOTO315 ：rem 254
515 PRINTCHRS（20）：IFN＝CKSUMTHEN530 ：rem 122
$52 \varnothing$ PRINT：PRINT＂LINE ENTERED WRONG ：RE－ENTER＂：PRI NT：GOSUBI $\varnothing \varnothing \varnothing: G O T O \overline{3} 1 \varnothing$ ：rem 176
$53 \varnothing$ GOSUB2øøø ..... ：rem 218
540 FORI＝1TO6：POKEAD＋I－1，A（I）：NEXT：POKE54272， $0:$ POK E54273， 0 ：rem 227
$55 \emptyset \mathrm{AD}=\mathrm{AD}+6: \mathrm{IF} \mathrm{AD}<E$ THEN $31 \varnothing$ ：rem 212
560 GOTO $71 \varnothing$ ..... ：rem 108
$57 \emptyset \mathrm{~N}=\varnothing: \mathrm{Z}=\varnothing$ ..... ：rem 88
$58 \emptyset$ PRINT＂飞£き＂； ..... ：rem 81
581 GETAS：IFAS＝＂＂THEN581 ..... ：rem 95

5* (AS="K")-6* (AS="L") :rem 41

"THENAS=" ${ }^{\prime \prime}$ " $\quad$ :rem 134
584 IFAV>ØTHENAS=CHR\$ (48+AV) :rem 134
585 PRINTCHR\$ (20);:A=ASC(A\$):IFA=130RA=440RA=32THE
N670 :rem 229
590 IFA> 128 THENN=-A:RETURN :rem 137
600 IFA<>20 THEN 630 :rem 10
610 GOSUB690:IFI=1ANDT=44THENN=-1:PRINT"\{OFF\}
\{LEFT\} \{LEFT\}";:GOTO690 :rem 62
620 GOTO570 $\quad$ :rem 109
630 IFA<48ORA>57THEN580 :rem 105
$64 \emptyset$ PRINTA\$; :N=N* $1 \varnothing+A-48 \quad$ :rem 106
650 IFN>255 THEN A=20:GOSUB1ØØØ:GOTO6ØØ :rem 229
$660 \mathrm{Z}=\mathrm{Z}+1$ : IFZ<3THEN580 :rem 71
670 IFZ=ØTHENGOSUB1ØØØ:GOTO570 : rem 114
680 PRINT","; :RETURN $\quad$ :rem 240
690 S\% $=\operatorname{PEEK}(209)+256 * \operatorname{PEEK}(210)+\operatorname{PEEK}(211)$ :rem 149
691 FORI=1TO3:T=PEEK (S\%-I) : rem 67
695 IFT<>44ANDT<>58THENPOKES\%-I,32:NEXT :rem 205
$70 \emptyset$ PRINTLEFT\$("\{3 LEFT\}",I-1);:RETURN :rem 7
$71 \varnothing$ PRINT" 1 CLR\} \{RVS\}*** SAVE ***\{3 DOWN \}" :rem 236
715 PRINT"\{2 DOWN\} (PRESS ${ }^{-}$\{RVS\} RETURN\{OFF\} ALONE TO
CANCEL SAVE) \{DOWN\}" :rem 106
$720 \mathrm{~F} \$=\mathrm{C"}:$ INPUT" $\{\mathrm{DOWN}\}$ FILENAME"; FS:IFFS=""THENPRI
NT: PRINT: GOTO 310
: rem 71
$73 \emptyset$ PRINT:PRINT" 22 DOWN\}\{RVS\}T\{OFF\}APE OR \{RVS\}D
\{OFF\}ISK: (T/D)" $\quad$ :rem $\overline{2} 28$
740 GETAS: IFAS<>"T"ANDAS<>"D"THEN740 : rem 36
$750 \mathrm{DV}=1-7 *(A \$=" \mathrm{D} "):$ IFDV=8THENF $\$=" \varnothing: "+F \$:$ OPEN15,8,
15, "S"+F\$:CLOSE15 $\quad$ :rem 212
760 T\$=F\$:ZK=PEEK (53) +256*PEEK (54) -LEN (T\$) : POKE782
, ZK/256
: rem 3
762 POKE781, ZK-PEEK (782)*256:POKE780, LEN (TS ) : SYS65
469 :rem 109
763 POKE780, $1:$ POKE781,DDV:POKE782, Ø:SYS65466: rem 68
$765 \mathrm{~K}=\mathrm{S}$ : POKE 254 , K/256: POKE253, K-PEEK (254)*256: POKE
780, 253 :rem 17
$766 \mathrm{~K}=\mathrm{E}+1$ : POKE782,K/256:POKE781,K-PEEK (782)*256:SY
S65496 :rem 235
770 IF (PEEK (783) AND1) OR (191ANDST) THEN78Ø : rem 111
775 PRINT" \{DOWN\} DONE . \{DOWN\}":GOTO310 : rem 113
$78 \emptyset$ PRINT"\{DOWN\}ERRROR ON SAVE. $\{2$ SPACES \}TRY AGAIN.
": IFDV=1THEN72 $\quad$ - :rem 171
781 OPEN15,8,15:INPUT\#15,E1\$,E2\$:PRINTE1\$; E2\$:CLOS E15: GOTO720 :rem 103
$79 \varnothing$ PRINT" $\{C L R\}\{R V S\} * * *$ LOAD ***\{2 DOWN\}" :rem 212
795 PRINT"\{2 DOWN\}(PRESS \{RVS\}RETURN\{OFF\} ALONE TO CANCEL LOAD)" - :rem 82

RINT:GOTO31ø $\quad$ :rem 144
$81 \varnothing$ PRINT:PRINT"\{2 DOWN\}\{RVS\}T\{OFF\}APE OR \{RVS\}D
\{OFF\}ISK: (T/D)" :rem $\overline{2} 27$
82ø GETAS:IFAS<>"T"ANDAS<>"D"THEN82の :rem 34
$83 \varnothing$ DV=1-7*(AS="D"):IFDV=8THENFS="Ø:"+FS :rem 157
$84 \varnothing$ T $\$=\mathrm{FS}: \mathrm{ZK}=\operatorname{PEEK}(53)+256 * \operatorname{PEEK}(54)-\operatorname{LEN}(\mathrm{T} \$): \operatorname{POKE} 782$
, ZK/256
: rem 2
841 POKE781,ZK-PEEK(782)*256:POKE78Ø,LEN(T\$):SYS65
469
:rem 107
845 POKE78ø,1:POKE781,DV:POKE782,1:SYS65466:rem 7ø
850 POKE78Ø, Ø:SYS65493 :rem 11
860 IF(PEEK(783)ANDI)OR(191ANDST)THEN87ø :rem 111
865 PRINT"\{DOWN\}DONE.":GOTO31ø :rem 96
$87 \varnothing$ PRINT"\{DOWN\}ERROR ON LOAD.\{2 SPACES\}TRY AGAIN.
\{DOWN\}":IFDV=1THEN8øø
88ø OPEN15,8,15:INPUT\#15,E1\$,E2\$:PRINTE1\$;E2\$:CLOS
E15:GOTO8øø :rem 1ø2
1 1øøø REM BUZZER :rem 135
1øø1 POKE54296,15:POKE54277,45: POKE54278,165
:rem $2 \varnothing 7$
1 1øø2 POKE54276,33: POKE 54273,6:POKE54272,5 :rem 42
1øø3 FORT=1TO2øø:NEXT:POKE54276,32:POKE54273, $0:$ POK
E54272, $0:$ RETURN :rem $2 \varnothing 2$
$2 ø \varnothing \varnothing$ REM BELL SOUND :rem 78
$2 ø \varnothing 1$ POKE54296,15:POKE54277,ø:POKE54278,247
:rem 152
$2 ø \varnothing 2$ POKE 54276,17:POKE54273,40:POKE54272,ø:rem 86
2øø3 FORT=1TO1øø:NEXT:POKE54276,16:RETURN :rem 57
$3 \varnothing \varnothing \varnothing$ PRINTC§;"\{RVS\}NOT ZERO PAGE OR ROM":GOTOIøøø
:rem 89

# The Automatic Proofreader 

Charles Brannon
"The Automatic Proofreader" will help you type in program listings without typing mistakes. It is a short error-checking program that hides itself in memory. When activated, it lets you know immediately after typing a line from a program listing if you have made a mistake. Please read these instructions carefully before typing any programs in this book.

## Preparing the Proofreader

1. Using the listing below, type in the Proofreader. Be very careful when entering the DATA statements-don't type an $l$ instead of a 1 , an $O$ instead of a 0 , extra commas, etc.
2. Save the Proofreader on tape or disk at least twice before running it for the first time. This is very important because the Proofreader erases part of itself when you first type RUN.
3. After the Proofreader is saved, type RUN. It will check itself for typing errors in the DATA statements and warn you if there's a mistake. Correct any errors and save the corrected version. Keep a copy in a safe place-you'll need it again and again, every time you enter a program from this book, COMPUTE!'s Gazette, or COMPUTE! magazine.
4. When a correct version of the Proofreader is run, it activates itself. You are now ready to enter a program listing. If you press RUN/STOP-RESTORE, the Proofreader is disabled. To reactivate it, just type SYS 886 and press RETURN.

## Using the Proofreader

Many listings in this book have a checksum number appended to the end of each line, for example, :rem 123. Don't enter this statement when typing in a program. It is just for your information. The rem makes the number harmless if someone does type it in. It will, however, use up memory if you enter it, and it will confuse the Proofreader, even if you entered the rest of the line correctly.

When you type in a line from a program listing and press RETURN, the Proofreader displays a number at the top of your screen. This checksum number must match the checksum
number in the printed listing. If it doesn't, it means you typed the line differently from the way it is listed. Immediately recheck your typing. Remember, don't type the rem statement with the checksum number; it is published only so that you can check it against the number which appears on your screen.

The Proofreader is not picky about spaces. It will not notice extra spaces or missing ones. This is for your convenience, since spacing is generally not important. But occasionally proper spacing is important, so be extra careful with spaces.

Due to the nature of a checksum, the Proofreader will not catch all errors. Since $1+3+5=3+1+5$, the Proofreader cannot catch errors of transposition. Thus, the Proofreader will not notice if you type GOTO 385 where you mean GOTO 835. In fact, you could type in the line in any order and the Proofreader wouldn't notice. The Proofreader should help you catch most typing mistakes, but keep this in mind if a program that checks out with the Proofreader still seems to have errors.

There's another thing to watch out for: If you enter the line by using abbreviations for commands, the checksum will not match up. But there is a way to make the Proofreader check it. After entering the line, list it. This eliminates the abbreviations. Then move the cursor up to the line and press RETURN. It should now match the checksum. You can check whole groups of lines this way.

## Special Tape SAVE Instructions

When you're through typing in a listing, you must disable the Proofreader before saving the program on tape. Disable the Proofreader by pressing RUN/STOP-RESTORE (hold down the RUN/STOP key and sharply hit the RESTORE key). This procedure is not necessary for disk SAVEs, but you must disable the Proofreader this way before a tape SAVE.

Saving to tape erases the Proofreader from memory, so you'll have to load and run it again if you want to type another listing. Saving to disk does not erase the Proofreader.

## Hidden Perils

The Proofreader's home in memory is not a very safe haven.
Since the cassette buffer is wiped out during tape operations,
you need to disable the Proofreader with RUN/STOPRESTORE before you save your program. This applies only to tape use. Disk users have nothing to worry about.

Not so for 64 owners with tape drives. What if you type in a program in several sittings? The next day, you come to your computer, load and run the Proofreader, then try to load the partially completed program so you can add to it. But since the Proofreader is trying to hide in the cassette buffer, it is wiped out!

What you need is a way to load the Proofreader after you've loaded the partial program. The problem is, a tape LOAD to the buffer destroys what it's supposed to load.

If you intend to type in a program in more than one sitting or wish to make a safety SAVE, follow this procedure:

1. Load and run the Proofreader.
2. Disable it by pressing RUN/STOP-RESTORE.
3. Type the following three lines in direct mode (without line numbers):
A $\$=$ "PROOFREADER.T": B $\$="\{1 \emptyset$ SPACES $\}$ ": FORX=1TO4:A $=A$ \$+B\$:NEXTX

FORX=886TOIø18:A\$=A\$+CHR\$ (PEEK(X)) :NEXTX
OPEN1,1,1,AS:CLOSE1
After you enter the last line, you will be asked to press RECORD and PLAY on your cassette recorder. Put this program at the beginning of a new tape.

You now have a new version of the Proofreader. Turn your computer off and on, then load the program you were working on. Put the cassette containing the Proofreader into the tape unit and type:

## OPEN1:CLOSE1

You can now start the Proofreader by typing SYS 886. To test this, entering PRINT PEEK (886) should return the number 173. If it does not, repeat the steps above, making sure that A\$ ("PROOFREADER.T") contains 13 characters and that B\$ contains 10 spaces.

You can now reload the Proofreader into memory whenever the LOAD or SAVE command destroys it, restoring your personal typing helper.

## The Automatic Proofreader

```
1ØØ PRINT"{CLR}PLEASE WAIT...":FORI=886TO1Øl8:READ
    A:CK=CK+A:POKEI,A:NEXT
11Ø IF CK<>17539 THEN PRINT"{DOWN}YOU MADE AN ERRO
    R":PRINT"IN DATA STATEMENTS.":END
120 SYS886:PRINT"{CLR}{2 DOWN}PROOFREADER ACTIVATE
    D.":NEW
886 DATA 173,036,003,201,150,2ø8
892 DATA Ø01,096,141,151,003,173
898 DATA ø37,øø3,141,152,003,169
904 DATA 150,141,ø36,øø3,169,øø3
910 DATA 141,ø37,øø3,169,øø0,133
916 DATA 254,096,032,087,241,133
922 DATA 251,134,252,132,253,øø8
928 DATA 2Ø1,013,240,017,201,032
934 DATA 240,005,024,101,254,133
940 DATA 254,165,251,166,252,164
946 DATA 253,040,096,169,013,032
952 DATA 210,255,165,214,141,251
958 DATA Ø\emptyset3,2Ø6,251,øø3,169,øøø
964 DATA 133,216,169,019,032,210
970 DATA 255,169,018,032,210,255
976 DATA 169,058,032,210,255,166
982 DATA 254,169,øøø,133,254,172
988 DATA 151,Ø03,192,Ø87,2Ø8,ØØ6
994 DATA Ø32,205,189,076,235,003
1Ø\emptyset\emptyset DATA Ø32,2Ø5,221,169,ø32,ø32
10ø6 DATA 210,255,032,210,255,173
1012 DATA 251,ø03,133,214,076,173
1018 DATA Ø03
```


# Program Merge Utility 

Craig Chamberlain

Being able to easily merge two or more programs together can be extremely useful. In Part 3 of this book, for example, there are a series of programs that must be merged with "SID.BAS." The directions told you to load SID.BAS before you began entering each of the programs. When you finished entering the program lines, SID.BAS would be appended to the end-you could then save the entire program. But what if you forgot to load SID.BAS and entered all the lines? Without a merge program you might have to retype the entire program.

That's why we've included a simple merge utility. It's easy to use and can merge two or more programs together. Notice that this is a true merge, not an append. This means that if one program contains lines numbered $1,2,3,7,8,10$, and a second contains lines $3,4,5,6,9,11$, the merged program will have lines 1 through 11. Since both original programs have a line 3 you must be careful which program is loaded first. The last line 3 entered will be the one which appears in the merged program. (Please note that this merge program will not work if the bitmapped graphics extensions to BASIC are resident in memory.)

## Using the Merge

Enter Program E-1, and save it before running. Use "The Automatic Proofreader," from Appendix D, to insure that it's entered correctly. When you run Program E-1, the following options will be displayed on the screen:

## F1 CLEAR BUFFER <br> F3 START ADDING TO BUFFER <br> F5 STOP ADDING TO BUFFER F7 DUMP BUFFER (MERGE)

Once you see this menu, you're ready to merge. Wait for the READY. prompt, then load the first file from disk or tape. Once it's loaded, press f3 and the border of the screen turns black. List the program, then press the $f 5 \mathrm{key}$. Now load the file you wish to merge with the first. Once that's loaded, press f7; the two programs are now merged. Save the new program. It's possible to merge more than two files together simply by
repeating the procedure. You must press f 3 before and f 5 after listing each program (except the last program to be merged, where only f 7 is necessary).
(Note: Once you press the f 3 key , you should press only the keys necessary to list the program to the screen. Do not press the CTRL key to slow down the listing or any other key. Also, once you press the $f 7$ key to merge the programs, do not touch the keyboard while the screen scrolls.)

To see how easy the merge is to use, we've provided three short programs that when merged together offer a short demonstration. Individually, they will do nothing-only after you've merged them will they work. Enter and save programs E-2, E-3, and E-4. If you're using tape, save each program in order on the same tape.

To merge the programs, load and run Program E-1. Then follow these steps:

1. Load Program E-2
2. Press f3
3. List the program
4. Press $f 5$
5. Load Program E-3
6. Press f3
7. List the program
8. Press $f 5$
9. Load Program E-4
10. Press $f 7$
11. Press RUN/STOP-RESTORE
12. Run the program

If the program runs correctly, you can save it just as you would any other program. You must press RUN/STOP-
RESTORE to disable the merge before running any program.
If you wish to do several merges, simply skip steps 11 and 12 above and save your merged program. Then press $f 1$ to clear the buffer. Now you can begin the process over again.

Program E-1. Merge Utility
For error-free program entry, be sure to use "The Automatic Proofreader," Appendix D.

```
1ø\emptyset PRINT CHR$(147):PRINT " DANDY PROGRAM MERGING
    {SPACE}UTILITY":REM Vl.ø :rem 223
11\varnothing PRINT " BY CRAIG CHAMBERLAIN":PRINT :rem 65
3ø\varnothing PRINT " Fl CLEAR BUFFER":PRINT " F3 START ADDI
    NG TO BUFFER" :rem 18
```

310 PRINT " F5 STOP ADDING TO BUFFER":PRINT " F7 D UMP BUFFER (MERGE)":PRINT : rem 42
320 PRINT " RUN/STOP RESTORE TO REMOVE UTILITY":PR INT
: rem 96
330 BP=208:EP=255:PRINT " PLEASE WAIT...":PRINT : rem 242
5ØØ FOR K=679 TO 7ø7:READ P:POKE K,P:NEXT:FOR K=82 8 TO 998:READ P:POKE K, P:NEXT : rem 33
51Ø POKE 65530,134:POKE 65531,234:POKE 252,BP:SYS \{SPACE\} 679
: rem 93
520 FOR K=679 TO 761:READ P:POKE K,P:NEXT:POKE 690 , BP: POKE 718, BP: POKE 749,BP :rem 148
530 POKE 733, PEEK (8Ø6): POKE $734, \operatorname{PEEK}(807)$ : POKE 754 , PEEK (788): POKE 755, PEEK (789) : rem 146
540 POKE 758, BP+1:POKE 759, EP: POKE 56334, PEEK (5633 4 ) AND 254 : rem 216
550 POKE 655,167:POKE 656, 2:POKE 788, 223:POKE 789, 2:POKE 56334, PEEK (56334)ORI :rem 196
560 POKE 252, BP+1:POKE 254, BP+1:NEW :rem 191
$80 \emptyset$ DATA $165,1,72,41,252,120,133,1,160,0,132,251,1$ $32,253,185,60,3,145,251 \quad: r e m 231$
801 DATA 200,192,171,208,246,104,133,1,88,96
: rem 120
810 DATA $165,203,201,5,240,26,201,6,240,88,201,3,2$ $40,46,201,4,208,13,169,0,133 \quad:$ rem 219
811 DATA $251,133,253,173,246,2,133,252,133,254,96$, $169,2,205,39,3,240,20,162,2 \quad: r e m 198$
812 DATA $189,37,3,157,220,2,189,243,2,157,37,3,2 \emptyset 2$ $, 208,241,142,249,2,96,165,251 \quad: r e m 62$
813 DATA $197,253,208,6,165,252,197,254,240,43,238$, $248,2,208,21,152,160,0,145 \quad:$ rem $17 \emptyset$
814 DATA $253,230,253,208,29,230,254,165,254,205,24$ $7,2,208,20,169,2,44,169,14 \quad:$ rem 165
815 DATA $141,249,2,173,221,2,141,38,3,173,222,2,14$ $1,39,3,96,166,198,236,137,2 \quad: r e m 211$
816 DATA $176,47,160,0,177,251,157,119,2,232,230,25$ 1. 208, 2, 230, 252, 165, 251, 197 :rem 213

817 UATA $253,208,20,165,252,197,254,208,14,169,0,1$ $41,248,2,133,251,173,246,2 \quad: r e m 166$
818 DATA $133,252,208,5,236,137,2,208,213,134,198,9$ 6 : rem 223
820 DATA $8,165,1,72,41,252,120,133,1,32,0,192,104$, $133,1,40,173,249,2,141,32,208$
:rem 1ø
821 DATA $76,72,235,72,132,2,168,165,1,72,41,252,12$ $0,133,1,32,77,192,104,133,1 \quad$ : rem 192
822 DATA $88,173,249,2,141,32,208,164,2,104,76,202$, $241,173,248,2,240,13,165,1 \quad$ :rem 151
823 DATA $72,41,252,133,1,32,116,192,104,133,1,76,4$ $9,234,192,2,208,255,0,14$
: rem 44
Program E-2. Merge Demo 1
$1 \varnothing$ REM MERGE DEMO ONE
30 PRINT "\{CLR\}YOU MUST MERGE THIS PROGRAM WITH MERGE\{2 SPACES\}DEMO TWO FOR IT TO WORK"
50 GOSUB 2øØ:GOTO ..... 70
$7 \emptyset$ REM THIS LINE WILL BE DELETED BY MERGE DEMO TWO210 PRINT CHR\$(147)$23 \varnothing$ PRINT TAB(X) "THE MERGE WORKS!"
Program E-3. Merge Demo 2
$2 \emptyset$ REM MERGE DEMO TWO
$4 \varnothing$ PRINT "\{CLR\}YOU MUST MERGE THIS PROGRAM WITH MERGE\{2 SPACES\}DEMO ONE FOR IT TO WORK"
$6 \emptyset$ PRINT "THE MERGE WORKED!"
$7 \emptyset$ REM REPLACE LINE ..... $7 \varnothing$
$8 \emptyset$ PRINT "K7ヨ":END
$2 ø \emptyset$ REM SUBROUTINE
220 FOR X= 1 TO 2.
240 PRINT "\{YEL\}";:IF X/2=INT(X/2) THEN PRINT"\{BLK\}":
Program E-4. Merge Demo 3
$1 \varnothing$ REM THE MERGE IS COMPLETE
20 REM
30 REM
$4 \varnothing$ REM
250 NEXT X
260 RETURN

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