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THE CONDUCTOR PROGRAM AND MECHANICAL BATON

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Principals of Operation of the Conductor Program

The conductor program is intended to be used for the performance of music on a digital synthesizer attached to a small computer. Normally synthesizers are played with keyboards. With the conductor program, a keyboard is not used. Instead the performer conducts with a mechanical baton called a daton. The score of the music is in the memory of the computer. The program can be viewed either as a sophisticated sequencer or as an intelligent musical instrument.

The program simulates a number of the functions of an orchestra following the baton of a conductor. The performer sets the tempo by beating time on the daton. He can change the tempo from instant-to-instant and the computer will follow his tempi closely. The performer can also control other interpretable qualities of the music such as the loudness and the balance of the various voices. Control is exercised by where he hits the daton or how he moves a joy stick which is also available to him.

The score in the computer memory contains the pitches and durations of the notes to be played. Consequently the performer does not have to select the pitch of any note by a physical gesture. Elimination of pitch selection eliminates one of the traditional tasks of the performer, thus making part of his job easier. In much music, the performer has no interpretive choice about pitch in the sense that if he changes a pitch from that written by the composer it is considered to be a performer error. Since the performer has no real choice about pitch and since pitch selection can be a very demanding task, it seemed ideal to give this task to the computer. By contrast, duration and loudness are subject to much more performer interpretation and these tasks are left under his direct control in the conductor program.

Hardware

A diagram of the equipment on which the conductor program operates is shown on figure 1. The central device is a small computer of the IBM PC type, specifically an AT&T 6300 which uses an Intel 8086 processor. However, the program can easily be adapted to most IBM clones. The not completely standard feature required by the program is a millisecond clock which we have obtained by changing the speed of one of the existing computer clocks. The program can probably be converted to other popular personal computers such as are made by the Apple company. However, the IBM clones are particularly convenient since they have a backplane with slots into which special cards can be

inserted.

Two such special card are used by the conductor program. Signals from the various sensors, the daton, the joy stick, and the knob are a-to-d converted and put into the computer memory space by a data translation card. Signals to the synthesizer are sent via a midi cable and a midi card, the Roland 401, generates these signals. Although the midi card can be used to either send or receive signals from the synthesizer, in this program it is only used to transmit to the synthesizer.

The synthesizer currently used is a Yamaha 816, but as almost all current synthesizers can be controlled with midi, almost any could be used without change in the program.

The data translation card is a 2801B (Data Translation company). It can be used in a number of modes, but the program connects to one of the dma input channels of the computer. The 16 analogue inputs going to the card are sampled sequentially at a 16KHz rate and each sample is stored in a location in the computer memory space. Thus each analogue input is sampled once per millisecond. The a-to-d converter has an accuracy of 12 bits. Once started, the data input process proceeds without further action by the computer central processor. The conductor program can use the current value of any input simply by reading an appropriate memory location.

Of the three input devices, the daton is the most novel. It consists of a light rigid plate about 14 inches square and an inch thick. In order to be both light and rigid, it is made as a laminate with fiberglass reinforced plastic on upper and lower surfaces and a core of honeycomb paper material. This type of construction is often used in airplanes.

The plate is supported at its four corners by four strain gauges. Each time the plate is struck, four electric pulses are generated by the gauges. Circuitry to analyze the peak value of these pulses computes both where and how hard the plate was hit. For example, the strength of a hit is the sum of the four pulses. The y position of the stroke is the sum of the pulses at corner 2 and 3 (see figure 1) divided by the sum of all four.

The accuracy of the daton is about 5% of the full range in any dimension. This accuracy is sufficient for most conducting purposes. The time constants of the plate are such that it takes about 5ms to make a reading and perhaps 15ms more to stabilize before a subsequent stroke occurs. The plate should be hit with a relatively soft drumstick in order to work properly.

The daton only sends information to the computer at the instant that it is struck. Such "percussive" information is appropriate for controlling time and for controlling the parameters of percussive timbres, for example for the loudness of a piano-like timbre. However, it is not sufficient to control continuous factors such as the variation of the loudness or vibrato in a violin-like tone within a single note. For this purpose, a joy

stick, which can send continuous information to the computer has been built. The joy stick is a simple mechanical linkage which connects two potentiometers to the joy stick so that the voltage from the potentiometers are proportional to the x and y position of the stick. The human engineering of the stick has been given some consideration. It is about 10 inches long so as to move a amount that is appropriate for human arm motion. The friction and the stiction of the motion is carefully controlled by adjustable teflon bearings so that it is easy to move the stick but in addition so that the stick will stay in position if it is released.

Finally, a set of knobs send ten signals to the computer. These are used to set parameters in the computer program and to individually control the loudness in the synthesizer channels.

Software Design

The software is developed from a control philosophy proposed by Miller Puckette (Puckette 1983). RTLET is based on passing messages, or letters, between processes. RTLET consists of two logically distinct sections: the letter delivery section and the control processes. The letter delivery system passes the letters to the control processes which perform some service. The routine that controls passing of letters is the post office. The actual delivery of the letters is performed by the postman. Control processes are logically distinct from the post office because letter delivery is a simple message passing system and application independent. The post office could work well with a variety of real-time control applications.

The operation of the post office may be seen in figure 2. A letter is delivered to the post office by some control process. An initial letter, delivered by the initialization routine, starts the process. The posted letter is placed in the letter bin in order sorted by the delivery time stamped on the letter. The postman reads the destination and delivery-time of the top letter in the bin. When real-time equals delivery-time it sends the letter to the control process, and transfers control to the control process. The control process runs to completion and returns control to the postman. The postman reads the delivery time of the next letter in the bin and waits for that delivery time. Delivery-times are specified in beats, an arbitrary unit whose time may be adjusted to vary the tempo of the musical piece. One of the timers in the computer is used as a real-time clock. An interrupt handler keeps a variable, *t_time*, equal to the current time value in milliseconds. Various tempo algorithms are used to relate *t_time* and beats. Control processes may send letters to other control processes or to themselves to continuously cycle the delivery process.

Control processes are written specifically to play music. A control process reads the notes from an intermediate score. The intermediate score is compiled from an alphanumeric score which can be prepared on any word processor. The score gives the

pitches and durations in beats of each note to be played and in addition it gives the times in beats between all baton strokes.

The intermediate score consist of a list of operation codes each followed by information appropriate to that particular code. The main operation codes are listed in figure 3.

Before starting to play, the intermediate score is loaded into array, score[], that is read and parsed by the control process. Playing a note is accomplished as shown in figure 4. A pointer into score[] is maintained by control process CP1. CP1 reads the operation code and, based on the type of operation, the control process performs the operation. In the case that the operation code is PLAYN, five pieces of information are then read from the score array. The first is the midi channel to play on. The midi standard allows up to 16 devices to be addressed on the bus at any given time. The second item needed is whether or not the note is part of a chord. This is used to bypass the timing aspects of RTLET when certain notes should happen simultaneously. The control process keeps reading from the score array and playing the notes until all notes of a chord are played. The third item is the duration of the note, specified in terms of a legato factor. This factor allows a certain amount of control over whether a note is played staccato or legato. This variable can have three values: one corresponds to staccato, in which the note is played for 50ms, another corresponds to normal, in which the note is on until the start of the next note, and the final is for legato, in which the note is on 50ms past the start of the next note. The manner of note playing can also be written out in the score by separating the note into a shorter note followed by a rest. The fourth piece of information is the key number of the note to be played, which determines the frequency. The midi standard allows for 128 possible pitch values with middle C as value 60. The final item is the delay, in beats, before the next note starts.

The final thing that CP1 does before returning to the postman is to send a letter to itself with a delivery time equal to the current beat plus the delay. This assures that the process will continue. When a termination opcode is encountered, the final letter is not sent, and post office terminates.

Other opcodes are used to control the execution and flow of the interpreter. For instance, multitrack sequencing may be done in RTLET using the START opcode. The START opcode forces two letters to be sent from CP1. The first letter is the letter that is required to make CP1 continue to interpret the score array for the track containing the START opcode. The second letter starts CP1 again, but at a different location in the score file, thus starting a second track.

Multitrack sequencing is essential in RTLET. Consider the excerpt of the Kreutzer Sonata on figure 5. The beginning of the sixth measure contains 2 quarter notes, 2 dotted quarter notes, and a half note, all starting simultaneously. RTLET cannot play these as a chord in one track, since all notes in a chord must both

begin and end together. The solution, as given in figure 6, is to split the piano part into three tracks, V3, V4, and V5. There is no limit to the number of tracks in RTLET.

Control Processes as Concurrent, Re-entrant, Pure Procedures

Although control processes can be written in a variety of ways, it is often useful to write them as pure procedures. The opcode interpreter procedure CP1 which we have described is such a procedure. The score[] array which is read by CP1, and which contains a description of the music to be played, can be looked upon as a program which is interpreted by CP1. Each time CP1 is activated by the postman, another opcode in score[] is interpreted and executed.

Only one copy of CP1 exists, even though from the user's standpoint as many "copies" of CP1 as desired may be "simultaneously" playing notes. At any given moment in real-time, the pseudo-copies of CP1 can be executing opcodes at the same or different places in score[]. Commands exist for starting new copies and for terminating copies. Opcodes also exist for both absolute and conditional jumps of the CP1 execution to other locations in score[].

In order to be useful, pure procedures must be able to store local variables somewhere while they are not being used. In languages such as C, local variables are pushed onto a single stack. Such storage requires that the procedures be called and return in a hierarchical order and does not work with the RTLET control processes which can be called in very arbitrary orders the postman according to the delivery times on letters.

The solution to the storage problem used in RTLET is to pass local variables to a procedure via the letter that activates the procedure. The principal use of a local variable in CP1 is to store the location in score[] of the next opcode to be interpreted. Obviously, other local variables can be handled in the same way. For example, if one wanted to set up a loop in score[] and to execute a block of opcodes n times, the counter for the loop could be set up as a local variable.

Another application of local variables is in passing channel dependent information along. For instance, if a user wants to play 2 tracks simultaneously at different intensities, the simplest way to handle this is to set the intensities of each track and pass this information as part of the letter. Each channel is set differently, so each is propagated at a different value.

Although we have not attempted to do so, we believe the letter principal would be a good way to handle local variables in a general purpose real-time compiler.

Servicing of Real-Time Devices

In addition to sending letters to control processes, the postma services any real-time devices that are being used. At present these consist of the daton, the joy stick, the knobs, the computer keyboard, and the synthesizer. Servicing is done by a wait loop in postm(). The wait loop also looks at the milliseco clock (t_time) and updates the current beat as appropriate.

All waiting in RTLET is done in the postm() wait loop and all other procedures return to this loop as rapidly as possible. N real time devices may be added to the program by rewriting the loop and thus can be guaranteed equal priority in service.

The input devices all put signals into a 16 variable array via the dma input; each millisecond new samples are read into the array. The wait loop examines this array and acts accordingly. For example, for the drum, when the total force signal exceeds threshold, the program watches the other drum signals, waits until they have reached their peak values, computes x and y, and sets flag indicating that the drum has been hit. Signals from the joy stick are usually transmitted to the mod wheel and footpedal controls of the synthesizer. The wait loop watches the joy sti signals and sends appropriate midi signals to the synthesizer only when the joy stick has been moved.

Postm() also reads t_time when a drum stroke occurs and compute the implied tempo, btim, as the time difference between the current stroke and the previous stroke divided by the number of beats written into the score between the strokes. Actually bti is the inverse tempo and is the number of milliseconds per beat

In addition to tempo, some special cases in time control must be treated. The expected beat for the next daton stroke is written in score[] (for example as V6 on figure 6) and the notes played depend on whether the computer arrives at the next expected bat beat before or after the daton has been hit. If the computer arrives at the beat first, the program halts execution and wait until the daton has been hit before playing the next note. If the daton stroke occurs before the computer halts, the computer jumps immediately to the note in the score which immediately follows the baton stroke; intervening notes are not played.

This algorithm, which involves stopping and skipping notes in the score, is not the only way that tempo can be regulated. It causes the computer to follow the conductor very closely, and is preferred by most conductors who tried the program. However, it also demands that the conductor beat very evenly in sections in which he wishes to maintain a constant tempo. One can design other algorithms which smooth the tempo variations produced by the daton.

A Simple Example of a Conductor Program Score

The use of the conductor program is best understood by discussing a simple example. Figure 5 shows a short score written in the appropriate form to be put into the conductor program. The score

is entirely alphanumeric and can be written with any word processor. The equivalent score in normal musical notation is also shown.

The first two lines of the score set the key signature to two sharps and set some other initial parameters in the program which we will not discuss.

The next two lines of the score tell the computer that there will be two voices in the score, the first being the baton and the second being an instrumental voice. For example, the line "v2 h0 t3" says that the second voice will be played in the 6th octave on synthesizer channel 0 with timbre number 3.

The fifth and sixth lines of the score specify the baton stroke and the notes to be played. The baton has a line in the score like any other voice in which a slash, "/", indicates where baton strokes are to be made. In line 6, the pitches of the notes are written simply as the letter names of the notes AB...GAB...g over a two octave range where capital letters are used for the lower octave. The actual octave in which the notes are played is also determined by the octave constant o6, which can be changed at a time. The letter r indicates a rest.

Durations in the score are written as dots. In this case the value of a dot is arbitrarily chosen to be an eighth note. Thus the first note, is written d.. and is a quarter note. The note DFad cause a chord to be played because there are no dots between the letters.

Baton strokes, indicated in the fifth line are also separated with dots to locate their position in the score. A stroke can serve several musical purposes. It can start a note or start a group of notes or start a chord or start a rest which is equivalent to stopping a note. Computationally, each baton stroke after the first stroke sets the tempo which will be used until the next stroke. The tempo computation is shown on figure 5 and has already been discussed. The tempo can be changed at each stroke, thus the conductor can accelerate or retard the music. The time of the strokes are measured to an accuracy of 1 millisecond by clock in the computer. This accuracy is more than sufficient for human gestures.

We will now discuss playing the score stroke-by-stroke. The first stroke is an upbeat which produces no sound (it plays a rest) and together with the second stroke, sets the initial tempo.

The second and third strokes play the first two d's in the score. These are legato and each note lasts until the next note starts.

The next stroke starts a staccato d which lasts only half of its quarter note duration. The next stroke starts an f with a fermata which will sustain till it is cutoff by the following stroke.

The next two strokes begin and end on a which is moved up an octave by the accidental mark, " ^ ". The second of these strokes starts the playing of three eighth notes ^a.g.e. whose tempo is determined by the time between the two strokes.

The next three strokes play three more eighth notes e.d.d. whose are individually determined by the times of these strokes.

The next to last stroke starts a chord, DFad, which continues till it is cutoff by the final stroke.

This score illustrates most of the basic functions of the baton. The function of a particular stroke is determined by where it appears in the score in relation to the notes in the playing voices. Depending on its position, the stroke can start a note or stop a note or start a group of notes. As far as the computer program is concerned, all strokes are treated in the same way. Each stroke specifies a tempo and starts the computer playing a group of notes at the specified tempo. It may be musically useful in many cases to have only one note in the group so that the stroke is a trigger for this individual note. But this is only a special case of the general baton function of tempo setting and triggering a group of notes.

The Kreutzer Sonata--a More Realistic Example

Figures 6 and 7 respectively show the traditional and the alphanumeric score for a short section from the beginning of Beethoven's Kreutzer sonata. Six tracks V1 through V6 are defined by lines 3 through 8 in this score. All of these tracks will be interpreted by CP1 "simultaneously" and in parallel. Tracks 1 and 2 are the violin part, tracks 3 through 5 the piano part, and track 6 the baton.

Track six is of particular significance because it is the baton track. Only baton strokes are present here. In the first block of tracks one through six, only the baton stroke is executed. The other tracks all have rests. This is equivalent to the conductor's upbeat. The time between the first and second baton strokes is used by RTLET to set the initial tempo of the piece. The first group of four dots (up to the next baton stroke) is played at this tempo. At the next baton stroke, the program recalculates the tempo.

The first played notes are in the second block of tracks one through six. The first track is the only one playing here. It starts with a chord, "AEc^a" which has a quarter note duration (four dots). The chord is legato and will continue until the next baton stroke starts the next chord.

At the end of the first measure, we have an example of a slight staccato chord. The score is:

1 ...bd...r.



```

2 r...
3 r...
4 r...
5 r...
6 .../... ./

```

The chord "bd" terminates to a rest before the baton stroke is written. A more staccato chord could be written by moving the rest to the left.

Another function of the baton can be to cutoff a fermata with a separate stroke. This is used in measure 4 where the final "c" plus the chord "AE" are allowed to continue as long as desired the performer according to the score:

```

1 d.... c.. r.. ....
2 AE.... .. r.. ....
3 r.... .. .. ....
4 r.... .. .. ....
5 r.... .. .. ....
6 /.... /.. /.. ....

```

Methods of Putting Scores into the Conductor Program

If the conductor program becomes popular, then there will be a need to put much music into a form which can be conducted. The alphanumeric score shown on figure 7 can be prepared with any word processor. Although this is an entirely practical way of working, faster and more accurate procedures can probably be developed.

As a masters thesis at MIT Ruth Shyu (Shyu 1988) developed a simple program for preparing scores in which the notes are displayed in a simplified common practice music notation drawn the computer on its terminal. The display provides a fast accurate way to proof read the music. The program was designed to minimize the number of keystrokes required to put in the music.

Leland Smith (Smith, 1977-1987) has developed an excellent program for high quality music printing in which the music is written into the computer on a standard ascii keyboard using a special language which he has invented. Parts of his program could be adapted to prepare scores for the conductor program. Smith's program also displays a good quality common practice music notation on the computer terminal and these displays are helpful for proofreading.

Another possibility is to "play in" the score on a midi keyboard. The midi interface on the computer can be used either for input or output so that no additional hardware would be needed to implement this option. The procedure would be to play in either some or all the voices of a score and then to edit the computer

record to add conducting marks, to correct mistakes, and to properly quantize the note durations. With midi, the pitches are automatically quantized by the keyboard, but durations are almost continuous variables. Hence, they would have to be fitted into some appropriate set of standard note lengths. Although making a useful and practical system to "play in" a score is undoubtedly more difficult than it appears to be, it can probably be done. It is an interesting question for research in programming and human engineering.

A final possibility would be a music scanner that would read printed music and automatically convert it to machine readable form. We believe this is a very difficult task and may be the last of the methods we have discussed to be usefully achieved.

Uses of the Conductor Program

Just as for any other new musical medium, the conductor program can be used by contemporary composers to perform new compositions (Rocco 1985, Radunskaya 1986, Boulanger 1987, Chafe 1988) especially written for this program. However, in addition to its use in new music, the program may have important uses playing traditional music. Two possibilities which seem promising and which may be economically important are accompaniment and active listening.

Accompaniment of soloists, which is often done with a piano, is both difficult and uninspiring for the accompanist. Very good reading and ensemble abilities are required from the pianist, but he seldom gets a big share of the glory for a good performance. Consequently, it is both difficult and expensive to obtain accompanists. An alternative is to put the accompaniment into the conductor program and to conduct the accompaniment with the data. Much less reading skill is required by the accompanist and he can focus his attention on ensemble. Also, certain soloists such as singers who have their hands free can accompany themselves. We have done demonstrations with a soprano (Maureen Chowning 1987) showing that this is indeed a promising method.

Active listening is a way of experiencing music which is made possible by the conducting program. Instead of listening to recorded music, the music appreciator would purchase a computer score and conduct his own interpretation of the piece. In addition to allowing an individual style of interpretation, the listener could take the piece apart to focus on individual voices or sections of the music in ways that are not possible with normal recordings and thus quickly gain a deeper understanding of the music. We believe this may become a very popular way of appreciating music.

Active listening could also lead to an entire new music industry--that of preparing scores for the conductor program.

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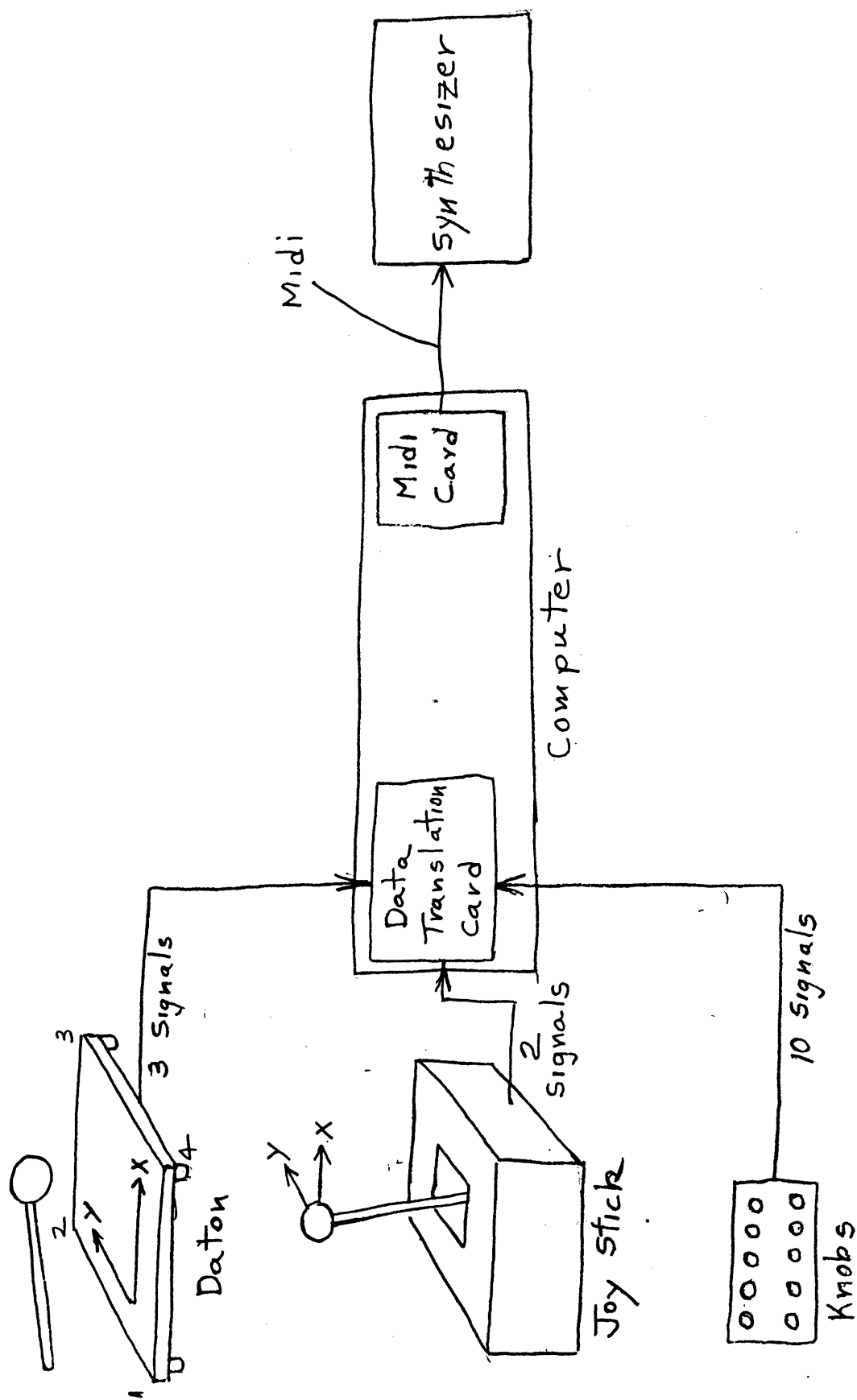
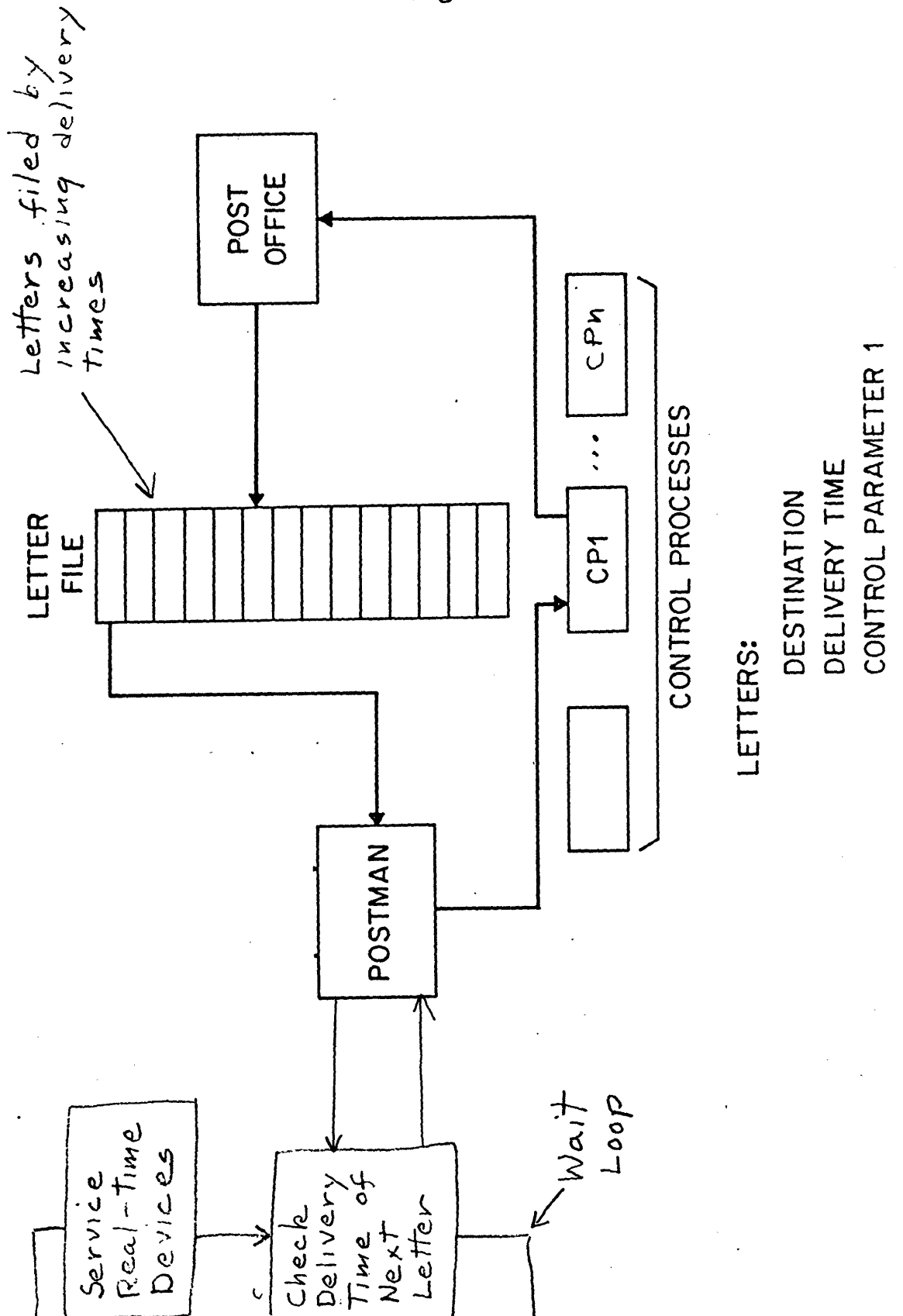


Fig 1 Diagram of Conductor Program Hardware

Figure 2



mnemonic

PLAY OPERATIONS

PLAYN: play a note with beat time

WAIT OPERATIONS:

WAITR: wait for x beats

MIDI DEVICE CONTROL:

TIMBRE: change timbre immediate

REAL TIME CONTROL:

BAT: baton stroke

TEST OPERATIONS:

COMPA: compare register and value
COMPR: compare two registers

BRANCHING INSTRUCTIONS:

JMP: unconditional branch
START: start parsing at location
(fork)
SUB: jump to sequence at location

REGISTER CONTROL:

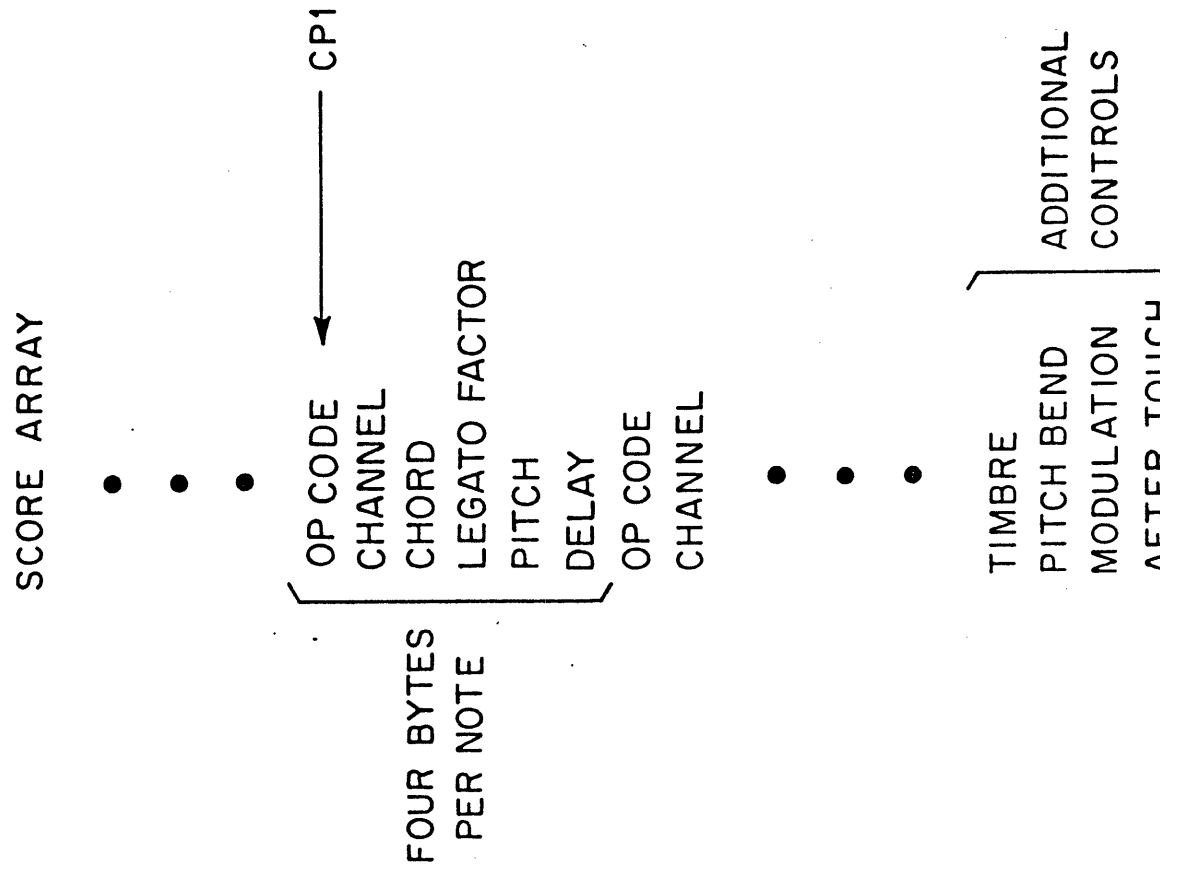
SETR: set register to a value
INCR: increment a register
DECR: decrement a register

TERMINATION CONTROL:

TERM: sequence termination
TERMA: master termination

Fig 3 RTLET Operation Codes

Figure 4



$$\bullet = \sqrt{\frac{t_2 - t_1}{3}}$$

SONATE

(komponiert 1803)

Op.
(Kreutzer)

Adagio sostenuto.

9.

Adagio sostenuto.

14.

17.

Presto.

Presto.

The musical score is written for a single melodic line and piano accompaniment. The key signature is G major (one sharp) and the time signature is 2/4. The tempo is marked 'Adagio sostenuto' for the first two systems and 'Presto' for the third system starting at measure 17. The score includes various dynamic markings such as *f*, *p*, *cresc.*, *sf*, *sfp*, *pp*, and *sfpp*. The notation includes slurs, ties, and articulation marks. The first system (measures 9-13) shows a melodic line with a crescendo and a piano accompaniment with a crescendo. The second system (measures 14-16) continues the melodic line with a crescendo and a piano accompaniment with a crescendo. The third system (measures 17-19) shows a tempo change to 'Presto' and a melodic line with a crescendo and a piano accompaniment with a crescendo.

Fig 6 Kreutzer Sonata in Normal
Music Notation

Figure 6

set vel 50 tempo 200
pla k3# l50

v1 o7 h0 t9
v2 o7 h1 t9
v3 o6 h2 t0
v4 o4 h3 t0
v5 o4 h4 t0
v6 o4 h5 t0

1 r....
2 r....
3 r....
4 r....
5 r....
6 /....

1 AEc^a.... df.... bd...r.	Gb.... Ee.... ..DG.r.
2
3
4
5
6 /.... /.... /....	/.... /.... ..

1 Ca...r. BFd...r. BGd...r.	d.... c...r.
2 r.... ..	AE.... ..r..
3 r....
4 r....
5 r....
6 /.... /.... /....	/.... /.. /..

1 r....
2 r....
3 ace^a.... \$Fad\$f.... Dad...r.	ab...r. Ge.... ..G.r.
4 o4 Aa.... Dd.... \$F\$f...r.	o5 d!E.... ..r.b.. e..d.r.
5	e.... ..r. e...r.
6 /.... /.... /....	/.... /...../..

1 r.... ..
2 r.... ..
3 a...r.Dd...r.Dd...r.
4 \$c...b. a.r.a.. b..\$c.r.
5 \$f.... ..r. f...r.
6 /.... /.... /....

1 \$f...r. !\$GDb\$f...r.	\$C\$G\$c.... ..r..
2 r.... ..	\$f.... e...r..
3 Fa\$C.... B\$G...r.. \$Ge...r. ae...r.
4 o6 Dd\$G.... ..r..	o5 \$ce...r. \$ce...r.
5 r....
6 /.... /.... /....	/.... /.... /....

1 ^a...r. BF#d^a...r.	Eb^a.... g.... ..
----------------------------	-------------------

Fig. 7 Kreutzer Sonata Alphanumeric No

2 r....
3 e... #d..r.. BDG...r. B\$CG....
4 o5 bf^a.... ..r.. o3 e...r. e....
5 r....
6 /... /... /...	/... /... /...

Z
end