

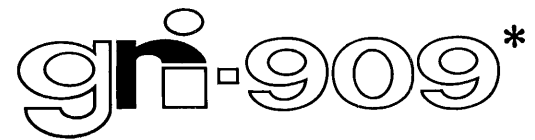
# **system reference manual**

 **GRI Computer Corporation**

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Attached are correction sheets for the GRI-909 System Reference Manual, Rev. A, December 1969.

GRI Computer Corporation  
April 10, 1970



# System Reference Manual

December 1969

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## CHAPTER ONE

### INTRODUCTION

The GRI-909 is an advanced general purpose computer, whose highly modular functional design and easy, efficient programming make it especially suitable for applications in process or system control. The machine is based on the concept of Direct Function Processing and is organized around two buses, a source bus and a destination bus. As shown in the illustration on the next two pages, all internal control registers, device controls, arithmetic units, function generators, and even memory itself (all referred to as "operators") exist between these buses. Each bus comprises sixteen data lines, six address lines for operator selection, control lines, sense lines, and lines for timing signals. A typical operator accepts data and/or control signals from the source bus, acts according to the received control signals and the nature of the operator, and outputs its result onto the destination bus. The bus modifier provides a path for moving data from the destination bus to the source bus, where it is available as input to the next specified operator. The function tester senses control signals from other operators via the destination bus; the function generator supplies control signals to other operators via the source bus. This structure provides many intrinsic advantages over other computer architectures. Among these are:

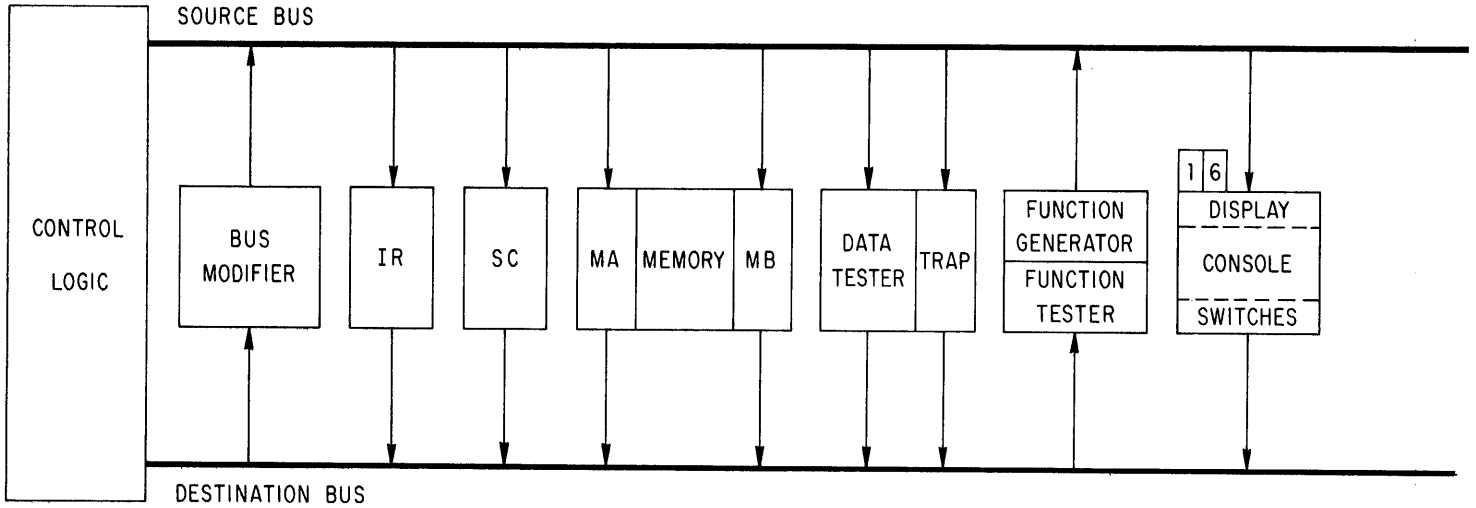
The ability to program in an assembly language directly related to system functions without the inefficiencies

in time and memory introduced by compilers.

The capability of direct communication between system devices and computer components. Any system device can directly access memory, and the processor can transfer data between any two system devices without tying up accumulators or special registers. This eliminates the "bookkeeping" instructions otherwise needed to manipulate data to, from and through the processor.

The ability to expand the instruction repertoire on a modular basis including many special or unique instructions.

The minimum processor configuration comprises all operators shown on the next page except memory, which is optional. The memory can contain both alterable core memory modules and read-only memory modules, and the two are interchangeable; if only the latter is present, the computer can be operated simply as a hardwired controller. Shown on page 1-3 are typical options including functional or "firmware" operators and device operators. Device operators are those that interface peripheral equipment such as input-output devices, mass memory media, communications equipment and displays. Functional operators are those that operate on data words or perform various functions that are usually regarded as internal to a computer: these include the real time clock, an arithmetic operator that performs addition and basic logical opera-



tions, and operators that perform multiplication, division, byte swapping and packing, and other more complex functions.

The basic package requires only 10½ inches mounted in a standard 19-inch rack. It contains the processor, a memory of up to 8K words, and has space for three major firmware options and sixteen other optional operators of either type. Additional memory can be held in an expansion chassis mounted above the basic package; an expansion chassis for other options can be mounted below it.

*General Characteristics*

16-bit parallel processing, with a 1.76 microsecond cycle time when executing instructions from main memory, an 880 nanosecond cycle time when executing instructions from an external memory, *ie* a read-only memory contained in a firmware option.

32,768 words of directly addressable, random access core memory. Minimum core size is 1024 words.

The functional organization permits programming in a simple system-oriented assembly language. Programs can be assembled on an IBM 360 computer.

Every device in the system, both inside and outside the processor, is di-

rectly addressable by programmed instructions, allowing direct data transfer between devices without need for special accumulators or temporary storage.

Firmware options can expand the hard-wired instruction set to provide system flexibility unequaled by more conventional computer designs.

Direct memory access can be made via the standard source and destination buses at the rate of 1.76 microseconds per 16-bit word (568,000 words per second). No multiplexer is required.

Priority interrupts can be executed on a single level or on sixteen levels at the choice of the system designer. Additional interrupt levels are available as an option.

Core memory and read-only memory are interchangeable.

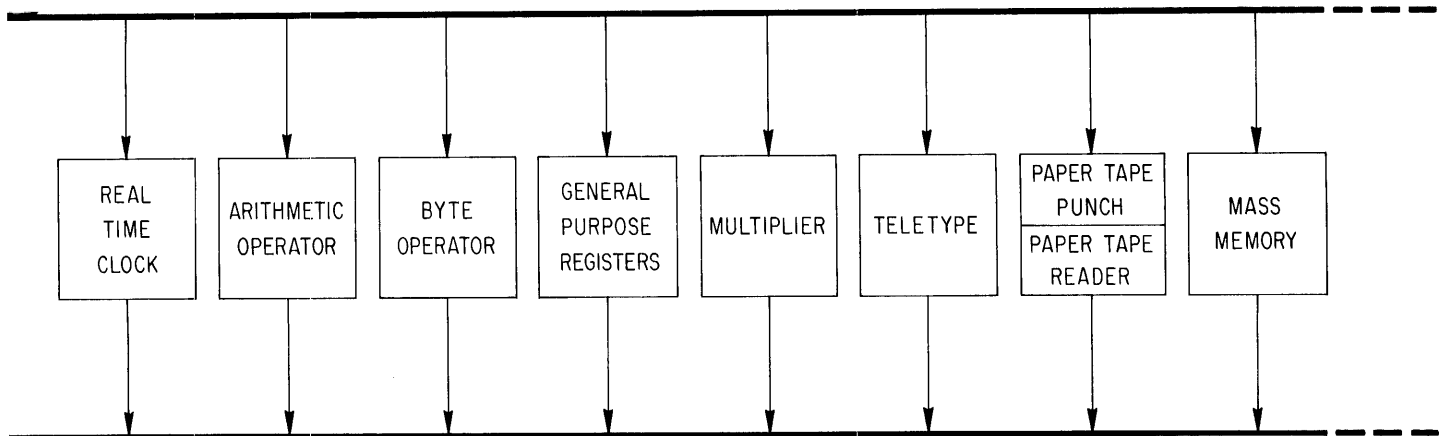
Power failure protection and automatic restart are standard. Remote start and stop are available for use in a system interface.

Any register, whether inside or outside the processor, can be displayed on the console. Data can be transferred from the console to any register.

*Specifications*

*Physical.* 10½ inches high, 20 inches





deep, weighs 50 pounds. Mounts from the front in a standard 19-inch rack with or without slides.

*Electrical.* Single phase line power, either 100-130 vac, 60 Hz  $\pm$  3%, or 200-240 vac, 50 Hz  $\pm$  3%. 4 amperes, 150-250 watts. Logic levels: ground and +4 vdc, DTL and TTL compatible.

*Environmental.* 0° to 50°C ambient temperature. Relative humidity to 90%. Cooling is by convection (no fans required for operation over the ambient temperature range). All console switches are photo-optical without mechanical contacts subject to wear or bounce.

## 1.1 COMPUTER ORGANIZATION

The direct function processor controls the entire system by controlling all functional and device operators. The processor handles words of sixteen bits, which are stored in a memory with a maximum capacity of 32,768 words. The bits of a word are numbered 0 to 15, right to left, as are the bits in the registers that handle the words (each bit number corresponds to the magnitude of the bit as a power of 2). Memory addresses are fifteen bits, numbered according to the position of the address in a word, *ie* 0 to 14. Words are used either as computer

instructions in a program, as addresses, or as operands (data for the program). The program can interpret an operand as a logical word, an address, a pair of 8-bit bytes, or a 16-digit signed or unsigned binary number. Arithmetic operations are performed on fixed point binary numbers, either unsigned or the equivalent signed numbers using twos complement conventions.

The processor performs a program by executing instructions retrieved from memory locations addressed by the low order fifteen bits of the sequence counter, SC. At the end of each instruction that does not reference memory, SC is incremented by one so that the next instruction is normally taken from the next consecutive location. In an instruction that does reference memory, SC is incremented once so that the instruction can make use of the next location — for either an address or an operand — and it is then incremented again to point to the next instruction. Sequential program flow is altered by changing the contents of SC, either by incrementing it an extra time in a function test instruction, or by replacing its contents with the value specified by a jump instruction. In a jump, an address for returning to the original sequence is saved in the trap register, TRP, which is also available for temporary storage. Since SC is connected across the buses, either the program or an external operator

can alter the sequence by transmitting an address directly to SC. The memory address register, MA, supplies the address for every memory access, and words are transmitted between the buses and the memory via the memory buffer, MB. When each instruction in the stored program is taken from memory, it is sent to the instruction register, IR, for decoding and execution by the processor.

The path for data controlled by the program is from a source operator to the destination bus, through the bus modifier to the source bus, and then to a destination operator. For its input data, the bus modifier can take either the source word or its complement and can modify it in transmission in one of the following ways: increment it by one, shift it left one bit, or shift it right one bit. Thus the two's complement negative of a number can be obtained during transmission by combining the complement and increment operations. Associated with these functions are an overflow flag and a link bit that connects the ends of the word for circular shifting.

The other three programmable functional operators that are basic to the organization of the system allow the computer to perform tests on data and functions, and to generate functions. The data tester determines whether the arithmetic value of a word it receives is less than, equal to or greater than zero, or any meaningful combination thereof. If the test result satisfies the condition specified by the program, the current contents of SC are stored in TRP and a jump is executed.

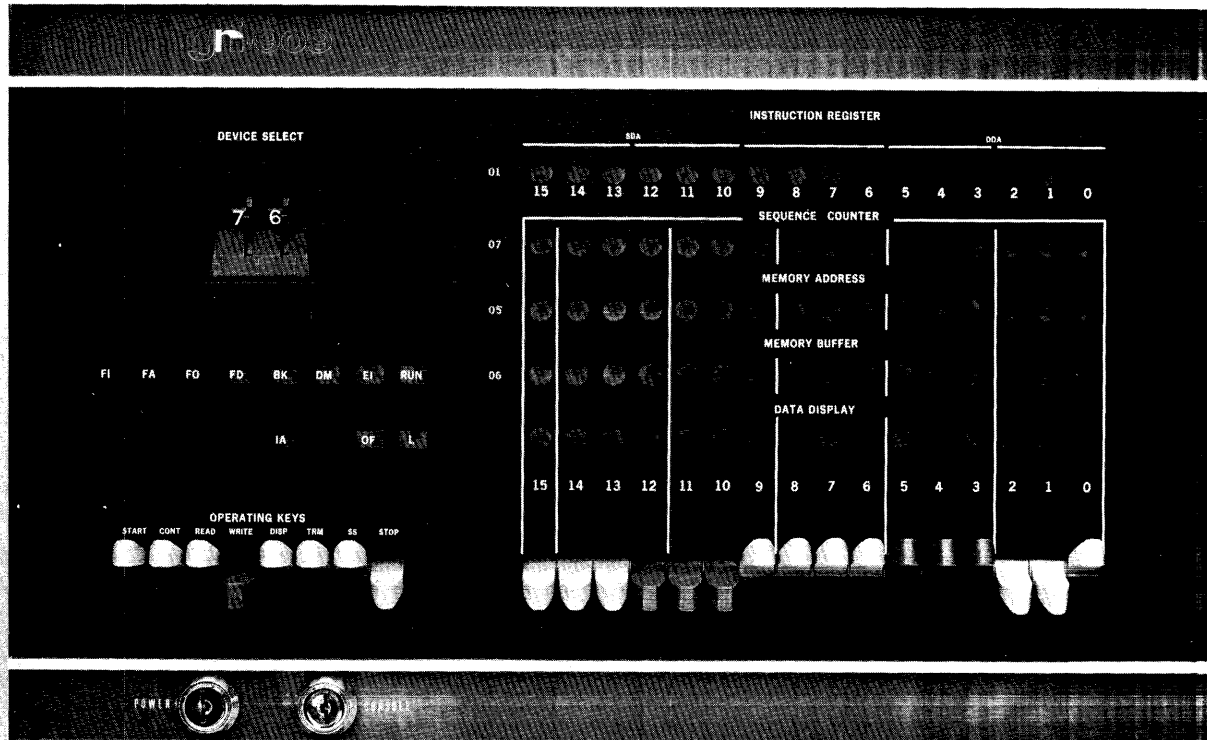
Through the function generator a single instruction can send up to sixteen independent control functions to any operator. In this way the function generating instructions control the peripheral equipment and trigger the functional operations necessary for effective programmed use of the system. By means of the function tester a single instruction can sense up to three control signals supplied by any operator; *eg* these instructions sense the status of peripheral de-

vices. A function testing instruction can select one or more of the control signals and can test whether any of the selected signals is true or if all those selected are false; a positive test result produces a skip.

Two plug-in, interchangeable consoles are available for the processor. The programmer's console has lights for simultaneous display of IR, SC, MA, MB, and any selected data. The usual procedure is to use the programmer's console while debugging system software, and then substitute the basic model when the system is installed. Any register, either internal or external to the computer, can be selected for display on either console by a pair of thumbwheel switches. The program can read the contents of the switch register at any time, and a word sent to the destination dialed into the thumbwheels is automatically displayed in the lights. This permits display and debugging of all system devices directly from the computer console.

The system described thus far is the minimum configuration in which the GRI-909 is available. With the addition of some kind of stored program, it can provide all the control capabilities of a general purpose computer, although arithmetic and logical operations must be performed one bit at a time using the bus modifier. Random access core memory can be added to the system in units of 1024 and 4096 words to a maximum of 32,768. With core memory the processor also has facilities for program interrupts and high speed data transfers.

The interrupt system facilitates processor control of peripheral equipment by allowing any device to interrupt the normal program flow on a priority basis. The processor acknowledges an interrupt request by storing SC in a memory location and executing the instruction contained in the next consecutive location. The system can be set up so that a unique triplet of locations is assigned to each device, or all devices can interrupt to location 0, and the program must determine which device requires service.



Console

A high speed device, such as magnetic tape or disk, can gain direct access to memory without requiring the execution of any instructions; the program simply pauses for a single cycle while access is made. The logic for direct memory access allows the transfer of data to or from memory, or the incrementing of a memory word, a feature useful in such applications as high speed pulse counting.

This minimal version of the GRI-909 provides an economic controller for applications with limited arithmetic requirements or where arithmetic execution time is not a factor. Such applications might be communication traffic control, data concentration and formatting, peripheral equipment control, and simple system control. The addition of plug-in hardwired or read-only memory instructions allows the GRI-909 to be expanded to encompass many powerful features on a modular basis.

The most basic firmware option that can be added to the system is an arith-

metic operator. This operator contains two registers and a functional data output whose generation does not disturb the contents of the registers. The program can produce arithmetic and logical functions of the contents of these registers by placing the arithmetic operator in the appropriate functional state. The functions that can be performed are addition and the three logic functions, AND, inclusive OR, and exclusive OR. At any given time the data output of the arithmetic operator is equal to the selected function of the contents of the two registers. The output changes automatically by changing the functional state of the operator or the contents of either register. Hence the program can compare a series of values against some limit stored in one register without disturbing that register or requiring temporary storage.

Other firmware options include general purpose registers and operators that swap the bytes in a word, that pack bytes into a word, and that perform computations

such as multiplication, division, square root, and so forth. In many cases the user has a choice of options for performing a given operation at various speeds. Multiplication can be done by a subroutine with or without an arithmetic operator, but two multiply options are also available. One performs a multiplication in about 56 microseconds by requiring the processor to perform external instructions, *ie* instructions supplied by a read-only memory in the operator; the other is fully implemented by internal hardware and takes under 10 microseconds.

The execution of external instructions is a technique that can also be used by hardwired diagnostics, supplied in the form of plug-in modules, that can exercise all nonmemory registers in the system.

## 1.2 MEMORY

From an addressing point of view, the entire memory is a set of contiguous locations whose addresses range from zero to a maximum dependent upon the capacity of the particular installation. In a system with the greatest possible capacity, the largest address is octal 77777, decimal 32,767. Core memory is available in increments of 1024 words or 4096 words. A given system can contain at most four of the 1K modules; a typical system might contain 4096 words of core memory and 1024 words of read-only memory. Read-only memory differs from core only in that it cannot be altered by the program. Common software routines are available in standard read-only modules, others are available on a custom basis. (Some firmware options actually contain their own small read-only memories, but these are not addressable by the program.)

**Memory Allocation.** The only locations whose use is fixed by the hardware are those allocated to the program interrupt system and autorestart, which uses locations 6 and 7. System operators can be

wired to interrupt to any location, but the standard product line operators are wired to use locations 0-5 and 11-62. Moreover the user can assign all devices to location 0, in which case an interrupt causes the processor to save SC in location 0 and execute the instruction in location 1. Any location used by the interrupt or autorestart should ordinarily be regarded as unavailable for general programming.

## 1.3 INSTRUCTIONS

Every instruction can address two operators, one as the source of information, the other as the destination. These instructions are of the general form, *Operator X to Operator Y*. Every operator in the system, from internal control registers to peripheral devices, can be addressed with the one exception of the bus modifier, which plays its role automatically. Thus instead of performing a jump, the program can alter its own sequence simply by transmitting a word to SC. Generally IR and MA are addressed only by the processor for its own internal functions; the program can read these registers but cannot load them since such action would be meaningless. In other respects there is no intrinsic difference between the automatic operations performed by the processor and the operations specified by the program. In reality the processor executes a built-in sequence of instructions into which the instructions from the program are inserted.

Consider an instruction for a simple transfer from one nonmemory register to another. As an instruction in the program it is executed in a single processor cycle; but the cycle is actually divided into four parts in which the processor executes four instructions. The first step is a transfer from SC to MA to retrieve the program instruction from memory; when it is available it is transferred from memory to IR. In the third step the processor decodes the instruction in IR

and executes it. In the fourth and final step SC is moved to itself via the bus modifier but it is incremented by one along the way.

The actual type of operation performed and the type of information moved by any instruction depends upon the operators it addresses. For a simple transfer the programmer can take either the word directly from the source operator or its complement, and he can elect to modify the word as it passes through the bus modifier. An instruction that specifies memory as source or destination automatically uses the location following itself in memory. Besides selecting the type of modification (if any) of the word in transit, the instruction also selects the addressing mode, *ie* whether the next memory location is used to receive or supply an operand, or to supply an address to be used in locating an operand.

Other types of instructions are produced by addressing appropriate operators either as source or destination. The program tests a source word for a jump by addressing the data tester as its destination. The program generates control signals for a destination operator by addressing the function generator as source, and tests control signals from a source by specifying the function tester as destination.

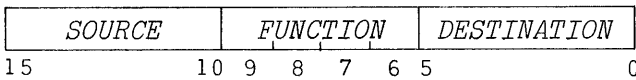
Using these basic types of instructions the program controls the remaining operators in the system. The two registers in the arithmetic operator are addressable for data transmission purposes; by sending control signals from the function generator, the program can specify the arithmetic or logical operation the unit is to perform, and the result is available for data transmission. Sending a word to the byte swapper makes the word, with its bytes swapped, retrievable by addressing the byte swapper as source. Even though all instructions are of the same general form — there are no special in-out instructions — nonetheless, control over a peripheral device is essentially like that in any computer: data transmission instructions send data

to and from the interface, and the function generating and function testing instructions control it. The addition of any new peripheral device or firmware option increases the instruction set in all types for which it is meaningful to address the new operator. Generally it will require function generating and testing instructions to control it and sense its status. If it is a source of data, its output can be sent, with or without modification, to any data destination including memory: conversely, if it can receive data, it can be addressed as destination in a transmission instruction that sends data (perhaps modified) to it from any source throughout the entire system.

There are several levels at which operations can be performed. With only the basic processor, multiplication must be performed by a software subroutine. If general purpose registers are added, the subroutine is shorter; adding an arithmetic operator shortens it more; and with both it is shorter yet. But multiplication can also be performed directly by an optional operator added to the system. In some cases a function is implemented entirely by hardware: the program sets up the operator and gives an instruction that causes it to perform its operations internally. The arithmetic operator is of this type, and a hardware multiplier is also available. But there is another multiplication operator that must be set up by the program, and the program then gives an instruction to place it in operation, but the operator does not perform all of its operations internally. Instead it takes over the processor temporarily and causes the processor to execute external instructions retrieved from a read-only memory built into the multiplier. Of course the operator contains enough hardware so that the external routine is much shorter than a software routine that uses the arithmetic unit and general purpose registers. But as far as the program is concerned, and as far as other operators in the system are concerned, the entire sequence behaves like a single instruction. In other words the instruction that says "go", plus the ex-

ternal subroutine, looks to the programmer like a longer instruction that says "multiply". External instructions cannot reference memory, and they are executed at twice the rate required for instructions stored in main memory.

**Instruction Format.** There is one basic format for all instructions in the GRI-909. In the 16-bit instruction word, the left and right six bits respectively (bits 10-15 and 0-5) are the codes of the operators that are the source and destination of the information transfer, and the middle four bits are used for control or functional information.



If the elements named as source and destination are simply registers that can supply or receive data and are not in memory, then the instruction is simply for data transmission and the function bits specify the way in which the word taken from the source is modified before being sent to the destination. In some cases the actual transmission may cause the destination to perform some function; *eg* sending a character to the tape punch causes that device to punch the character, but the instruction is still classed as data transmission. If the instruction is for data transmission, but the operator specified as source or destination is memory, the contents of the next consecutive location following the instruction are used either as the data word transmitted or as an address to locate that word. The function bits in the instruction specify not only the modification of the word in transit, but how the word following the instruction is to be used.

Other types of instructions are produced by naming as source or destination an operator that is not simply a register to hold data. Naming the function generator as source supplies up to four control signals to the named destination, such signals being selected by the function bits of the instruction. Specifying

the function tester as destination causes it to test signals from the source for a skip: bits 6-9 select the signals and the conditions they must satisfy. Naming the data tester as destination causes it to test a word supplied by the source for the conditions specified by the function bits; if the condition holds, the processor jumps to a location determined from the word following the instruction in memory.

Thus even though all instructions are of the same form, the repertoire includes a variety of operation types depending upon the properties of the operators addressed. These run the gamut from basic core memory storage to peripheral devices such as line printer and magnetic tape, to functional operators for performing arithmetic calculations, to purely control devices that generate or test functions.

**Effective Address.** An instruction that specifies memory as source or destination or specifies the data tester as destination takes two words, *ie* it uses the next consecutive memory location following the instruction. Data may be stored in the second location, or its contents may be used either as data or as an address.

For any instruction of these types the processor must determine the effective address, which is the actual memory address used to fetch or store the operand or alter program flow. A data transmission instruction that references memory can specify that addressing is direct, deferred (also called indirect), immediate, or immediate and deferred. A jump instruction, *ie* one that names the data tester as destination, can specify only direct or deferred addressing. With direct addressing bits 14-0 of the location following the instruction are used as the effective address, *ie* the address of the location to be used for retrieval or storage of data or retrieval of the next instruction (of course the latter case holds in a conditional jump only if the condition is satisfied). For deferred addressing the processor retrieves a word from the location addressed by the contents of the

location following the instruction; it then adds one to that word, writes the result back in the same location and uses it as the effective address.

Immediate mode addressing can be used only by the data transmission instructions. In this case the effective address is simply one greater than the address of the instruction; in other words the contents of the location following the instruction are used as the operand or that location is the destination for an operand. If addressing is both immediate and deferred, the processor takes the word from the location following the instruction, increments it by one, places the incremented word back in the same location and uses it as the effective address.

**Programming Conventions.** Although all instructions have essentially the same format, the assembler distinguishes four classes: data transmission, data testing, function generating, and function testing. The assembler also distinguishes data transmission instructions that reference memory from those that do not.

The GRI-909 actually has two assembly programs, a basic assembler (BASE) and a functional system-oriented assembler (FAST), that use very different assembly languages. One is a terse, symbolic language like those used with most assemblers; the other is a compiler-like system language that is closer to ordinary English. The latter provides a much easier introduction to the computer, but the former is more efficient to use once one gains familiarity with the GRI-909. Instruction descriptions and program examples in the text are given in the basic assembly language. A detailed treatment of FAST is given in Appendix A, although Chapter 2 does give the general forms for the various instruction types in the system language.

The basic assembly program recognizes a number of mnemonics and other initial symbols that facilitate constructing complete instruction words and organizing them into a program [Appendix E]. In particular there are two-letter mnemonics

for the basic instruction types, and letters can be added to these to specify the type of addressing, to select the complement of the source in data transmission, and to specify particular operators for function generating and testing. The basic form for assembling any instruction word is

$$T \quad S, F, D$$

where  $T$  is the mnemonic for the instruction type,  $S$  and  $D$  are the source and destination, and  $F$  represents the function bits in the middle of the instruction word. For all one-word instructions (those that do not reference memory),  $S$  and  $D$  are 2-digit octal operator codes. An operator code indicating memory reference is always absorbed in  $T$ , and a memory address then replaces the operator code in the  $S$  or  $D$  position or both. Consider the instruction that moves the word in register AX to register AY shifted right one place. In mnemonic form this would be

$$RR \quad AX, R1, AY$$

which assembles as 11 1100 12. To move a word from memory location 317 to register AX would be

$$MR \quad 317, 11$$

or

$$MR \quad 317, AX$$

either of which assembles as two consecutive words, 06 0000 11 and 000317.

#### *Note*

Numbers representing instruction words always have a pair of octal digits at each end for the source and destination operator codes and four binary digits between them for the function bits. All numbers representing codes, addresses, and register contents except instruction words are always octal, and any numbers appearing in program examples are octal unless otherwise specified. Computer words (other than instruc-

tions) are represented by six octal digits wherein the left one is always 0 or 1 representing the value of bit 15. The ordinary use of numbers in the text to count steps in an operation, to specify word or byte lengths, bit positions, exponents, etc, or to specify quantities of objects such as words or locations, employs standard decimal notation.

In all but the nonmemory data transmission instructions, one or both of the operator codes is implied by the mnemonic for the instruction type. Hence the basic mnemonic not only represents the numerical value but also tells the assembler how to interpret the rest of the information given for the instruction. Since the format thus varies from one instruction type to another, the detailed conventions for programming are given with the descriptions of the various types in Chapter 2.

The programming examples in this manual use the following addressing conventions:

A colon following a symbol indicates that it is a symbolic location name.

A: RR 10,04

indicates that the location that contains RR 10,04 may be addressed symbolically as A.

The period represents the current address, *eg*

RM 10,.+4

is equivalent to

A: RM 10,A+4

Anything written at the right of a semicolon is commentary that explains the program but is not part of it.

## 1.4 SOFTWARE

Software for the GRI-909 includes the following:

FAST — a functional assembler for the system-oriented programming language described in Appendix A.

BASE — a basic assembler for the language described in the body of this manual.

BASE 360 — a version of BASE written in PL/1 for the IBM 360 series computers.

EDIT — a source tape editor combining line-oriented and content-oriented editing commands.

DEBUG — a debugging program.

Fixed point routines for single and double precision arithmetic.

An interpretive floating point package for basic floating point arithmetic. An extended package includes additional sophisticated mathematical functions.

Input-output routines for the standard peripherals.

A series of data conversion routines for converting from external to internal form and vice versa for single and double precision fixed point integers and fractions, BCD integers and fractions, and floating point numbers.

Diagnostics.



## CHAPTER TWO

### DIRECT FUNCTION PROCESSOR

This chapter describes the instruction types in detail, describes the use of the instructions for the basic operators including the program interrupt and console, and presents a general discussion of input-output. The effects of instructions that address particular peripheral devices and optional functional operators are discussed with the operators in the remaining chapters.

The description of each instruction begins with the mnemonic, the name, and a box showing the format. The mnemonic assembles to the word in the box, where bits in those parts of the word represented by letters assemble as 0s. The letters indicate portions that must be added to the mnemonic to produce a complete instruction word.

The descriptions of the basic instruction types in §§2.2-2.5 give the processor execution time. This is always a multiple of the processor cycle time of 1.76  $\mu$ s. Each processor cycle includes one memory read-write cycle, and every instruction in the stored program requires a minimum of one cycle simply to retrieve the instruction from memory. Instructions supplied by an external source cannot reference memory and are executed at the rate of two per processor cycle. Since instructions described in the rest of the manual are simply particular instances of the basic types, no times are given except for function generating instructions that start operators that in turn preempt the processor, *ie* stop the stored program.

**Number System.** In any arithmetic operation the hardware treats computer words as 16-bit unsigned binary numbers in the range 0 to  $2^{16} - 1$ . But the programmer can interpret these as signed numbers using the equivalent twos complement conventions.

In a word used as a signed number, bit 15 (the leftmost bit) represents the sign 0 for positive, 1 for negative. In a positive number the remaining fifteen bits are the magnitude in ordinary binary notation. The negative of a number is obtained by taking its twos complement. If  $x$  is an  $n$ -digit binary number, its twos complement is  $2^n - x$ , and its ones complement is  $(2^n - 1) - x$ , or equivalently  $(2^n - x) - 1$ . Subtracting a number from  $2^n - 1$  (*ie* from all 1s) is equivalent to forming the logical complement, *ie* changing all 0s to 1s and all 1s to 0s. Therefore, to form the twos complement one takes the logical complement — usually referred to merely as the complement — of the entire word including the sign, and adds 1 to the result. In a negative number the sign bit is 1 and the remaining bits are the twos complement of the magnitude.

Operations on signed numbers using twos complement conventions are identical to operations on unsigned numbers; the hardware simply treats the sign as a more significant magnitude bit. Suppose we wish to count seventeen steps by incrementing during data transmission. We would start with a register containing  $2^{16} - 17$ , *ie* this binary configuration,

$$+141_{10} = +215_8 = \boxed{0\ 000\ 000\ 010\ 001\ 101}_{15\ 0}$$

$$-141_{10} = -215_8 = \boxed{1\ 111\ 111\ 101\ 110\ 011}_{15\ 0}$$

$$\boxed{1\ 111\ 111\ 111\ 101\ 111}_{15\ 0}$$

## 2.1 OPERATORS

and increment until overflow occurs at  $2^{16}$ . As an unsigned number the above would be equivalent to

$$177757_8 = 32751_{10}$$

whereas interpreted as a signed number using twos complement notation it would be

$$-21_8 = -17_{10}$$

( $2^{16} - 17$  is the twos complement of 17). Hence we can regard the count as starting at a large number with overflow at  $2^{16}$ , or as starting at a small negative number with overflow at zero. Insofar as processor operations are concerned, it makes no difference which way the programmer interprets the contents of various registers provided only that he is consistent. For further information on the properties of twos complement numbers and on the number formats for the software, refer to Appendix H.

Since each bit position represents a binary order of magnitude, shifting a number is equivalent to multiplication by a power of 2, provided of course that the binary point is assumed stationary. Shifting one place to the left multiplies the number by 2. A 0 should be entered at the right, and no information is lost if a 0 is shifted out at the left (for a signed number the condition is that the sign bit remain the same — a change in the sign indicates that a bit of significance has been shifted out). Shifting one place to the right divides by 2. Truncation occurs at the right, and a 0 must be entered at the left (for a signed number a bit equal to the sign must be entered).

The instruction format allows sixty-four operator codes. The table opposite lists the octal codes and mnemonics for the basic operators that are part of every system, the arithmetic operator, and some of the standard peripheral devices. A complete list of operator codes is included in Appendix E.

Sometimes a single code may name two operators, one as a source, another as a destination. Thus the code 02 as a source specifies the function generator, but as a destination it specifies the function tester. In some cases a code cannot be used with all instruction types, and every code generally has different meanings with different instruction types. *Eg* the code 00 specifies the control logic when used with function generation or function testing, but it is a null code when used with data transmission (*ie* as a source it supplies a zero word, and as a destination it can receive no data). Similarly the code 04 represents interrupt control elements when used with function generation or testing, but represents the interrupt status register when used for a data transfer.

Consider the arithmetic operator, which has three codes, two for the registers in it and one for the operator itself. The registers can be addressed as source or destination of data, but no functions can be generated for them nor do they supply any functions for testing. The operator on the other hand can receive functions — specifically the arithmetic or logical operation to be performed — and it has a flag that can be tested. It can also be a source of data for it supplies the result of the arithmetic operation, but it can receive no data as destination. Similarly all in-

## OPERATOR CODES

Octal	Mnemonic	Source	Operator	Destination
00			Null-Control	
01		Instruction Register		Null
02		Function Generator		Function Tester
03	TRP	Trap Register	Data Tester ( <i>nonmemory source</i> ) Trap Register ( <i>memory source</i> )	
04	ISR		Interrupt Status Register	
05		Memory Address		Null
06			Memory (Buffer)	
07	SC		Sequence Counter	
10	SWR	Console Switch Register		Null
11	AX		Register AX	
12	AY		Register AY	
13	AO		Arithmetic Operator	
14	MPO		Multiply Operator	
15			External Data	
16		External Address		Null
17	MSR		Machine Status Register	
75	RTC		Real Time Clock	
76	HSR HSP	Paper Tape Reader		Paper Tape Punch
77	TTI TTO	Teletype Input		Teletype Output

out devices use both types of function instructions, but an output device generally cannot supply data as a source, and an input device generally cannot receive data as a destination. Addressing as a source an operator that cannot supply data, or addressing as a destination an operator that cannot receive it, is equivalent to using the null code. However, pairs of IO devices sometimes share a common code; examples are teletype input and output, and paper tape reader and punch. In each case the code addresses an input buffer as source in data transmission or data testing, an output buffer as destination in data

transmission, and the control logic for both devices as source or destination in function generation or testing.

Some codes are used only for the internal operations of the processor and cannot be used by the program to address the operators they designate. An attempt by the program to send data to the instruction register, the memory address register, or the external data or address registers results simply in a no-op. (The codes 15 and 16 are used for direct memory access for all devices and select individual registers on a priority basis. The program can actually address the external address register in any given device, but a

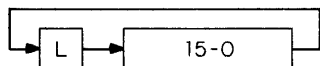
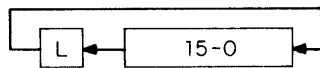
unique code (not 16) is assigned to each register.) The program can read the current memory address and the instruction (which is simply itself), but using code 15 or 16 as a source gives a zero word.

## 2.2 DATA TRANSMISSION

Any instruction moves a word of data from one place to another provided only that meaningful operator codes are used: no transfer occurs if the programmer specifies an operator that results in an instruction of some other type (such as a function instruction) or uses a code that is not available to the program.

The word being moved can be modified in transit: the program can increment it by one or can shift it one place to the left or right. Associated with these functions are a Bus Overflow flag, and a 1-bit link register which connects the ends of the word for a circular shift — in other words the shift is actually a rotation through the link. The modification is selected by bits 8 and 9 of the instruction as follows.

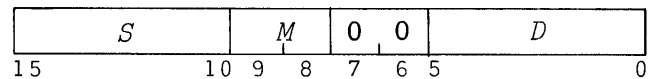
Bits 9-8	Mnemonic	Modification
0		None
1	P1	Add +1. If the result is $2^{16}$ set Bus Overflow, otherwise clear it.
2	L1	Rotate left one place. Bit 15 is shifted into the link, the link into bit 0.
3	R1	Rotate right one place. Bit 0 is shifted into the link, the link into bit 15.



There are two basic instructions for transmission from one nonmemory register to another [*transmission instructions that reference memory are discussed as a special case below*]. One instruction takes a word from the source directly, the other takes its complement. System language statements for these instructions are of the form

*Register X (Modification) TO Register Y*

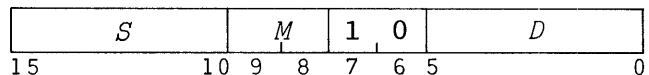
RR Register to Register  
1 cycle 1.76  $\mu$ s



Take the word from register *S*, modify it as specified by *M* (as given above), and place the result in register *D*. The contents of *S* are unaffected, the original contents of *D* are lost.

Add 1 to SC so the next instruction will be taken from the next location.

RRC Register to Register, Complement  
1 cycle 1.76  $\mu$ s



Take the complement of the word from register *S*, modify it as specified by *M* (as given above), and place the result in register *D*. The contents of *S* are unaffected, the original contents of *D* are lost.

Add 1 to SC so the next instruction will be taken from the next location.

Suppose we wish to load register AX with the address of the location containing the instruction being executed. We could give

RR 7,11

which addresses SC and AX as source and destination. To load twice the current

address we would give

```
RR 7,2,11
```

or, more likely, the mnemonic form

```
RR SC,L1,AX
```

which assembles as 07 1000 11. To load the twos complement of AX into AY we would give

```
RRC AX,P1,AY
```

which assembles as 11 0110 12.

For convenience the assembler recognizes special mnemonics for clearing a register (loading zero into it) and transferring a register into itself.

```
ZR M,D is equivalent to RR 0,M,D
```

```
RS S,M is equivalent to RR S,M,S
```

In both cases the letter C can be appended to the basic mnemonic to take the complement of the source. To load +1 into AX we would give

```
ZR P1,AX
```

and to load all 1s we would give

```
ZRC AX
```

To change the word in AX to its twos complement this suffices:

```
RSC AX,P1
```

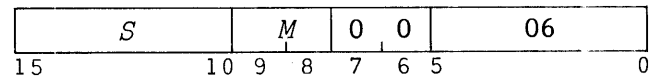
### Memory Reference

A special case of data transmission is instructions that specify memory as the source or destination of data. The programmer need specify only the non-memory operator, but must supply an operand itself for the location following the instruction. (Of course the second location can be left clear if an immediate operand is to be placed in it.) There are eight basic instruction forms for the two transfer directions, each with four modes of addressing. System language statements for them are like this.

*Register (Modification) TO Location*

*Location (Modification) TO Register*

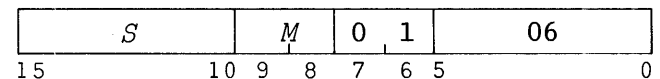
RM Register to Memory  
3 cycles 5.28 μs



Add 1 to SC to retrieve the effective address *E* from the next location. Add 1 to SC again so the next instruction will be taken from the second location following this instruction.

Take the word from register *S*, modify it as specified by *M* (as given above), and place the result in location *E*. The contents of *S* are unaffected, the original contents of location *E* are lost.

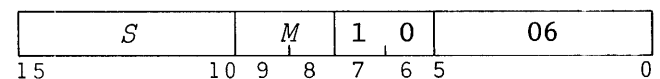
RMD Register to Memory, Deferred  
4 cycles 7.04 μs



Add 1 to SC to retrieve the indirect address *I* from the next location. Add 1 to SC again so the next instruction will be taken from the second location following this instruction. Retrieve the word from location *I* and add 1 to it to produce the effective address *E*. Store *E* in location *I*.

Take the word from register *S*, modify it as specified by *M* (as given above), and place the result in location *E*. The contents of *S* are unaffected, the original contents of location *E* are lost.

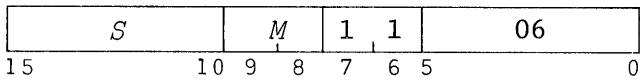
RMI Register to Memory, Immediate  
2 cycles 3.52 μs



Add 1 to SC to produce the effective address *E*. Take the word from register *S*, modify it as specified by *M* (as given above), and place the result in location *E* (*ie* the next location). The contents of *S* are unaffected, the original contents of location *E* are lost.

Add 1 to SC again so the next instruction will be taken from the second location following this instruction.

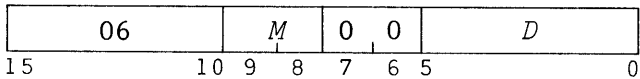
**RMID** Register to Memory, Immediate and Deferred  
3 cycles 5.28  $\mu$ s



Add 1 to SC to produce the indirect address *I*. Retrieve the word from location *I* (*ie* the next location) and add 1 to it to produce the effective address *E*. Store *E* in location *I*. Add 1 to SC again so the next instruction will be taken from the second location following this instruction.

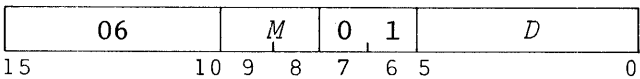
Take the word from register *S*, modify it as specified by *M* (as given above), and place the result in location *E*. The contents of *S* are unaffected, the original contents of location *E* are lost.

**MR** Memory to Register  
3 cycles 5.28  $\mu$ s



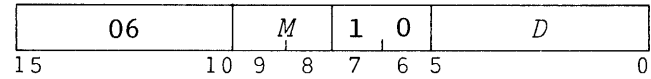
Perform the same address operations as RM. Then take the word from location *E*, modify it as specified by *M* (as given above), and place the result in register *D*. Location *E* is unaffected, the original contents of *D* are lost.

**MRD** Memory to Register, Deferred  
4 cycles 7.04  $\mu$ s



Perform the same address operations as RMD. Then take the word from location *E*, modify it as specified by *M* (as given above), and place the result in register *D*. Location *E* is unaffected, the original contents of *D* are lost.

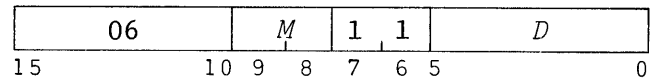
**MRI** Memory to Register, Immediate  
2 cycles 3.52  $\mu$ s



Add 1 to SC to produce the effective address *E*. Take the word from location *E* (*ie* the next location), modify it as specified by *M* (as given above), and place the result in register *D*. Location *E* is unaffected, the original contents of *D* are lost.

Add 1 to SC again so the next instruction will be taken from the second location following this instruction.

**MRID** Memory to Register, Immediate and Deferred  
3 cycles 5.28  $\mu$ s



Perform the same address operations as RMID. Then take the word from location *E*, modify it as specified by *M* (as given above), and place the result in register *D*. Location *E* is unaffected, the original contents of *D* are lost.

The assembly format for memory reference is the same as for other data transmission instructions except that the contents of the location following the instruction replace the unneeded code for the memory operator.

```
MR 542,AX
```

which assembles into the two consecutive words 06 0000 11 and 000542, places the contents of location 542 in AX.

```
RMI AX,R1,0
```

assembles as 11 1110 06 and 000000, and stores the contents of AX divided by 2 into the location following the instruction (the location left clear in the assembly).

For convenience the assembler recognizes special mnemonics for clearing a location and transferring a location into itself. Letting *W* be the word given for the second location,

ZM *M,W* is equivalent to RM 0,*M,W*  
 MS *W,M* is equivalent to MR *W,M,6*

In both cases the letters D, I and ID can be appended to the basic mnemonic to select deferred, immediate, and immediate-deferred addressing. To simply keep a count of thirty in the location following an instruction we could give

MSI -36,P1 ;30<sub>10</sub> = 36<sub>8</sub>

which assembles as 06 0110 06 and 177742. The thirtieth iteration of this instruction sets the Bus Overflow flag.

Addressing Examples. Suppose AX contains 000132 and the following locations contain the numbers listed.

Location	Contents
320	001742
1742	005360
1743	134267
5361	000023

Then executing these instructions in location 317 produces the effects given.

Instruction	Effect
MR 1742,AX	Load 5360 in AX.
MRD 1742,AX	Change location 1742 to 5361 and load 23 in AX.
MRI 1742,AX	Load 1742 in AX.
MRID 1742,AX	Change location 320 to 1743 and load 134267 in AX.
RM AX,1742	Store 132 in location 1742.
RMD AX,1742	Change location 1742 to 5361 and store 132 in location 5361.
RMI AX,1742	Store 132 in location 320.

RMID AX,1742	Change location 320 to 1743 and store in location 1743.
MS 1742,R1	Change location 1742 to 2570 (5360÷2).
MSD 1742,R1	Change location 1742 to 5361 and change location 5361 to 11 (23÷2).
MSI 1742,R1	Change location 320 to 761 (1742÷2).
MSID 1742,R1	Change location 320 to 1743 and change location 1743 to 56133 (134267÷2).
ZM P1,1742	Store 1 in location 1742.
ZMD P1,1742	Change location 1742 to 5361 and store 1 in location 5361.
ZMI P1,1742	Store 1 in location 320.
ZMID P1,1742	Change location 320 to 1743 and store 1 in location 1743.

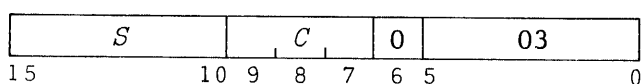
### 2.3 DATA TESTING

Using codes 03 and 06 as source and destination or vice versa produces a standard data transfer between memory and the trap register. Thus such instructions as MR 100,TRP and RMI TRP,0 can use TRP simply as a general purpose register. But code 03 as destination with a *nonmemory* source addresses the data tester, allowing the program to perform an arithmetic test on the source word interpreted as a signed number. If the number satisfies the condition specified by the instruction, a jump is executed and a return address is saved in the trap register.

There are two forms of the data testing instruction using direct and deferred addressing. In the system language they have the form

IF Operator Condition GO TO Location

JC                                  Jump Conditional  
 If no jump: 1 cycle                                  1.76 μs  
 If jump: 2 cycles                                    3.52 μs



If *S* is not 06, test the word from register *S* for the condition specified by *C* (the contents of *S* are not affected by the test).

Bit	<i>Effect of a 1 in the bit</i>
9	Selects the condition that the source word is less than zero ( <i>ie</i> bit 15 of the word is 1).
8	Selects the condition that the source word is zero ( <i>ie</i> its bits are all 0s).
7	Inverts the conditions selected by bits 8 and 9. A 0 in bit 7 selects the OR of the conditions selected by 8 and 9; a 1 in bit 7 selects the AND of the complements of those conditions.

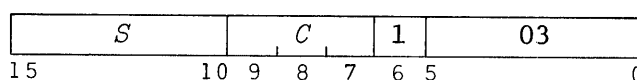
The combined effects of bits 7-9 and the mnemonics for the various bit configurations are as follows.

Bits 9-7	<i>Mnemonic</i>	<i>Jump function</i>
0		Never Jump
1		Always Jump
2	ETZ	Jump if Equal to Zero
3	NEZ	Jump if Not Equal to Zero
4	LTZ	Jump if Less than Zero
5	GEZ	Jump if Greater than or Equal to Zero
6	LEZ	Jump if Less than or Equal to Zero
7	GTZ	Jump if Greater than Zero

If the word from *S* does not satisfy the specified condition, add 2 to SC so the next instruction is taken from the second

location following this instruction. If the condition is satisfied, add 1 to SC, load the incremented SC into the trap register and also use it to retrieve the effective address *E* from the next location. Load *E* into SC to retrieve the next instruction from location *E* and continue sequential operation from there.

JCD                                  Jump Conditional, Deferred  
 If no jump: 1 cycle                                  1.76 μs  
 If jump: 3 cycles                                    5.28 μs



If *S* is not 06, test the word from register *S* for the condition specified by *C*, as described above under JC. If the word from *S* does not satisfy the condition, add 2 to SC so the next instruction is taken from the second location following this instruction.

If the condition is satisfied, add 1 to SC, load the incremented SC into the trap register and also use it to retrieve the indirect address *I* from the next location. Retrieve the word from location *I*, add 1 to it to produce the effective address *E*, and store *E* back in location *I*. Load *E* into SC to retrieve the next instruction from location *E* and continue sequential operation from there.

The assembly format for data testing is the same as for memory reference data transmission except that the address in the location following the instruction replaces the destination code for the data tester, which is implied by the instruction mnemonic. To jump to location NEG for a subroutine that handles a negative result of an arithmetic operation, this suffices:

JC    AO,LTZ,NEG

For convenience the assembler recognizes a special mnemonic for an unconditional jump, *ie* one that specifies a condition that is necessarily satisfied. Letting *A* be the address given for the second



*Example 1.1*

```

JU    SUB             ;2 words for subroutine call
:          ;N words of data
:
0          ;A zero word terminating the data
...       ;Next instruction

```

*Example 1.2*

```

SUB:   RMI    TRP,0       ;Save original SC in next location
NEXT:  MRD    SUB+1,TRP   ;Get next data word
      JC     TRP,ETZ,END  ;Is word zero?
      :          ;No, process data
      :
      JU     NEXT        ;Get next word
END:   :          ;Yes, complete data processing
      :
      JUD   SUB+1       ;Return to calling sequence

```

location,

```

JU A    is equivalent to   JC  0,ETZ,A
JUD A   is equivalent to   JCD 0,ETZ,A

```

Note that when SC is saved it points to the address location following the jump instruction. A subsequent return to the next instruction in the calling sequence (to the second location following the jump) can therefore be made by giving

```
RR    TRP,SC
```

as SC is automatically incremented following the transfer. Note also that SC is saved in the trap register. Hence the subroutine can be reentrant (pure), i.e. memory is not modified by the act of calling it. If we wish to have the trap free during the subroutine, then at the subroutine entry point we can use

```
ENT:  RMI    TRP,0
```

which moves the address from the trap to the location following ENT. The return can then be made by giving

```
JUD  ENT+1
```

The above technique is also convenient for argument passing. Suppose we wish to call a routine to process  $N$  words of

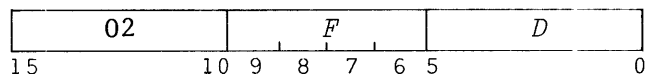
(nonzero) data and give the words with the call. The calling sequence can be like Example 1.1, and the subroutine would then be of the form of Example 1.2.

## 2.4 FUNCTION GENERATION

By addressing the function generator as source (code 02) the program can perform functions in the destination operator. Physically this is done by pulsing control lines selected by 1s in bits 6-9 of the instruction, which has this form in the system language.

### *Function TO Operator*

F0    Function Output  
1 cycle     1.76  $\mu$ s



Perform the functions specified by  $F$  in operator  $D$ . In some cases individual functions are selected by 1s in specific bits in  $F$ ; in other cases the various configurations of a set of bits in  $F$  select

specific functions (*eg* the four configurations of bits 8 and 9 select the four arithmetic and logical functions that can be performed by the arithmetic operator). In any event the actual functions that can be selected and the manner in which they are selected by bits 6-9 depend on the properties of operator *D*.

Since the source code is implied by the mnemonic FO, assembly statements for the function generating instructions are of the form

FO *F, D*

The assembler recognizes special mnemonics that include the codes for the more common destination operators: the machine (*ie* the control logic), and the interrupt and arithmetic operators.

FOM *F* is equivalent to FO *F, 0*

FOI *F* is equivalent to FO *F, ISR*

FOA *F* is equivalent to FO *F, AO*

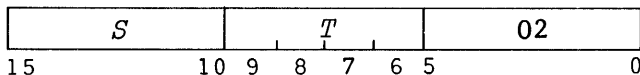
There are also mnemonics for programming bits 6-9, and functions can be combined (when it is meaningful to do so) simply by giving the appropriate mnemonics separated by spaces.

## 2.5 FUNCTION TESTING

By addressing the function tester as destination (code 02) the program can test control signals from the source operator for a skip. The system language statement for this instruction is

SKIP IF *Operator Function*

SF Sense Function  
1 cycle 1.76  $\mu$ s



Perform the test *T* on functions from op-

erator *S*. Individual functions (control signals, flags) from *S* are selected by 1s in bits 7-9. If bit 6 is 0, the test is positive if *any* function selected by bits 7-9 is true. If bit 6 is 1, the test is positive if *no* function selected by bits 7-9 is true.

If the test is negative, add 1 to SC so the next instruction is taken from the next location. If the test is positive, add 3 to SC to skip the next two locations in normal sequence. In other words the processor takes the next instruction from the third location following this instruction — two locations are skipped over so that the skipped instruction can be a jump.

Since the destination code is implied by the mnemonic SF, assembly statements for the function testing instructions are of the form

SF *S, T*

The assembler recognizes special mnemonics that include the codes for the more common source operators: the machine (control logic) and the arithmetic operator.

SFM *T* is equivalent to SF 0, *T*

SFA *T* is equivalent to SF AO, *T*

There are also mnemonics for programming the functions in bits 7-9, and functions can be combined simply by giving the appropriate mnemonics separated by spaces. The mnemonic NOT preceding the function mnemonics inverts the test, *ie* it places a 1 in bit 6. Hence

SFM BOV LNK

which assembles as 00 0110 02 (SFM 6), skips the next two locations if either Bus Overflow or the link is set. But

SFM NOT BOV LNK

which assembles as 00 0111 02 (SFM 7), skips if neither Bus Overflow nor the link is set.

Function testing instructions for all operators act in the manner indicated above, so the descriptions of these in-

structions in the remainder of the manual simply list the functions tested. In each format box, bit 6 is represented by the letter *N*.

Note that a function testing instruction skips the next *two* locations. Hence if the instruction to be skipped uses only one location, the programmer must fill in with a no-op. The standard no-op is simply 00 0000 00, for which the assembler recognizes the mnemonic NOP. Suppose we wish to twos complement AX if the link is set, but otherwise simply complement it before storing it in memory. We would complement in either case, but test to skip the incrementing by one like this:

```
RSC  AX
SFM  NOT LNK
RS   AX,P1
NOP
RM   AX,M
```

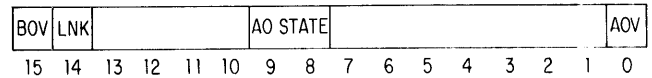
## 2.6 PROGRAM CONTROL

The present section discusses the use of the various instruction types to control the program sequence, the transmission operator, the basic state of the computer, and the execution of external instructions. The use of the jump instructions for handling subroutines is treated in §2.3. A jump always causes the next instruction to be taken from the address loaded into SC, but this is not always true when a data transmission instruction loads SC. The data transfer always occurs in the final cycle of the instruction, and SC is incremented in the first and second cycles. Hence if the instruction takes only one or two cycles (*ie* an RR or MRI), SC is incremented after it is loaded. In general this simplifies the return because the address saved in TRP must be incremented in order to point to the correct return location. This incrementing can also be handled by using a deferred jump, but the program must increment in the bus modifier when using a data transmission instruction of three or four cycles to return with an address

originally saved in TRP.

Sending a word to an operator that cannot receive information or that does not exist is a no-op, which is effectively a program delay. The basic no-op NOP is a one-cycle null transfer. The length of the delay is equal to the number of cycles the instruction takes. Provided no modification is called for, many transmission instructions have no effect on the computer at all except for the regular SC incrementing to go to the next instruction; but the programmer must remember that deferred addressing does affect some memory location.

Certain flags and control flip-flops in the computer are connected to the source and destination buses in such a way that their states can be saved and then restored as though they constituted a register. These elements are referred to collectively as the machine status register, which can be addressed as operator code 17, mnemonic MSR. The elements that make up this register are the following.



Saving and restoring the machine state is a procedure used primarily in program interrupts [§2.8], but the programmer can use it anytime; he can even set up the machine state in any way he likes by loading a word of his own construction into MSR. Having the Bus Overflow and Arithmetic Overflow flags at the ends of the register is especially convenient for either of them can therefore be moved to the link in only one cycle. This is done by

```
RR  MSR,L1,0
```

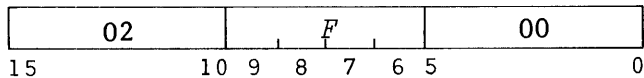
and

```
RR  MSR,R1,0
```

respectively.

There are also function generating and testing instructions for the processor control logic.

## FOM Function Output, Machine

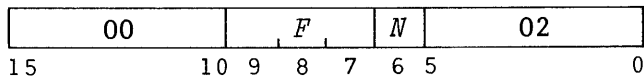


Perform the functions specified by 1s in *F* as follows.

Bit	Mnemonic	Function
6	CLL	Clear link
7	STL	Set link
8	HLT	Halt the processor

Programming 1s in bits 6 and 7, mnemonic CML, complements the link.

## SFM Sense Function, Machine



Perform a function test (as described in §2.5) on the conditions selected by 1s in *F* as follows.

Bit	Mnemonic	Condition
7	BOV	Bus Overflow set
8	LNK	Link set
9	POK	Power ok

To determine whether location A contains all 1s we can use this instruction pair.

```
MR   A,P1,0   ;Add 1, throw away
                ;result
SFM  BOV      ;Skip if overflow
                ;occurred
```

Suppose we wish to use bit 0 of location A as a program flag. We can set it with this instruction:

```
ZM   P1,A
```

and we can test it by giving this sequence:

```
MR   A,R1,0   ;Put bit 0 in link
SFM  LNK      ;Skip if link set
```

If the computer contains an accumulator or any data register that can be trans-

mitted to itself, the twos complement of a word can be formed by a single RSC. Without such a register, the twos complement (say of the word in location Z) must be constructed one bit at a time, like this.

```
MRI  -21,TRP  ;Set count to -17
RM   TRP,M2+1
M1:  MS   Z,R1  ;Bit by bit rotate
      FOM  CML   ;Complement bit
M2:  MSI  0,P1  ;Count step
      SFM  BOV   ;Finished ones
                ;complement?
      JU   M1    ;No, do next bit
      MS  Z,P1  ;Yes, add 1
```

## External Instructions

Operations in some functional operators are limited to single data transfers or state changes, and they thus take place entirely within the instructions that cause them. But in many cases an FO instruction for an operator can trigger an operational sequence that delays execution of the stored program until it is finished. There are two types of operators that do this: one stops the processor while it executes its own internal operations, the other takes control of the processor to execute a sequence of external instructions sent to IR and retrieved from its own built-in read-only memory. In either case the sequence is always started by an FO instruction that addresses the operator as destination and has a 1 in bit 6 (programmed by the mnemonic STRT). A sequence of external instructions takes control of the processor in order to use other operators, such as the arithmetic operator, or at least the data transfer paths. In some respects such a sequence can be regarded as an extension of the FO that triggered it, for SC remains constant, and program interrupts are shut out until the sequence is finished. But following any cycle the processor can pause for direct memory access. Thus high speed in-out operations are not endangered except to the extent that a program interrupt may be delayed.

## 2.7 INPUT-OUTPUT

With direct function processing, an in-out instruction is simply one that addresses an in-out operator, *ie* a peripheral device. A table in Appendix F lists all devices for which operator codes have been assigned, and gives their mnemonics and GRI option numbers.

Besides the standard selection nets for decoding source and destination addresses, every device operator has a Ready flag and an Interrupt Status flag. The first of these denotes the state of the device. At power turnon, all output Ready flags are set, all input Ready flags and Interrupt Status flags are clear. Placing a device in operation clears Ready. If the device will be used for input, the program places it in operation by giving an FO instruction. A complex device to be used for output may require an FO, but a simple output device is usually started automatically by giving a data transmission instruction that sends a unit of data — a word or character depending on how the device handles information. (The word "output" used without qualification always refers to the transfer of data from the bus system to the peripheral equipment; "input" refers to the transfer in the opposite direction.) When the device has processed a unit of data, it sets Ready to indicate that it is ready to receive new data for output, or that it has data ready for input. In the former case the program would respond with a transmission instruction to send more data; in the latter with a transmission instruction to bring in the data that is ready, followed by an FO to restart the device. If the program has set the Interrupt Status flag, the setting of Ready signals the program by requesting an interrupt; if Interrupt Status is clear, then the program must keep testing Ready to determine when the device is available.

A consistent format is employed for FO and SF instructions for all devices. Except for simple output devices that start automatically when data is sent to

them, a device is usually started by programming a 1 in bit 6 for an FO that addresses the device as destination. All input devices require this, and the mnemonic is STRT. (Note that this is the same bit that starts a functional operator, and the mnemonic is also the same.) Clearing or sensing of the Ready flag is generally done by a 1 in bit 7 of an FO or SF respectively. If a pair of devices — one output only, the other input only — share a common operator code, bit 9 handles the flag for input, bit 7 the flag for output. In other cases bits 8 and 9 may be used for special flags. The mnemonic IRDY places a 1 in bit 9, ORDY places a 1 in bit 7. It is usually convenient to clear the input Ready flag when starting the device, so the assembler recognizes INP as equivalent to IRDY STRT.

A device may require no data transfers, such as one type of real time clock that uses only an FO to turn it on and off. All of the simpler data handling devices have only one buffer, *eg* to hold a single character in the teletype, tape reader and tape punch, or to receive incremental plotting data for a single point in the plotter. A high speed device, such as magnetic tape or disk, may use data transmission instructions *only* for control information with data moving between the device and memory via direct memory access. Control information the program must supply to a tape system includes a transport address and an actual command the tape operator is to perform; input information includes error flags and transport status levels.

Most peripheral devices involve motion of some sort, usually mechanical. In this respect there are two types of devices, those that stay in motion and those that do not. Magnetic tape is an example of the former type. Here the device executes a command (such as read, write, space forward) and a ready flag indicates when the entire operation is finished. A separate data flag signals each time the device is ready for direct memory access, but the tape keeps moving until an entire record or file has been processed. Paper tape, on the other hand, stops after each line is read, but if the program restarts it within a critical time the tape moves

continuously.

Other devices operate in one or the other of these two ways but differ in various respects. The tape punch and teletype printer are like the reader. Teletype keyboard input is initiated by the operator striking a key rather than by the program. Once started the card reader reads an entire card, with a data transfer required for each column.

## 2.8 PROGRAM INTERRUPT

Most in-out devices must be serviced infrequently relative to the processor speed and only a small amount of processor time is required to service them, but they must be serviced within a short time after they request it. Failure to service within the specified time (which varies among devices) can often result in loss of information and certainly results in operating the device below its maximum speed. The program interrupt is designed with these considerations in mind, *ie* the use of interruptions in the current program sequence facilitates concurrent operation of the main program and a number of peripheral devices. The hardware also allows a power failure to signal the program by requesting an interrupt.

**Interrupt Requests.** Interrupt requests by a device are governed by its Ready and Interrupt Disable flags. When a device completes an operation it sets Ready, and this action requests a program interrupt if Interrupt Status has been set by the program — if Interrupt Status is clear the device cannot request an interrupt. At the beginning of every cycle the processor synchronizes any requests that are then being made. Once a request has been synchronized the device that made it must wait for an interrupt to start. The request signal is a level so once synchronized it remains on the bus until the program clears Ready or Interrupt Status. In other words clearing either flag in a device disables any request the device has already made and had syn-

chronized, so it is no longer waiting for an interrupt. If the program clears Interrupt Status but leaves Ready set, subsequently setting the former flag again restores the request (remember the program cannot set Ready; only the device can do that).

**Starting an Interrupt.** The processor starts an interrupt if all four of the following conditions hold.

The processor has just completed an instruction or a direct memory access [§2.9]. Insofar as interrupts are concerned an entire sequence of external instructions is equivalent to a single instruction in the program: once a sequence has started, the processor does not handle any interrupts until it is finished.

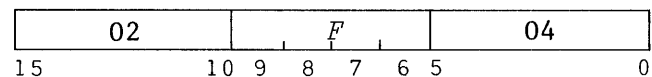
At least one device is waiting for an interrupt to start (*ie* it was requesting an interrupt at the beginning of the last cycle).

The interrupt control is on.

No device is waiting for direct memory access, *ie* there are no requests for such access that the processor has synchronized but not yet fulfilled. The direct memory channel has priority over program interrupts.

When the processor finishes an instruction it takes care of all direct memory requests before it starts an interrupt; this includes any additional direct memory requests that are synchronized while access is occurring. When no more devices are waiting for access, the processor starts an interrupt if the interrupt control is on and a device was requesting an interrupt at the beginning of the last access. The program governs the interrupt operator through this instruction.

FOI                      Function Output, Interrupt



Perform the functions specified by 1s in  $F$  as follows.

<i>Bit</i>	<i>Mnemonic</i>	<i>Function</i>		
			2	MRI SC
6	ICF	Turn interrupt control off	3	Power failure routine start address - 1
7	ICO	Turn interrupt control on	4	MRI SC
			5	Breakpoint routine start address - 1

To start an interrupt the processor turns off the interrupt control so no further interrupts can be started, saves SC (which points to the next instruction) in a location whose address is supplied by the device, and loads SC with an address one greater than that supplied. The processor then goes on to the instruction in the location now addressed by SC and continues sequential operation from there. In general three locations are allocated to each channel to be used as follows.

The first location, whose address is supplied by the device, receives the current contents of SC.

The second location should contain the instruction 06 0010 07, *ie* an MRI -,SC.

The third location should contain an address one less than the first location in the service routine for the device.

The channel locations allocated to the basic in-out equipment are these.

<i>Location</i>	<i>Device</i>
11-13	Teletype output
14-16	Teletype input
17-21	High speed punch
22-24	High speed reader

Locations 25-62 are distributed into ten more channels for other devices [*Appendix F lists the interrupt locations for all GRI-supplied devices*]. A breakpoint [*see below*] or a power failure [§2.10] causes an interrupt to location 0, and the first six locations should be set up for these two combined channels this way.

<i>Location</i>	<i>Use</i>
0	SC stored here
1	Skip if power ok

In a large system it may be necessary to have two or more devices sharing a single channel; in such a case the third location must contain an address for a common routine for all of them. The hard-wired address in any device can be disabled so that it interrupts to location 0. If some but not all do so, then the instruction in location 4 should take the processor to a service routine for those devices (plus breakpoint). If all devices interrupt to 0, the service routine can begin right in location 1.

A device may actually interrupt directly to its service routine. In this case SC is stored in the first location of the routine, and the second location contains the first instruction of the routine.

**Servicing an Interrupt.** If more than one device is connected to a single channel, the service routine should first determine which one requires service; this is easily done by a series of SF instructions. Once the device has been identified, the routine should save the contents of any registers or flags that will be used in the routine or may be affected by it. Hence the routine should save the machine status register if there will be any modification in the bus modifier, as Bus Overflow or the link can be affected by such operations. Similarly TRP should be saved if the routine contains a jump or uses it as a general purpose register. Then the program should service the device. While doing so it can simply leave the interrupt off, or it can turn the interrupt back on and establish a priority structure that allows higher priority devices to interrupt the current device service routine. This priority is determined by controlling the states of the Interrupt Status flags in the various devices.

If this final course is taken and the program enables another device on the same channel, the routine must save the SC location so the return address to the interrupted program will not be lost should another interrupt occur on that channel.

**Device Priority.** There are several ways in which priorities are determined for or assigned to devices. An elementary priority is established by the hardware for devices that are requesting interrupts simultaneously in that the processor brings in a channel address from one and only one device: among those that are waiting it takes the address from that one which is physically closest to the processor on the bus. This however applies only to those devices that are waiting at the time an interrupt is started. Using SFs to determine which device to service establishes a priority by the order in which the devices are tested, but again this applies only to those that are waiting at the time.

The most significant method is by controlling the Interrupt Status flags to specify which devices can interrupt a service routine currently in progress. These flags are each connected to a particular data line in the source and destination buses, so collectively they constitute the interrupt status register. By addressing this register as operator code 04, mnemonic ISR, the program can save the current priority structure, establish a new one, or restore a previous one. In general the devices are in order by speed, with the fastest ones (those requiring the quickest service) assigned to the higher numbered bits in ISR, but there is no established priority as the program can set up any ISR configuration. All devices whose Interrupt Status flags are clear cannot cause an interrupt to start (clearing the flag causes the withdrawal of any request that has already been made and prevents the setting of Ready from making a request) and are therefore regarded by the program as being of lower priority. Those devices in which Interrupt Status is set can interrupt the current routine and there-

fore are regarded by the program as being of higher priority.

The following lists the devices assigned to the bits in ISR, and for each gives the mask that must be loaded into ISR to allow only devices assigned to higher numbered bits to interrupt. [Complete information on all devices is given in Appendix F.]

ISR Bit	Device	Mask
0	Teletype output	177776
1	Teletype input	177774
2	High speed punch	177770
3	High speed reader	177760
4		177740
5		177700
6		177600
7		177400
8		177000
9		176000
10		174000
11		170000
12		160000
13		140000
14		100000
15		000000

A ZRC ISR sets all the flags, allowing all devices to interrupt; a ZR ISR clears them all.

By means of ISR the program can establish any priority structure with one limitation: two or more devices whose flags are the same bit in ISR (*ie* are connected to the same data line) are all at the same priority level. When an interrupt is in progress for a device, the rest of the devices assigned to the same bit must be regarded as all of higher priority or all of lower priority depending upon whether they are enabled or not.

**Dismissing an Interrupt.** After servicing a device the routine should restore the pre-interrupt states of any operators affected by the routine (MSR, TRP, general registers), turn on the interrupt, and return to the interrupted program. The instruction that turns the interrupt back on has no effect until the next instruction begins. Thus after the FOI ICO the processor always executes one more instruction (assumed to be the return to the interrupted program) before another inter-

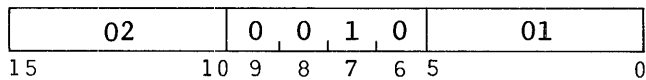


rupt can start. The return is usually an MR  $L, SC$  where  $L$  is the interrupt location for the channel, *ie* the location in which  $SC$  was saved when the interrupt was started.

If the service routine allows interrupts by higher priority devices, then before dismissing as indicated above, the routine should turn off the interrupt to prevent further interrupts during dismissal. In dismissing, the routine should reenable lower priority devices that were not allowed to interrupt the current routine but will be allowed to interrupt the program to which the processor is returning.

**Breakpoint.** The program can cause an interrupt at any time by the use of this instruction.

F0 2,1      Function Output, Breakpoint



Request an interrupt to location 0 and force the processor to accept it even if the interrupt control is off.

The interrupt requested by this instruction has priority over all others. After executing this instruction, the processor will first handle any direct memory requests that are waiting, but as soon as the last direct memory access is completed, an interrupt starts at location 0 even if the control is off. Starting the interrupt automatically removes the breakpoint request, but as previously indicated by the instructions recommended for locations 1-5, it should be assumed that a breakpoint has occurred if there is no power failure.

Obviously breakpoints are not used in any normal programming situation. They are in fact used almost exclusively for debugging purposes.

**Timing.** The time a device must wait

for an interrupt to start depends on how many devices are using interrupts, how long the service routines are for devices of higher priority, and whether the direct memory channel is in use. A single device will shut out all others of lower priority if every time its service routine dismisses the interrupt, it is already waiting with another request; and the direct memory channel can preempt all processor time. If the channel is not in use the highest priority device need never wait longer than the time required for the processor to finish the instruction that is being performed when the request is synchronized. Maximum waiting time for ordinary instructions including synchronization is therefore about 9  $\mu s$ . However the maximum possible time can be much longer if the program uses optional functional operators that stop the stored program. *Eg* multiplication can delay an interrupt by 56  $\mu s$  when done by external instructions.

The time the processor takes to start an interrupt and jump to a service routine is three cycles, about 5  $\mu s$ . An interrupt directly to a routine takes only the single cycle for storing  $SC$ .

**When to Use the Interrupt.** If the program has little computing to do and is using only one or two fast in-out devices or several slow ones, it may not be necessary to use the interrupt at all. On the other hand, if there are many calculations to perform and the program is using a fast device or is processing data using several slower devices, then the interrupt is necessary. The critical factors in determining whether to use the interrupt, and beyond that an ISR priority scheme, are what the program is doing besides in-out and the time required by the service routines. Suppose the program is doing nothing but processing data using reader, punch and teletype, and further suppose that no service routine requires more than say half a millisecond. In these circumstances the program could dispense with the interrupt and test all the devices (in the order just stated) by a loop containing SF and jump instructions, where

the reader service routine returns to the punch test and all others return to the beginning of the loop. The fastest device, the reader, will never be delayed too much. But suppose the program has a significant amount of computing to do. Then we must use the interrupt, but what about priority? If input-output service for the teletype requires .8 ms and punch service requires .5 ms, then the reader service will never be delayed too much if we simply turn the interrupt off while servicing each device. But if teletype service requires 20 ms per character, then neither reader nor punch will be able to run at full speed unless we use ISR to set up priority levels.

**Programming Suggestions.** A convenient method for handling a large number of priority levels is to use a pushdown list for saving the machine state. This obviates setting aside so many specific locations for saving MSR, TRP and various registers, and makes it very easy for a routine at any level in a sequence of nested routines to restore the state for the interrupted program.

Remember the following when programming an interrupt routine:

An interrupt cannot be started until the current instruction is finished. Therefore be cautious when using functional operators with lengthy external instruction sequences if devices that require very fast service can request an interrupt.

If several levels of interrupts are allowed, save the current ISR and reload it to shut out devices of lower priority.

Save MSR, TRP, etc if they will be used by the routine. *Eg* a routine could begin like this.

```
SUBR: RMI   ISR,0
      RMI   MSR,0
      RMI   TRP,0
      :
```

The principal function of an interrupt

routine is to respond to the situation that caused the interrupt. *Eg* computations that can be performed outside the routine should not be included within it.

Before returning to the interrupted program, restore the pre-interrupt states of ISR, MSR, TRP, etc. If they were saved as indicated above, they could be restored like this.

```
MR   SUBR+1,ISR
MR   SUBR+3,MSR
MR   SUBR+5,TRP
      :
```

## 2.9 DIRECT MEMORY ACCESS

The maximum rate for data transfers between external devices and core memory could be no greater than 80,000 words per second if the transfers were executed under program control. To allow rates up to 568,000 the processor contains a direct memory channel through which data can be transferred automatically using only one processor cycle per 16-bit word. At lower rates the channel also frees processor time to allow execution of a program concurrently with data transfers for a device.

Besides the straightforward transfer of a word between memory and a device in either direction, the channel also allows a device to increment by one a word already in memory. The direct memory channel is used by devices requiring very high data transfer rates, such as magnetic tape or disk, and by devices that utilize the memory increment feature, such as a pulse height analyzer.

The program cannot affect the channel directly because there are no instructions for it; instead the program sets up the device to use it. When the device requires data service, it requests direct memory access. At the beginning of every cycle the processor synchronizes any requests that are then being made. As soon as the processor completes an instruction in the

program or a cycle of two instructions in an external instruction sequence, it takes care of all requests that have been synchronized or are synchronized while it is handling transfers. If several devices are waiting for service simultaneously, the first to receive it is the one that is physically closest to the processor on the bus. After taking care of all direct memory requests, the processor returns to an external instruction sequence if one is in progress; otherwise it starts an interrupt if a device is waiting for one, or resumes the execution of instructions.

**Timing.** The time a device must wait for access depends on when its request is made within an instruction and how many devices of higher priority are also requesting access. Once the processor starts handling requests, a given device must wait until all devices closer than it on the bus have been serviced: the highest priority device can preempt all processor time if it requests access at the maximum rate. At less than the maximum rate the closest device need wait no longer than the time required for the processor to finish the instruction that is being performed when the request is synchronized. Maximum waiting time including synchronization is therefore about 9  $\mu$ s.

## 2.10 POWER FAILURE DETECTOR AND AUTORESTART

When ac power is turned on, memory is unaltered, all output Ready flags are set, other flags and control flipflops are clear, TRP, AX, AY and other registers are indeterminate, and if the autorestart switch is off, SC is clear and the computer is stopped. If ac power should fail while the computer is running, there is a delay of at least 100  $\mu$ s before the processor shuts down. In doing so, the processor always completes a cycle and sequences power off so the contents of memory are unaffected. The power failure detector warns the program when power is failing by requesting an interrupt to location 0. Although there

is no interrupt status flag for the detector, so the program cannot turn it off independently, the interrupt control must be on for a power failure to produce an interrupt. Before making any other tests when an interrupt starts at location 0, the program should give an SFM POK to skip if power is alright [§§2.6, 2.8].

If power does fail, the program should save TRP, MSR, ISR, and all registers, and then halt. The action taken by the processor when an adequate power level is restored depends on the autorestart switch located on the front panel of the power supply behind the console. If the switch is off, power comes back on with the machine stopped. If the switch is on, then a few seconds after power comes back on the processor begins executing instructions in normal sequence at location 6. Locations 6 and 7 should therefore contain a jump to a suitable restart routine.

## 2.11 OPERATION

The console is illustrated on page 1-5. The lights at the left display control conditions, the rows of lights at the right display the processor registers. Below the latter is a register of toggle switches through which the operator can supply addresses and data to the destination bus (the down position of a switch represents a 1). The register can be used in conjunction with some of the operating keys, and its contents can be read by the program by addressing it as source code 10.

In the row at the bottom left are the operating keys. All but SS and STOP are momentary-contact. Each switch produces its indicated function when pressed down, except for WRITE which is normally down and must be lifted up to write in memory. At the upper left is a pair of octal thumbwheels for selecting operator codes to be used with the data switches and lights.

At the bottom of the console are two key-operated rotary switches. Turning

the right one clockwise disables the operating keys so no one can interfere with the operation of the processor (the operator can still use the data switches to supply information to the program). Turning the left rotary switch clockwise turns on power. When power comes on the register lights bear no relation to the actual contents of the registers until the operator initializes them by performing some operation. However, if the autorestart switch is on, the processor will actually go into normal operation beginning at location 6. It is thus recommended that the operator turn on the STOP switch before turning power on. Then the computer will execute one instruction and stop, and the instruction execution will also initialize the lights (the address in SC will depend on the instruction).

**Indicators.** When any indicator is lit the associated flipflop is in the 1 state or the associated function is true. A few indicators display useful information while the processor is running, but most change too frequently and are therefore discussed in terms of the information they display when the processor has stopped.

The top four rows of lights at the right are installed only in the programmer's console. The top row displays the instruction being executed or the last instruction completed. The lights are organized for ease in reading the contents of IR, the six lights on each end being the source and destination addresses, the middle four lights being the control bits. The next three rows of lights in order below IR display the contents of SC, MA and MB. The MA lights indicate the address to which the last memory access was made, the MB lights display the last data transmitted to MB. The data display lights at the bottom are used in conjunction with the operating keys, but while the program is running they display any information sent to the destination selected by the thumbwheels. This allows the operator to monitor any destination, or by selecting an unused code, it allows the program to

supply information to the operator without affecting any internal register.

The lights at the left display the following control conditions.

FI	The next processor cycle will be used to fetch an instruction from memory.
FA	The next processor cycle will be used to fetch the address or process an immediate operand in a memory reference instruction.
FO	The next processor cycle will be used to process the operand in a memory reference data transmission instruction, or to fetch the second address in a deferred memory reference instruction of any type.
FD	The next processor cycle will be used to process the operand in a deferred memory reference data transmission instruction.
BK	The next processor cycle will be used to start an interrupt (break) by storing SC in the location addressed by the interrupting device.
DM	The next processor cycle will be used for direct memory access.
EI	The next processor cycle will be used to execute a pair of external instructions.
RUN	The processor is in normal operation with one instruction following another. When the light goes off, the computer stops.
IA	The interrupt control is active (on).
OF	The last data transmission instruction that incremented the word being transmitted increased its value to $2^{16}$ (this is the Bus Overflow flag).
L	This light displays the contents of the 1-bit link register.

**Operating Keys.** All of the switches at the lower left except SS and STOP are

interlocked so that they have no effect if RUN is lit. The switches perform these functions when turned on.

- START Set all Ready flags, clear all other flags and control flipflops, light FI and RUN, and begin normal operation by executing the instruction at the location specified by SC.
- CONT Turn RUN on and begin normal operation in the state indicated by the lights.
- READ Display the contents of the memory location addressed by SC in the MB lights, and in the data lights if the thumbwheels are set to 06. Then add 1 to SC. At completion FI is lit.
- WRITE Store the contents of the data switches in the memory location specified by SC. Then add 1 to SC. At completion FI is lit and the MB lights display the word stored; the data lights also display the word if the thumbwheels are set to 06.
- DISP Display the contents of the source register addressed by the thumbwheels in the data lights. At completion FI is lit.
- TRM Transmit the contents of the data switches to the destination register specified by the thumbwheels. At completion FI is lit and the data lights display the word transmitted.
- SS This is an alternate-action key. While it is down the processor stops at the end of every cycle it executes. The key is for maintenance purposes and allows the operator to run a diagnostic

routine or other program one step at a time. Operations are begun by pressing START, and each succeeding cycle is initiated by pressing CONT.

- STOP Stop at the completion of the current instruction with the IR lights displaying the instruction and SC pointing to the next instruction. The control lights at the left indicate the type of cycle the processor will execute when operation is resumed.

This is an alternate-action key, so the operator can run a program one instruction at a time by leaving STOP on, executing the first instruction by pressing START, and executing each succeeding instruction by pressing CONT.

To start the computer one must set the start address of the program in the data switches, set the thumbwheels to 07 (SC), and press TRM to load the address into SC. Then START starts the program at SC. Note that the operator can also continue operations in the current computer state but at any desired location by transmitting a new address to SC before pressing CONT.

Use of the DISP key does not affect the machine state. Thus the operator can stop the computer, examine the contents of any registers, and then continue operation. Use of the TRM key affects only the register selected by the thumbwheels and in some cases a device connected to that register. *Eg* transmitting the data switches to the teletype printer will print the 8-bit character in switches 0-7, thus affecting the state of the Output Ready flag and possibly its interrupt request.



## CHAPTER THREE

### FUNCTIONAL OPERATORS

These are the optional operators that perform various arithmetic and logical operations, keep track of real time, or just provide general purpose storage. The instructions that control them are simply particular cases of the basic instruction types discussed in §§2.2-2.5.

Execution times are given only for function generating instructions that start an operational sequence in a functional operator. Of course, the actual instruction in the program takes only one cycle, but the whole sequence looks like part of it, since the program cannot continue until the sequence is complete. The time given assumes no interruption. The time that actually elapses from the FO instruction until the result is available is the listed time plus any time used for direct memory access (program interrupts are not allowed).

#### 3.1 BASIC ARITHMETIC AND LOGIC

The arithmetic operator AO contains two registers, AX and AY, both of which can be addressed as source and destination for data. At all times the operator is in some specific functional state such that the operator output, which is addressable as a data source, is the given function of the contents of the two registers. *Eg* turning on system power or starting the processor from the console places AO in the add state, making the output continuously equal to

the sum of the numbers AX and AY. Changing the contents of either register changes the output to a new sum. Once in a given state, AO retains that state until changed by the program or by the operator pressing the start key.

The AO output is actually seventeen bits, wherein the extra bit is a carry, or equivalently an extra magnitude bit in a sum. But this extra bit is the overflow of the unsigned addition of AX and AY regardless of the functional state of AO — even if the low order sixteen bits of the AO output are a logical function. The overflow value can be determined only by function testing or reading machine status (the low order sixteen bits of the result are available as data).

The circumstances that generate a carry are obvious when dealing with unsigned numbers. An addition with result greater than  $2^{16} - 1$  overflows. In subtraction the condition is the same in terms of adding the twos complement; in terms of the original operands the subtraction  $A - B$ , which is executed by adding  $A$  and the twos complement of  $B$ , produces a carry if  $A \geq B$ . The statement of the carry conditions for signed numbers is more complex, but they are exactly equivalent to the conditions given above if the numbers are simply interpreted as unsigned. In addition, both summands are negative, or their signs differ and their magnitudes are equal or the positive one is the greater in magnitude. In subtraction, say  $A - B$ , the signs of the operands are the same and  $A \geq B$ , or the signs differ and  $A$  is negative.

*Example 3.1*

```

MR    Z,AX
RR    AX,AY           ;Put word in AX and AY
MRI   -10,TRP        ;Set up count for eight shifts
RM    TRP,M2+1
M1:   RS    AY,L1     ;Shift AY into link
      RS    AX,L1     ;Shift link into AX
M2:   MSI   0,P1      ;Count step
      SFM   BOV       ;Done?
      JU    M1        ;No, shift again
      :              ;Yes, AX has word with bytes swapped
      :

```

The register operator codes are 11 and 12, mnemonics AX and AY respectively. Code 13, mnemonic AO, addresses the arithmetic operator, both for its output and for function generating and testing. The functional state of the operator is available to the program as bits 9 and 8 of the machine status register (in the same configuration as given by this FO instruction).

The simplest way to determine whether the contents of AX and AY are identical is this:

```

FOA   XOR           ;Exclusive or
JC    AO,ETZ,YES   ;Jump to YES if
                        ;AX = AY

```

The following computes the number ten times that contained in location Z. (Assume Z now has a number less than  $2^{16}/10$ .)

```

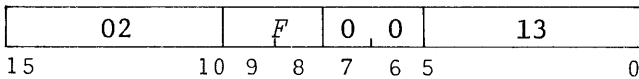
FOA   ADD           ;Add
FOM   CLL           ;Clear link
MR    Z,L1,AX       ;AX = 2Z
RR    AX,L1,AY      ;AY = 4Z
RR    AO,AX         ;AX = 6Z, AO = 10Z

```

Suppose we wish to use the word in location Z with its bytes swapped. Example 3.1 accomplishes this. Note that the example does not use the functional properties of AO; the shifting could just as well be done in a pair of general purpose registers, or in a pair of core locations if not even AO were available (the latter would be longer in both space and time). With both AO and general registers we could keep the count in one of the latter instead of in core; this would eliminate the memory reference in the sixth line (inside the loop) and would eliminate the third line altogether.

**Multiply Subroutine.** In pencil and paper decimal multiplication, one multiplies the multiplicand by each multiplier digit separately to form a set of partial products. Successive partial products are shifted one place to the left (they are multiplied

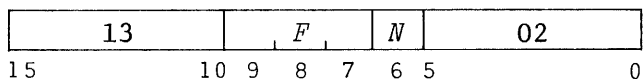
**FOA**                    **Function Output, Arithmetic**



Set AO to the state specified by *F* as follows.

<i>Bits 9-8</i>	<i>Mnemonic</i>	<i>Function</i>
0	ADD	Addition
1	AND	And
2	XOR	Exclusive Or
3	OR	Or

**SFA**                    **Sense Function, Arithmetic**



Perform a function test (as described in §2.5) on the carry if bit 7 in *F* is 1. The mnemonic AOV places a 1 in bit 7.



*Example 3.2*

```

MPY:  RMI  TRP,0           ;Save return address
      FOA  ADD            ;Select add
      FOM  CLL            ;Initialize sign flag
      JC   AX,GEZ,MPY1    ;Jump if multiplier positive
      RSC  AX,P1          ;Otherwise negate multiplier
      FOM  STL            ;And set flag
MPY1:  JC   AY,GEZ,MPY2    ;Jump if multiplicand positive
      RSC  AY,P1          ;Otherwise negate multiplicand and complement flag
      FOM  CML            ;(Result will be positive if flag is 0)

MPY2:  RM   AX,MPY3+1     ;Store multiplier in loop
      MRI  -20,AX         ;Set count for 16 steps
      RM   AX,MPY4+1
      ZR   AX             ;Initialize running sum

MPY3:  MSI  0,R1          ;Loop: rotate multiplier (carry sign flag along)
      SFM  NOT LNK        ;Skip if current multiplier bit is 0
      RR   MSR,R1,0       ;Otherwise put AOV in link
      RR   AO,AX          ;And update sum (SF skips two)
      RS   AX,R1          ;Shift sum — put low bit in link for replacing
                          ;multiplier
MPY4:  MSI  0,P1          ;Count step
      SFM  BOV            ;Done?
      JU   MPY3           ;No, store a bit and get another
      MR   MPY3+1,R1,AY   ;Yes, shift last bit into low part, sign flag into
                          ;link; put low half in AY
      SFM  LNK            ;Should product be negative?
      JUD  MPY+1          ;No, return
      RSC  AX             ;Yes, complement high part
      RSC  AY,P1          ;And negate low part
      SFM  NOT BOV        ;Any carry out of low part?
      RS   AX,P1          ;Yes, add it to high part
      NOP
      JUD  MPY+1          ;Return

```

by successive powers of 10) and summed. In the computer it is easier to add each partial product as it is formed and shift the result one place to the right so the running sum is in the correct position to receive the next one. Since the numbers are binary, each partial product is either the multiplicand or zero. Hence at each step we either add the multiplicand and shift or simply shift depending on whether the next bit of the multiplier is 1 or 0.

The multiply subroutine operates on signed numbers in AX and AY to generate a signed double length product whose

high and low order parts are left in AX and AY respectively (sign in AX bit 15, 31-bit magnitude in the rest of AX and all of AY). The routine, Example 3.2, is called by a JU MPY.

### 3.2 GENERAL PURPOSE REGISTERS

These are exactly what the name implies: two nonmemory registers that can be used for any purpose. Their operator codes are 26 and 27, mnemonics GR1 and GR2.

Suppose we wish to exchange the contents

of two memory locations, A and B. If we are limited to the basic processor we must use the sequence on the left, but the addition of general registers allows us to use the shorter sequence on the right.

```

MR  A,TRP          MR  A,GR1
RM  TRP,TEMP      MR  B,GR2
MR  B,TRP         RM  GR2,A
RM  TRP,A         RM  GR1,B
MR  TEMP,TRP
RM  TRP,B
    
```

If we have both an arithmetic operator and general registers, the multiply subroutine given at the end of the preceding section can be shortened by keeping the multiplier and the step count in GR1 and GR2. The three instructions beginning at MPY2 are replaced by this:

```

MPY2: RR  AX,GR1    ;Or simply start
      MRI  -20,GR2  ;with multiplier
                        ;in GR1
    
```

This saves three locations and five cycles. But now the MSIs at MPY3 and MPY4 can be replaced by RRs, saving two locations and two cycles in a loop that is iterated sixteen times. Hence the total saving is five locations and thirty-seven cycles.

### 3.3 BYTE OPERATIONS

The byte handling option card contains two operators, a byte swapper and a byte packer. The former has operator code 24, mnemonic BSW; the latter has code 25, mnemonic BPK.

Sending a word to the swapper makes the same word with its left and right halves interchanged available from the swapper. Suppose AX contains 012345, *ie* the two 8-bit bytes 00010100 and 11100101. This pair of instructions,

```

RR  AX,BSW
RR  BSW,AX
    
```

changes AX to 162424, *ie* 11100101 00010100.

Addressing the packer as destination in a data transmission instruction causes it to shift bits 0-7 of its own contents into bits 8-15, and accept bits 0-7 of the source register in its own right half. Thus each pair of transfers into BPK packs a pair of bytes from left to right. Say we have the codes for the characters A and B in bits 0-7 of locations D and D+1, and we wish to pack them with A on the left in location C. This suffices.

```

MR  D,BPK
MR  D+1,BPK
RM  BPK,C
    
```

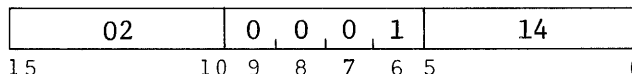
### 3.4 MULTIPLICATION

Multiplication can be performed much faster than with the multiply subroutine given in §3.1 by adding a multiply operator to the system. The user has a choice of two such operators: one has a read-only memory with a built-in routine that uses the arithmetic operator; the other is purely hardware and is even faster.

The first type has operator code 14, mnemonic MPO. It operates on unsigned integers to generate a double length product whenever the following instruction is given.

```

FO  STRT,MPO      FO, Start Multiplier
32 cycles          56.32 μs
    
```



If the arithmetic operator is in the add state, multiply the unsigned integer in AY by the unsigned integer in MPO, and add the product to the unsigned integer in AX. Place the high part of the result in AX, the most significant bit of the low part in the link, and the rest of the low part in MPO bits 15-1. MPO bit 0 retains the original state of the link.

Before using the above instruction the program must set up AO for addition, and it must clear AX if a straight product is desired. Following the multiplication the program should shift MPO right one if the low order part of the product is wanted. This also restores the link, which can be used as a sign flag.

The program must take care of the signs. The usual procedure is as shown in the multiply subroutine already given: use the link for a sign flag, make both operands positive, and then adjust the result. With the operands in AY and MPO, the following sequence performs the unsigned multiplication, with the instruction defined above replacing the loop in Example 3.2.

```

MPY:  RMI   TRP,0      ;Save return
      FOA   ADD        ;address
      ZR    AX
      FO    STRT,MPO   ;Start 32 cycle
                        ;multiply
      RS    MPO,R1     ;Finalize low part
                        ;restore link
      JUD   MPY+1      ;Return

```



## CHAPTER FOUR

### HARDCOPY EQUIPMENT

This chapter discusses the simpler peripheral devices: teletypewriter, tape reader, tape punch, card reader, card punch, plotter and line printer. These devices are used principally for communication between computer and operator using a paper medium: tape, cards, form paper or graph paper. All transfers for them are made by the program.

The program can type out characters on the teletype printer and can read characters that have been typed in at the keyboard. This device has the slowest transfer rate of any, but it provides a convenient means of man-machine interaction. The KSR teletypes comprise only a keyboard and printer; the ASR models also have a slow speed tape reader and punch. This punch and the separate high speed punch supply output in the form of 8-channel perforated paper tape. The information punched in the tape can be brought into the system by the high speed tape reader or the one mounted in the teletype.

The card equipment processes standard 12-row 80-column cards. Many programmers find cards a convenient medium for source program input and for supplying data that varies from one program to another. Cards and paper tape are both convenient to prepare manually, but card input is much faster than tape, and simple changes are easier to make: individual cards can be repunched, and cards can be added or removed from the deck. A possible consideration in using cards is that many installations do not include an online

card punch.

The line printer provides text output at a relatively high rate. The program must effectively typeset each line; upon command the printer then prints the entire line. With the plotter, the program can produce ink drawings by controlling the incremental motion of pen on paper in a cartesian coordinate system. Curves and figures of any shape can be generated by proper combinations of motion in  $x$  and  $y$ .

#### 4.1 TELETYPEWRITER

Two teletype models are regularly available for use with the GRI-909: the ASR33 and KSR33, both of which are capable of speeds up to ten characters per second. The program can type out characters and can read in the characters produced when keys are struck at the keyboard. With an ASR the program can also punch characters in a tape and read characters from a tape.

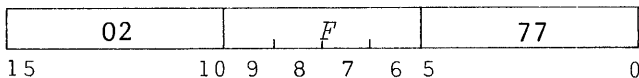
The teletype separates its input and output functions and is really two distinct devices that share the same operator code. Each device has its own Ready and Interrupt Status flags, and its own interrupt channel and status bit assignments. Placing a code for a character in the output buffer causes the teletype to print the character or perform the designated control function. Striking a key places the code for the associated character in the input buffer where it can be retrieved by the program,

but it does nothing at the teletype unless the program sends the code back as output.

Character codes received from the keyboard have eight bits wherein the most significant is always 1, but the printer ignores this bit in characters transmitted to it (eg codes 123 and 323 print the same character). Lower case characters (codes 340-376) are not available on the keyboard, but transmitting a lower case code to the teletype causes it to print the corresponding upper case character. (There are, of course, no restrictions on the codes that can be punched in or read from tape). To go to the beginning of a new line the program must send both a carriage return, which moves the type block to the left margin, and a line feed, which spaces the paper. The horizontal and vertical tabs and form feed have no effect on the printer. Horizontal tabs are usually simulated by spaces, with tab settings at every eighth column (9, 17, ...)

The teletype input and output both use operator code 77, mnemonic TTI or TTO. As the source in a data transmission (or data testing) instruction, this code retrieves a character from the teletype input buffer; as the destination in data transmission, it sends a character to the output buffer. In function generating or testing instructions, it represents both devices.

F0 -,TTO                      F0, Teletype Output  
 F0 -,TTI                      F0, Teletype Input



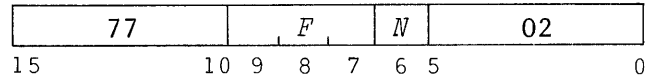
Perform the functions specified by 1s in *F* as follows.

Bit	Mnemonic	Function
6	STRT	Read one character from tape into the input buffer
7	ORDY	Clear Output Ready

9                      IRDY                      Clear Input Ready

Programming 1s in bits 6 and 9, mnemonic INP, clears Input Ready and starts the reader.

SF TTO,                      SF, Teletype Output  
 SF TTI,                      SF, Teletype Input



Perform a function test (as described in §2.5) on the flags selected by 1s in *F* as follows.

Bit	Mnemonic	Flag
7	ORDY	Output Ready
9	IRDY	Input Ready

### Teletype Output

Output Interrupt Status is bit 0 of the status register, and the teletype output interrupts to location 11.

Sending a character from bits 0-7 of any source register to the output buffer clears Output Ready (removing the interrupt request) and turns on the transmitter, causing it to send the contents of the output buffer serially to the teletype (the buffer is cleared during transmission). The printer prints the character or performs the indicated control function. If the punch is on, the character is also punched in the tape, with bit 0 corresponding to channel 1 (a 1 produces a hole in the tape). Completion of transmission sets Output Ready, requesting an interrupt if Output Interrupt Status is set.

Timing. The teletype can type or punch up to ten characters per second. After Output Ready is set, the program has 18.18 ms to send another character to keep typing or punching at the maximum rate. The sequence carriage return-line feed, when

iven in that order, allows sufficient time for the type block to get to the beginning of a new line.

### Teletype Input

Input Interrupt Status is bit 1 of the status register, and the teletype input interrupts to location 14.

Reception from the keyboard requires no initiating action by the program: striking a key clears Input Ready and transmits the code for the character serially to the input buffer. Completion of reception sets Input Ready, requesting an interrupt if Input Interrupt status is set. Upon retrieving the character in bits 0-7, the program should give an FO IRDY,TTI to clear Input Ready and remove the interrupt request if more input is expected.

If the reader is under program control, giving an FO INP,TTI clears Input Ready (removing the interrupt request) and causes the reader to read all eight channels from the next frame on tape. The reader transmits the frame serially to the buffer, with channel 1 corresponding to bit 0 (the presence of a hole produces a 1 in the buffer). Completion of reception sets Input Ready, requesting an interrupt if Input Interrupt Status is set.

Timing. After Input Ready is set the character is available for retrieval for 20.45 ms before another key strike can destroy it. If the reader is in use, the program has 20.45 ms to give an FO INP,TTI and keep the tape in continuous motion.

### Programming Examples

There are basically two procedures for using the function testing instructions in a loop to process a series of characters. Consider this loop for typing out characters from a table beginning at location TAB (we assume the printer is not in use).

```
OUT: MRID  TAB-1, TTO    ;Type out
      SF    TTO,ORDY    ;Wait till trans-
      JU    .-1         ;mission done
      :           ;Compute
      :
      JU    OUT         ;Go back
```

This procedure is very poor as most of the time is spent waiting during the transmission, and there is very little time to do anything afterwards if we are to go back to type out the next character at full speed. But with this arrangement:

```
OUT: SF    TTO,ORDY    ;Wait till printer
      JU    .-1         ;free
      MRID  TAB-1, TTO    ;Type out
      :           ;Compute, etc
      :
      JU    OUT         ;Go back
```

we have almost all of the time for worthwhile program and we can run at full speed provided only that we jump back to OUT before the entire teletype cycle time is over. Also, the first time into the loop we wait until any previous (perhaps unknown to us) teletype output operation is finished.

Of course, using the interrupt eliminates all waiting time. Suppose we wish to type out twenty characters (one per location) beginning at TAB, using one of the general purpose registers to count the characters. Our main program might set things up like Example 4.1 where we assume that the program left Output Ready on the last time the teletype output was used. Hence an interrupt will occur immediately for the first character. The interrupt routine might be like Example 4.2. If we do not care whether TRP is affected, we could substitute

```
JC    GR1,ETZ,DONE
```

for testing overflow and loading SC. This saves no time but it takes only two locations instead of three.

Without the interrupt, the dichotomy discussed above exists also for input operations. This is bad:

*Example 4.1*

```

MRI   -24,GR1           ;Set up GR1: 2010 = 248
MRI   014207,TRP       ;Set up channel locations 7,10
RM    TRP,7            ;014207 = 06 0010 07 = MRI -,SC
MRI   OUT-1,TRP
RM    TRP,10
FOI   ICO              ;Turn interrupt on
ZR    P1,ISR           ;Set Output Interrupt Status
:
:                       ;Continue program

```

*Example 4.2*

```

OUT:  MRID  TAB-1,TTO   ;Type out character
      RMI   MSR,0       ;Save machine state
      RS    GR1,P1      ;Count character
      SFM   BOV         ;Done yet?
      MRI   DONE-1,SC   ;Yes
      MR    OUT+3,MSR   ;Restore machine state
      FOI   ICO         ;Turn interrupt back on
      MR    6,SC        ;Return to main program
DONE: MR    OUT+3,MSR   ;Restore machine state
      ZR    ISR         ;Disable interrupt
      MR    6,SC        ;Return

```

```

IN:   FO    INP,TTO     ;Read character           JU    IN           ;Do this if want
      SF    TTI,IRDY    ;Wait till recep-      ;another
      JU    .-1         ;tion done                ;Skip to here if
      RMID  TTI,TAB-1   ;Store character        :                       ;not
      :           ;Decide whether to
      :           ;read another,etc
      JU    IN          ;Go back

```

## Operation

but this is good:

```

IN:   FO    INP,TTI     ;Read character
      :           ;Lots of time
      SF    TTI,IRDY    ;Wait till recep-
      JU    .-1         ;tion done
      RMID  TTI,TAB-1   ;Store character

      SF    TTO,ORDY    ;Lets make a copy
      JU    .-1         ;of the tape while
      RR    TTI,TTO     ;we are at it

      :           ;Decide whether to
      :           ;read another

```

A KSR is actually two independent devices, keyboard and printer, which can be operated simultaneously. An ASR is really four devices, keyboard, printer, reader and punch, which can be operated in various combinations. Power must be turned on by the operator: the switch is beside the keyboard and is labeled LINE/OFF/LOCAL or ON/OFF and has an unmarked third position opposite ON. When this switch is set to LOCAL or the unmarked position, power is on but the machine is off line and can be used like a typewriter. Moreover, in an ASR, turning on the punch allows the operator to punch a tape from the keyboard, and running the reader allows a tape to control the printer (if the punch is also on, it duplicates the tape).



Turning the switch to LINE or ON connects the unit to the computer and separates its input and output functions. Thus any information transmitted to the computer from the keyboard affects the printer only insofar as the computer sends it back. Turning on the reader places it under program control, and turning on the punch causes it to punch whatever is sent to the printer by the computer.

The only control on the reader is a 3-position switch. When the switch is in the FREE position, the tape can be moved by hand freely through the reader mechanism. The STOP position engages the reader clutch so the tape is stationary but the reader is still off. Turning the switch to START causes the reader to read the tape if the unit is in local, but places it under program control if on line.

The operator controls the punch by means of four pushbuttons. The two on the right turn the punch on and off. Pressing the REL button releases the tape so it can be moved by hand through the punch mechanism. Pressing B.SP. moves the tape backward one frame so the operator can delete a frame that is incorrect by striking the rubout key. Pressing HERE IS with the keyboard in local punches twenty lines of blank tape (lines with only a feed hole punched).

The keyboard resembles that of a standard typewriter. Codes for printable characters on the upper parts of the key tops are transmitted by using the shift key; most control codes require use of the control key. The line feed spaces the paper vertically at six lines to the inch, and must be combined with a return to start a new line. The local line feed and return keys affect the printer directly and do not transmit codes. Appendix F lists the complete teletype code, ASCII characters and key combinations. Pressing the REPT button and striking any character key causes transmission of the corresponding code so long as REPT is held down. Characters that require the shift key may also be repeated in this manner, but there is no repetition

of control characters.

Teletype manuals supplied with the equipment give complete, illustrated descriptions of the procedures for loading paper and tape and changing the ribbon. The best and easiest way to learn how to do any of these things is to have someone who knows show you how, but as a precautionary measure we also describe them here.

**Tape.** The tape moves in the reader from back to front with the feed holes closer to the left edge. To load tape, set the switch to FREE, release the cover guard by opening the latch at the right, place the tape so that the sprocket wheel teeth engage the feed holes, close the cover guard, and set the switch to STOP.

To load tape in the punch, raise the cover, feed the tape manually from the top of the roll into the guide at the back, move the tape through the punch by turning the friction wheel, then close the cover. Turn on the punch with the unit in local and punch about two feet of leader by pressing HERE IS or the control, shift and P keys to generate null codes.

**Paper.** The printer has an 8½-inch roll of paper at the back. Printed sections can be torn off against the edge of the glass window in front of the platen. To replenish the paper, snap open the cover, remove the old roll and slip a new one in its place. Draw the paper from the roll around the platen as in an ordinary typewriter.

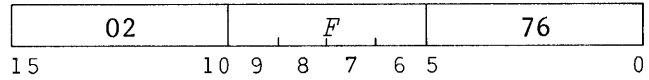
**Ribbon.** Replace the ribbon whenever it becomes worn or frayed or the printing becomes too light. Disengage the old ribbon from the ribbon guides on either side of the type block, and remove the reels by lifting the spring clips on the reel spindles and pulling the reels off. Remove the old ribbon from one of the reels and replace the empty reel on one side of the machine; install a new reel on the other side. Push down both reel spindle spring clips to secure the reels. Unwind the fresh ribbon from the inside of the supply reel, over the guide roller, through the two guides on either side of the type block, out around the other guide roller,

and back onto the inside of the takeup reel. Engage the hook on the end of the ribbon over the point of the arrow in the hub. Wind a few turns of the ribbon to make sure that the reversing eyelet has been wound onto the spool. Make sure the ribbon is seated properly and feeds correctly in operation.

### 4.2 PAPER TAPE READER AND PUNCH

The high speed reader and punch are totally separate devices — even physically — but they share a single operator code in the same manner that the teletype input and output do. The common operator code is 76, mnemonic HSR or HSP. Each interface contains an 8-bit buffer that corresponds to bits 0-7 of a computer word; the reader buffer is addressable as a source of data, the punch buffer as a destination.

FO -,HSR                      FO, High Speed Reader  
 FO -,HSP                      FO, High Speed Punch

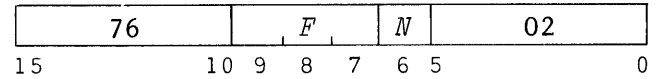


Perform the functions specified by 1s in *F* as follows.

<i>Bit</i>	<i>Mnemonic</i>	<i>Function</i>
6	STRT	Read one character from tape into the reader buffer
7	ORDY	Clear Punch (Output) Ready
9	IRDY	Clear Reader (Input) Ready

Programming 1s in bits 6 and 9, mnemonic INP, clears Reader Ready and starts the reader.

SF HSR,                      FO, High Speed Reader  
 SF HSP,                      FO, High Speed Punch



Perform a function test (as described in §2.5) on the flags selected by 1s in *F* as follows.

<i>Bit</i>	<i>Mnemonic</i>	<i>Flag</i>
7	ORDY	Punch Ready
9	IRDY	Reader Ready

#### Paper Tape Reader

The reader processes 8-channel perforated paper or mylar tape photoelectrically at a speed of 300 frames per second. Reader Interrupt Status is bit 3 of the status register, and the reader interrupts to location 22.

Giving an FO INP,HSR clears Ready (removing the interrupt request) and causes the reader to read all eight channels from the next frame on tape into the buffer, with channel 1 corresponding to bit 0 (the presence of a hole produces a 1 in the buffer). When the operation is complete the reader sets Ready, requesting an interrupt if Interrupt Status is set.

**Timing.** At 300 frames per second the reader takes 3.3 ms per character, but the program must read several frames before the reader reaches maximum speed. After Ready is set, the program has 1.5 ms to retrieve the character and give an FO INP, HSR to keep the tape in continuous motion. Waiting longer forces the reader to operate at a speed no greater than 150 frames per second.

**Operation.** Tapes can be oiled or not but must be opaque. To load the reader, place the fanfold tape stack vertically in the bin at the right, oriented so that the front end of the tape is nearer the read head and the feed holes are away from you. Lift the gate, take three or four folds of tape from the bin, and slip the tape into the reader from the front.

Carefully line up the feed holes with the sprocket teeth to avoid damaging the tape, and close the gate. Make sure that the part of the tape in the left bin is placed to correspond to the folds, otherwise it will not stack properly. Turn on the power switch so the reader can respond to the program.

### Paper Tape Punch

The punch perforates 8-channel paper tape at speeds up to 60 frames per second. Interrupt Status is bit 2 of the status register, and the punch interrupts to location 17.

Sending a character from bits 0-7 of any source register to the punch buffer clears Ready (removing the interrupt request) and causes the punch to punch the contents of the buffer in the tape, with bit 0 corresponding to channel 1 (a 1 produces a hole in the tape). After punching is complete, the device sets Ready, requesting an interrupt if Interrupt Status is set.

**Timing.** Punching is synchronized to a punch cycle of 16.7 ms. After Ready sets, the program has 10 ms to send another character to keep punching at the maximum rate; after 10 ms punching is delayed until the next cycle.

**Example.** With direct function processing a program for duplicating a tape is quite simple.

```
DUP:  FO    INP,HSR    ;Read
      SF    HSR,IRDY  ;Wait for character
      JU    .-1
      SF    HSP,ORDY  ;Got it, wait for
      JU    .-1      ;punch
      RR    HSR,HSP   ;Move character to
                        ;punch
      JU    DUP      ;Read another
```

**Operation.** Punch power must be left on all the time that the punch might be used as it otherwise will not respond to the program. Fanfold tape is fed from a box behind the punch inside its enclosure. After it is punched, the tape moves into a storage bin from which the

operator may remove it through a slot in the front. Pushing the feed button beside the slot clears the buffer and punches blank tape (tape with only feed holes punched) as long as it is held in, provided power is on.

To load tape, first empty the chad box. Then tear off the top of a box of fanfold tape (the top has a single flap; the bottom of the box has a small flap in the center as well as the flap that extends the full length of the box). Set the box in the frame and thread the tape through the punch mechanism. The arrows on the tape should be on top and should point in the direction of tape motion. If they are underneath, turn the box around. If they point in the opposite direction, the box was opened at the wrong end; remove the box, seal up the bottom, open the top, and thread the tape correctly.

To facilitate loading, tear or cut the end of the tape diagonally. Thread the tape under the out-of-tape plate, open the guide plate (over the sprocket wheel), push the tape beyond the sprocket wheel, and close the guide plate. Press the feed button long enough to punch about a foot and a half of leader. Make sure the tape is feeding and folding properly in the storage bin.

To remove a length of perforated tape from the bin, first press the feed button long enough to provide an adequate trailer at the end of the tape (and also leader at the beginning of the next length of tape). Remove the tape from the bin and tear it off at a fold within the area in which only feed holes are punched. Make sure that the tape left in the bin is stacked to correspond to the folds; otherwise, it will not stack properly as it is being punched. After removal, turn the tape stack over so the beginning of the tape is on top, and *label it* with *name*, *date*, and other appropriate information.

## 4.3 BOOTSTRAP LOADERS

Before a program can be executed it must be brought into memory. This requires

*Example 4.3*

```

;BOOTSTRAP LOADER: TELETYPE, BYTE PACKER

      FOM   HLT           ;Halt between blocks
BLTP:  FO   INP,TTI       ;Get first (control) frame
      SF   TTI,IRDY
      JU   .-1
      JC   TTI,ETZ,BLTP-1 ;Jump if end of block

      FO   INP,TTI       ;Got control frame - ignore it and get first byte
      SF   TTI,IRDY       ;(second frame)
      JU   .-1
      RR   TTI,BPK       ;Left byte (8-15) to packer
      FO   INP,TTI       ;Get second byte (third frame)
      SF   TTI,IRDY
      JU   .-1
      RR   TTI,BPK       ;Right byte (0-7) to packer

M1:    RMID  BPK,0       ;Store target word
      JU   BLTP         ;Continue

```

*Example 4.4*

```

;BOOTSTRAP LOADER: TELETYPE, ARITHMETIC OPERATOR

      FOM   HLT           ;Halt between blocks
BLTA:  FO   INP,TTI       ;Get first (control) frame
      SF   TTI,IRDY
      JU   .-1
      JC   TTI,ETZ,BLTA-1 ;Jump if end of block

      RM   TTI,M2+1       ;Store control frame for shift count
      FO   INP,TTI       ;Get first byte (second frame)
      SF   TTI,IRDY
      JU   .-1
      RR   TTI,AX        ;Left byte (8-15) to AX (0-7)
      FO   INP,TTI       ;Get second byte (third frame)
      SF   TTI,IRDY
      JU   .-1
      RR   TTI,AY        ;Right byte (0-7) to AY

      FOM   CLL           ;Initialize link
M1:    RS   AX,L1        ;Loop, shift AX left 8
M2:    MSI  O,R1
      SFM  LNK          ;Has control frame set link?
      JU   M1           ;No, shift again

M3:    RMID  AO,0       ;Yes, store target word
      JU   BLTA        ;Continue

```

that a loading program already reside in core. If the memory is empty, one can use the console switches to load in a bootstrap loader, which is ordinarily used only to bring in a more extensive block loader. This latter program is then used to read the object tapes of

all other programs. Both the bootstrap and the block loader usually reside in high core where they are not disturbed by any of the standard GRI-909 software. But if an undebugged user routine inadvertently destroys the block loader, it can be restored by first reloading the bootstrap

manually.

There are several bootstrap loaders depending on which functional operators are included in the system, and for each there are two versions, one for the teletype reader, the other for the high speed reader. Every time any bootstrap loader is used, the operator must key in an address one less than the first location that is to be loaded.

Every bootstrap loader reads a tape in a special format in which each word requires three frames. The first is the control code 200, the second and third are the left and right 8-bit bytes of the binary word to be stored. A block may contain any number of 3-frame sets, but it is recommended that they be kept short. The tape should begin with blank frames (*ie* leader), and null codes separate the blocks. The loader halts every time it encounters a block separator (*ie* a null frame that is not in a 3-frame program segment), but it can be restarted simply by pressing the continue key.

Example 4.3 is a bootstrap loader that utilizes the teletype and the byte packer. To use it the operator must key the initial load address minus one into location M1+1 and start the bootstrap from the console at location BLTP. Example 4.4 uses the arithmetic operator instead of the byte packer. One less than the load address must be keyed into location M3+1. The loader uses the control frame (200) for the shift count, and since it is started by the start key, A0 is set up for addition.

The table on the next page lists the memory words for the two loaders given above and also for one that uses no optional functional operators. All are written for the teletype reader; for the high speed reader simply substitute operator code 76 wherever 77 appears in the list. Always place the loader in the very top of core. Thus to key in the loader for the arithmetic operator in an 8K memory, first set 017742 in the switch register, set the thumbwheels to 07, and press TRM. Then successively set each word in the

switch register and press WRITE.

To use the bootstrap to load the block loader or any other program in the special format, follow these steps:

1. Put the special format tape in the reader and turn it on.
2. Set the address of the location that must contain the initial load address - 1 in the switch register (address *xx775* for the arithmetic operator or byte packer, otherwise *xx770*).
3. Set the thumbwheels to 07 and press TRM.
4. Set the initial load address - 1 in the switch register and press WRITE.
5. Set the start address of the bootstrap (the second address from the top in the appropriate column of the table) in the switch register and press TRM.
6. Press START

The bootstrap will halt at every block separator and following the final block with the start address of the bootstrap in SC.

## BOOTSTRAP LOADERS

Basic Processor  
Only

```

xxx727 02 0100 00
xxx730 02 1001 77
xxx731 77 1000 02
xxx732 00 0100 03
xxx733 0xxx731
xxx734 77 0100 03
xxx735 0xxx727
xxx736 77 0000 06
xxx737 0xxx761
xxx740 77 0000 06
xxx741 0xxx772
xxx742 02 1001 77
xxx743 77 1000 02
xxx744 00 0100 03
xxx745 0xxx743
xxx746 77 0001 06
xxx747 0xxx770
xxx750 02 1001 77
xxx751 77 1000 02
xxx752 00 0100 03
xxx753 0xxx751
xxx754 77 0000 06
xxx755 0xxx757
xxx756 06 1010 06
xxx757 0
xxx760 06 1110 06
xxx761 0
xxx762 00 0100 02
xxx763 00 0100 03
xxx764 0xxx756
xxx765 06 1000 06
xxx766 0xxx757
xxx767 06 1000 06
xxx770
xxx771 06 1110 06
xxx772 0
xxx773 00 0100 02
xxx774 00 0100 03
xxx775 0xxx765
xxx776 00 0100 03
xxx777 0xxx730

```

Key load address  
- 1 into xxx770.  
Start at xxx730.

Arithmetic  
Operator

```

xxx742 02 0100 00
xxx743 02 1001 77
xxx744 77 1000 02
xxx745 00 0100 03
xxx746 0xxx744
xxx747 77 0100 03
xxx750 0xxx742
xxx751 77 0000 06
xxx752 0xxx770
xxx753 02 1001 77
xxx754 77 1000 02
xxx755 00 0100 03
xxx756 0xxx754
xxx757 77 0000 11
xxx760 02 1001 77
xxx761 77 1000 02
xxx762 00 0100 03
xxx763 0xxx761
xxx764 77 0000 12
xxx765 02 0001 00
xxx766 11 1000 11
xxx767 06 1110 06
xxx770 0
xxx771 00 0100 02
xxx772 00 0100 03
xxx773 0xxx766
xxx774 13 0011 06
xxx775
xxx776 00 0100 03
xxx777 0xxx743

```

Key load address  
- 1 into xxx775.  
Start at xxx743.

## Byte Packer

```

xxx753 02 0100 00
xxx754 02 1001 77
xxx755 77 1000 02
xxx756 00 0100 03
xxx757 0xxx755
xxx760 77 0100 03
xxx761 0xxx753
xxx762 02 1001 77
xxx763 77 1000 02
xxx764 00 0100 03
xxx765 0xxx763
xxx766 77 0000 25
xxx767 02 1001 77
xxx770 77 1000 02
xxx771 00 0100 03
xxx772 0xxx770
xxx773 77 0000 25
xxx774 25 0011 06
xxx775
xxx776 00 0100 03
xxx777 0xxx754

```

Key load address  
- 1 into xxx775.  
Start at xxx754.

Note: For the high speed reader substitute operator code 76 for every 77 that appears above.

## APPENDIX A

### THE SYSTEM ORIENTED ASSEMBLY LANGUAGE, FAST

The body of this manual describes the instructions that can be performed by the GRI-909 and gives the mnemonic terms employed to write a program using the basic assembly language, BASE. But there is another assembler that allows the programmer to write in a functional or system-oriented language. The end result of either language is the same: the 16-bit words produced for the object program are identical, since the absolute instruction format is a function of the hardware. But in place of the terse symbology of the basic assembly language, FAST has a vocabulary and a grammar that allow one to write a program using statements that are similar to those in ordinary English.

In order to program properly, the programmer is strongly advised to read the body of this manual, particularly Chapters 1 and 2, not only to learn how to handle the various operators, input-output, interrupt programming and the like, but also to learn precisely what each instruction does. But if the programmer is going to use FAST, then he can ignore the basic instruction mnemonics defined for BASE and can skip the discussion of the various programming conventions for that language.

To a great extent the two languages actually share a common vocabulary, and most of the terms defined in the body of the manual have the same meaning (and hence the same numerical value) in FAST. The primary difference between the two languages is in the way the terms are used and the fact that FAST has additional operational terms that produce the similarity to ordinary English. The basic mnemonic terms for operator codes, output functions, test conditions, etc defined for FAST are the following.

#### *Operator Codes (Device Addresses)*

AO Arithmetic Operator  
AX Register AX

AY Register AY  
BPK Byte packer  
BSW Byte swapper  
GR1 General register 1  
GR2 General register 2  
HSR High speed paper tape reader  
HSP High speed paper tape punch  
ISR Interrupt status register  
MPO Multiply operator  
MSR Machine status register  
SUM Adder  
SWR Console switch register  
SC Sequence counter  
TRP Trap register  
TTI Teletype input  
TTO Teletype output  
ZERO Null (0) operator

#### *Data Transmission Terms*

C Complement of source  
I Immediate addressing  
D Deferred addressing  
. The current address  
P1 Increment by 1  
L1 Shift left one bit  
R1 Shift right one bit

#### *Data Test Conditions*

ETZ Equal to zero  
LTZ Less than zero  
GTZ Greater than zero  
NEZ Not equal to zero  
GEZ Greater than or equal to zero  
LEZ Less than or equal to zero

#### *Functions (Output Pulses)*

ADD Select AO addition  
AND Select AO AND function  
OR Select AO OR function  
XOR Select AO exclusive OR function  
CLR Clear link  
STL Set link  
CML Complement link  
HLT Halt machine  
CLIF Clear input (Ready) flag (TTI, HSR)

CLOF Clear output (Ready) flag (TTO, HSP)  
 ICF Interrupt control off  
 ICO Interrupt control on  
 STRT Start

#### Function Test Conditions

AOV Arithmetic Overflow flag  
 BOV Bus Overflow flag  
 SOV Sum overflow flag  
 LNK Link  
 IRDY Input Ready (TTI, HSR)  
 ORDY Output Ready (TTO, HSP)  
 POK Power ok  
 NOT Negate test condition

Other basic programming conventions given on page 1-10 are also used by FAST. The period represents the current address, a colon following a symbol indicates that it is a symbolic location name, and anything written at the right of a semicolon is commentary that explains the program but is not part of it.

The system language also contains these operational symbols.

TO Move data or control information from the specified source to the specified destination.

IF ... GO TO Test data from the specified source and transfer program control (*ie* jump) to the specified location if the test condition is satisfied.

GO TO Transfer program control (jump) to the specified location.

SKIP (IF) Test a function (status) and skip the next two locations if the test is positive.

By combining these operational terms with the operator codes and other mnemonic symbols that are mostly shared with BASE, instructions in a program can be represented by statements that are closer to those of a natural language. Moreover the struc-

ture of the language actually allows the programmer to use the symbols for operators, test conditions, and the like, in a more flexible way than they can be used in the basic assembler.

#### Data Transmission

Nonmemory reference data transmission instructions are of the form

*Register X (Modification) TO Register Y*

or more generally,

*Source (Modification) TO Destination*

where neither the source nor the destination is memory. Hence to take a word from AX, increment it by one, and place the result in AY, give

AX P1 TO AY

To use the complement of the source, place the letter C in front of the statement. Thus

C AX P1 TO AY

places the twos complement of AX in AY. The twos complement of AX is placed in AX (in other words the register is transferred to itself) simply by failing to specify any destination (the TO is also dropped):

C AX P1

Data transmission instructions that reference memory are of either of these two forms:

*Register (Modification) TO Location*

*Location (Modification) TO Register*

The letters I and D, for immediate and deferred addressing, precede the term (if any) that specifies the location. Thus to store AX in location ANS, give

AX TO ANS

but to store it in the location following the current instruction, give

AX TO I

To load AX from ANS give

ANS TO AX



but to load AX from the location one greater than that addressed by the contents of say POINT, give

D POINT TO AX

For either type of data transmission instruction, ZERO specifies a null operator. This supplies zero when specified as a source, and as a destination it allows the programmer to affect Bus Overflow or the link without affecting any operator. Thus

ZERO TO AX

clears AX, whereas

GRI P1 TO ZERO

sets Bus Overflow if GRI contains  $2^{16} - 1$ .

The following are typical examples of data transmission instructions in FAST.

TTI TO TTO	Send a character from teletype input to teletype output
AX L1	Shift AX left one bit (equivalent to AX L1 TO AX)
ZERO P1 TO AX	Set AX to +1
C ZERO TO AX	Set AX to -1
AX L1 TO ZERO	Set the link if AX is negative (bit 15 is 1)
AX R1 TO ZERO	Set the link if AX is odd
GRI P1 TO Z+1	Increment the word from GRI and store it in location Z+1
I 21 TO AX	Load the number 21 into AX
COUNT P1 TO GRI	Increment the word from location COUNT and place the result in GRI
O TO SC	Load the contents of location O into SC (this is the return from a standard interrupt routine)
COUNT P1	Increment the word in location COUNT
I O P1	Increment the contents of the location following the current instruction

X L1	Shift the contents of location X left one bit
------	---

### Data Testing

These instructions have the form

*IF Operator Condition GO TO Location*

Deferred addressing is selected by a D preceding the location. Thus the statement

IF TTI ETZ GO TO AGAIN

jumps to location AGAIN if the character in the teletype input buffer is zero.

IF ISR NEZ GO TO D EXIT

jumps to the location whose address is one greater than the contents of location EXIT if any device is enabled to interrupt. To jump unconditionally to location EXIT simply give

GO TO EXIT

### Function Generation

The form for these instructions is

*Function TO Operator*

Thus the statement

STRT TO HSR

causes the high speed paper tape reader to read the next character on tape,

ADD TO AO

sets up the arithmetic operator for addition. Functions for the same destination may be combined by giving them together, *eg*

CLIF STRT TO TTO

clears the Input Ready flag and causes the teletype operator to read the next character from tape. The structure of FAST allows the mnemonic term for a function to be given alone if it represents a function that applies to only one destination operator. Hence the following are complete function generating instruction statements in FAST.

CLL Clear link

STL Set link  
 HLT Halt  
 OR Select OR function in AO  
 ADD Select addition in AO  
 CML Complement link (= CLL STL)

### Function Testing

The form for these statements is

SKIP IF *Operator Function*

where IF is optional and need not be given. In a manner analogous to function generating instructions, the source operator need not be given if the mnemonic for the function is unique to that operator. Hence the statement

SKIP IF TTI IRDY

skips the next two locations if teletype input is ready, whereas the simpler statement

SKIP IF BOV

tests Bus Overflow for a skip. Since the IF is optional, statements can be made even simpler; *eg*

SKIP AOV

tests Arithmetic Overflow.

An instruction can test whether any of several conditions is true for the same operator by giving the mnemonics together, and the test conditions can be negated, *ie* the test can be that none of the named conditions are true by placing NOT before the terms that specify the functions to be tested. Thus

SKIP BOV LNK

skips if either Bus Overflow or the link is set, whereas

SKIP NOT BOV LNK

skips if neither Bus Overflow nor the link is set.

### Sample Programs

To better show the relation between the two assembly languages the following routine written in FAST is the same program as Example 2.2 on page 2-9.

```

SUB:  TRP TO I
NEXT: D SUB+1 TO TRP
      IF TRP ETZ GO TO END
      :
      :
      GO TO NEXT
END:  :
      :
      GO TO D SUB+1

```

On page 2-12 is a sample program that forms a twos complement without using a general register. In FAST it would look like this.

```

      I -21 TO TRP
      TRP TO M2+1
M1:   Z R1
      CML
M2:   I 0 P1
      SKIP BOV
      GO TO M1
      Z P1

```

Example 3.2 is a multiply subroutine that uses the arithmetic operator but does not use general purpose registers. This is the same program in FAST.

```

MPY:  TRP TO I
      ADD
      CLL
      IF AX GEZ GO TO MPY1
      C AX P1
      STL
MPY1: IF AY GEZ GO TO MPY2
      C AY P1
      CML
MPY2: AX TO MPY3+1
      I -20 TO AX
      AX TO MPY4+1
      ZERO TO AX
MPY3: I 0 R1
      SKIP NOT LNK
      MSR R1 TO ZERO
      AO TO AX
      AX R1
MPY4: I 0 P1
      SKIP BOV
      GO TO MPY3
      MPY3+1 R1 TO AY
      SKIP LNK
      GO TO D MPY+1

```

C AX  
C AY P1  
SKIP NOT BOV  
AX P1  
NOP  
GO TO D MPY+1



## APPENDIX B

### INTERFACING

Functional operators and peripheral device operators of the user's own design can be added to the GRI-909 bus system with great ease. The addition of a source register makes its data available to all destination operators (including memory and the data tester) through the bus modifier. Similarly a new destination register can receive data from any source already in the system, again through the bus modifier. Control over any new operator is exercised by the function generating instructions, which operate it, and the function testing instructions, which determine its state.

Chapter 2 describes all of the GRI-909 instruction types and in particular explains the use of the instructions to control functional and device operators. The reader should be very familiar with the contents of Chapter 2 before he attempts to interface operators of his own design.

Operators are often referred to as devices, especially in engineering drawings and other hardware oriented documents. SDA and DDA stand for "source device address" and "destination device address".

#### I PHYSICAL ARCHITECTURE

Figure 1 shows the physical organization of the basic package. The frame work is of extruded anodized aluminum serving both as a caged grounding scheme and as guides for the printed circuit cards in the system. The console is enclosed in the hinged door on the front of the cabinet. Mounted on the door are all of the console switches and indicators with their driving and sensing circuits.

All back panel wiring inside the frame is on printed circuit cards with PC card sockets soldered onto them. Thus one card is joined directly to another

through plugs, and no wire wrapping or point-to-point wiring is used anywhere in the system. The processor bus has connectors for nine 9x13-inch plug-in cards, three of which are available for large firmware options such as the arithmetic operator. The IO bus has sixteen positions for 9x4-inch cards for smaller firmware or device operators. The memory bus is used for core memory modules and generally is not of interest to the interface engineer.

All connections between the buses and the console are made with multiconductor flat cable attached at both ends to PC cards. Expansion chassis to extend the memory bus and the IO bus are of the same type of construction as the main frame. These expanders are placed either above or below with flat cable connecting the buses.

#### II INTERFACE PC CARDS

Interfaces are of two general types, and all are referred to as operators. A system interface that is not associated with some external device is a functional or firmware operator. Typical firmware operators are those for basic arithmetic, multiplication, square root, etc. Operators of this type are actually extensions of the processor. Device operators are interfaces to mate the bus system to some external device such as an A-D converter.

Device operators can be built on one or more IO interface cards (Figure 2). This card can contain 33 integrated circuit packages, and has provision for connecting to both the source and destination IO buses and to an external device. The external printed circuit connector has 48 pins and mates to an Amphenol connector type 583167-1. Contacts and keys for those connectors are purchased separately and only those needed are used.

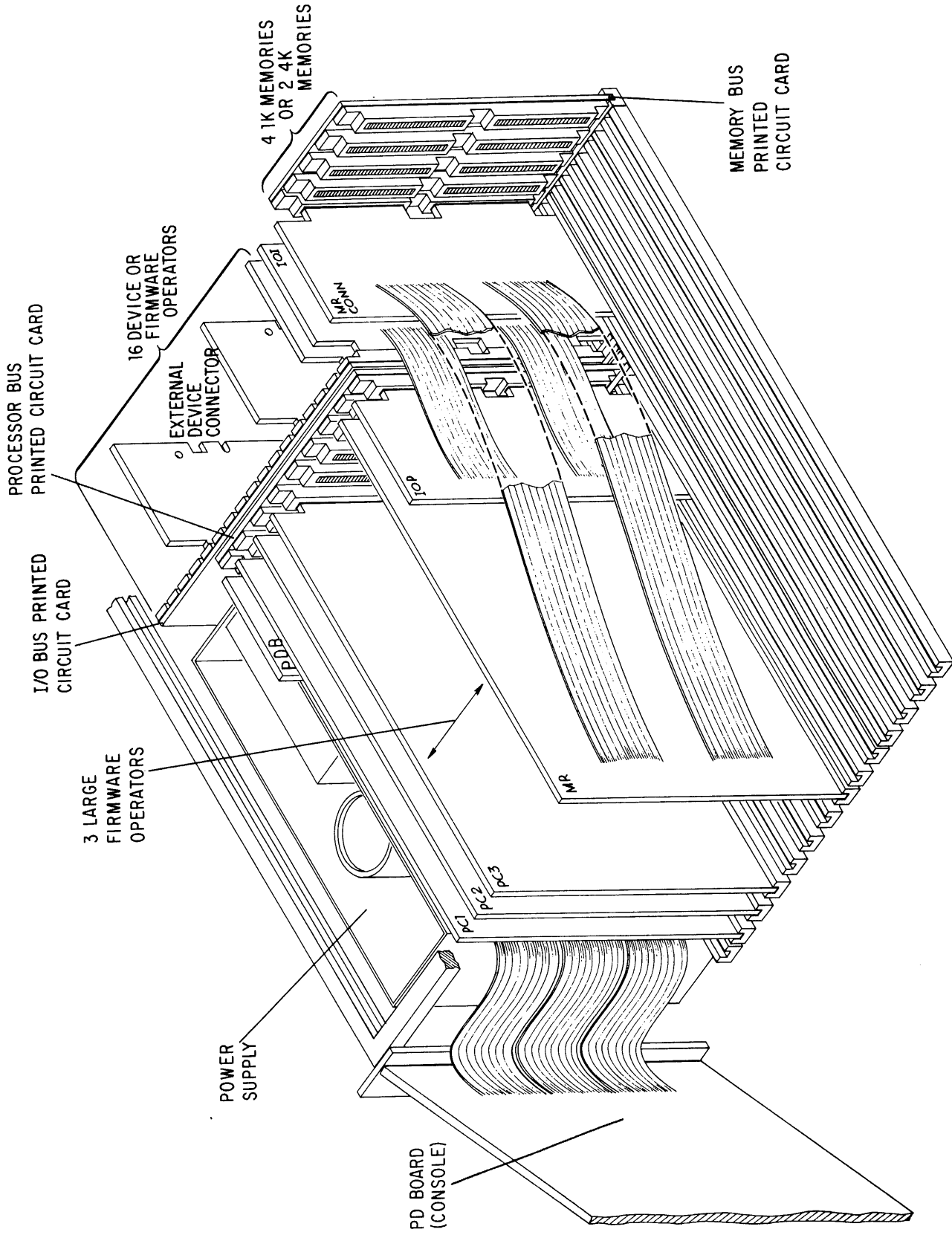


Figure 1. Physical Organization

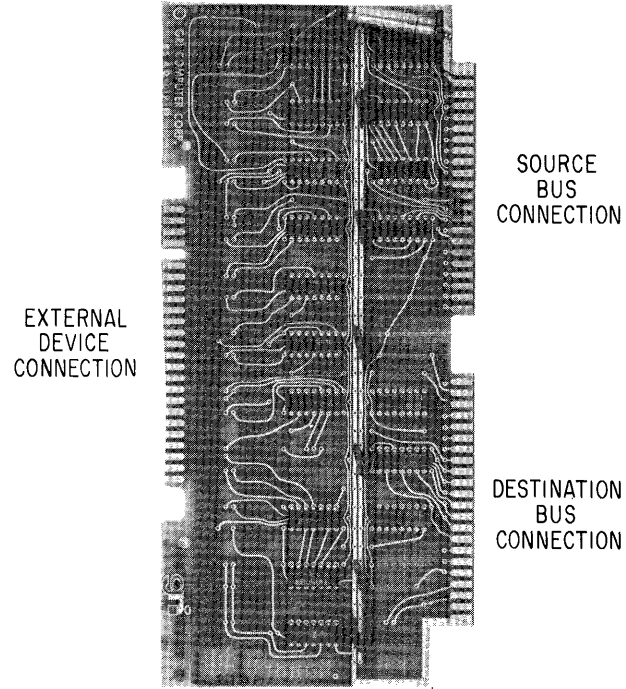
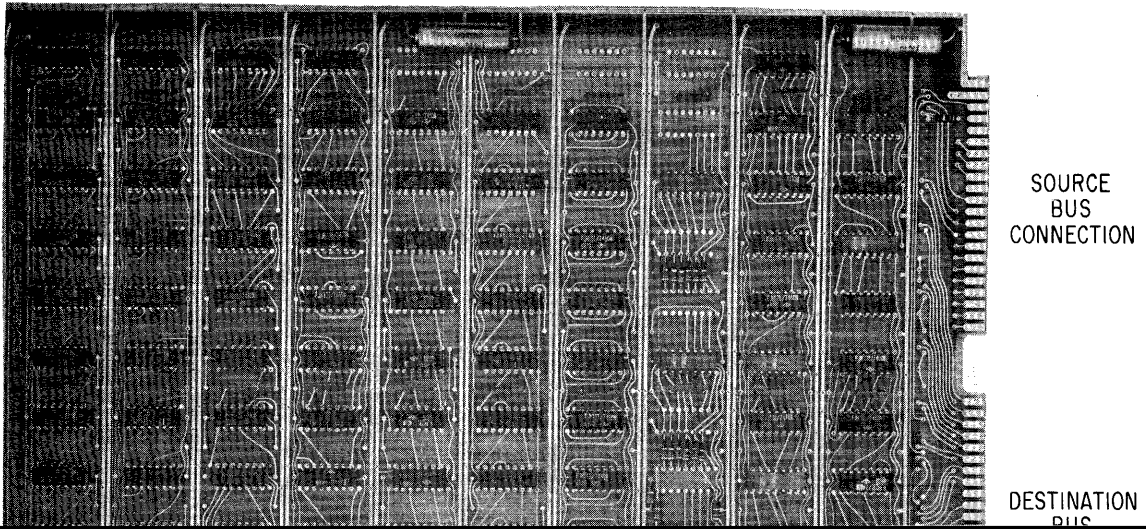


Figure 2. Small Firmware/Device Operator Card (Component Side)



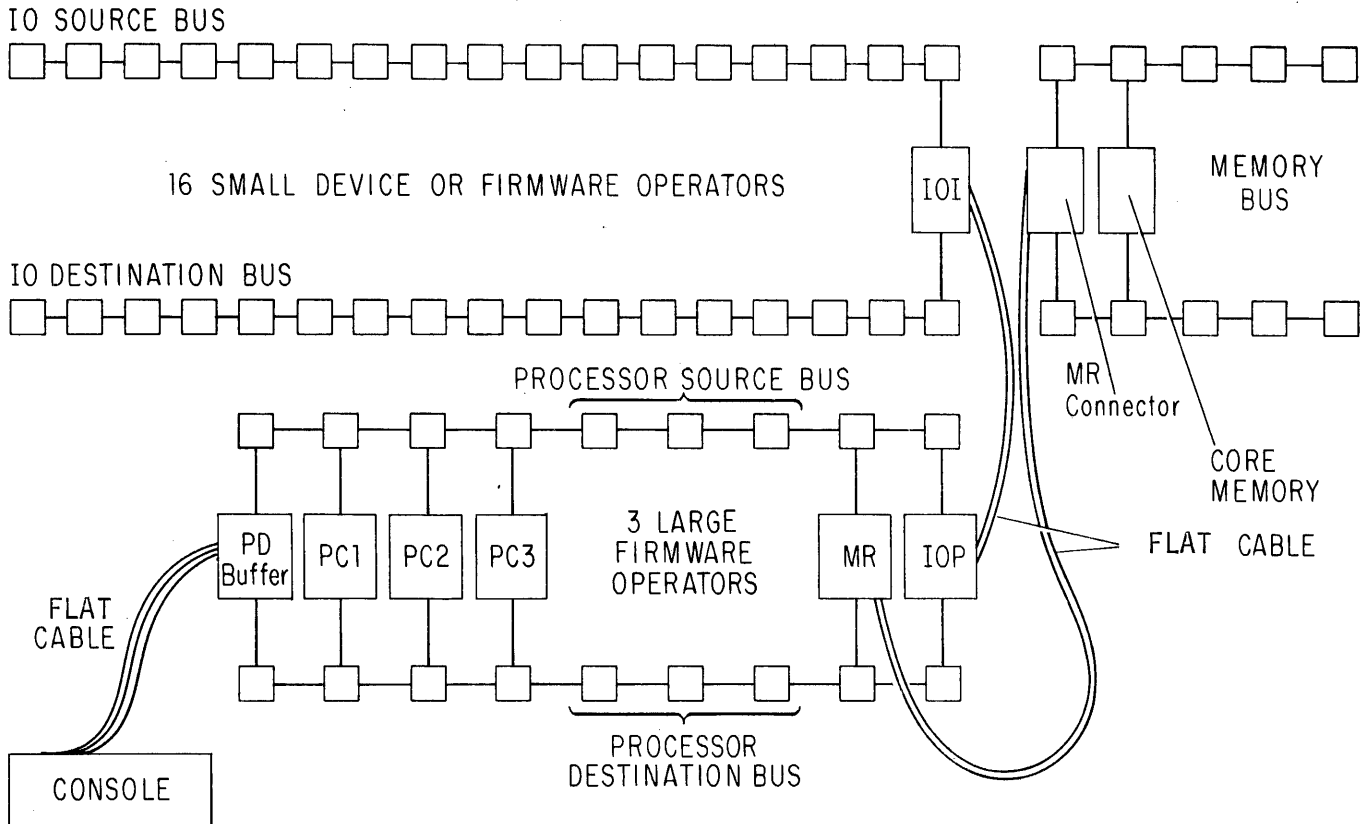


Figure 4. System Busing

Firmware operators may be built on these cards (without using the external device connectors), but one or more such operators may be built on the larger card shown in Figure 3. This card holds up to 108 ICs.

### III SYSTEM BUSING

The busing scheme and connections internal to the main chassis are shown in Figure 4. All PC cards shown in the lower row are of the larger size (9×13 inches). The processor is contained on three large cards, labeled PC1, PC2 and PC3. The PD buffer board provides the buffering and cable connection to the console. The MR board contains the MA and MB registers, memory controls, and a connection via cable to the memory bus.

Three connectors are available in the processor bus for the addition of firmware operators.

The IOP and IOI cards have flat cable between them to connect the processor bus to the IO bus. Drive circuits on these cards provide signal isolation between the two buses, and decoders provide operator code signals to the IO bus that are not available on the processor bus. These signals are used for interrupt and direct memory access control and are generally not needed by firmware operators.

Both the processor bus and the IO bus are really each two buses, source and destination. In general the destination bus is associated with output from system operators, whereas the source bus is the source of data and control information for input to system operators. The tables



below describe all bus signals and show the pin connections for them (an asterisk indicates a signal that appears only on the IO bus). All signals have two states, low and high, which correspond to nominal voltage levels of 0 and +4 volts. The

last letter of every signal name is either H (for high) or L (for low); the level so indicated is the voltage level on the line when the signal represents a 1 or produces the listed function. The plug-in side of the connectors are shown.

<i>Source Bus</i>			<i>Destination Bus</i>		
Ground	1	A	Ground	1	A
+5 V	2	B	DB01L	2	B
CLRH	3	C	DB03L	3	C
DMH	4	D	DB05L	4	D
PINL	5	E	DB07L	5	E
DINL	6	F	DB09L	6	F
DAB1H	7	H	DB11L	7	H
DAB3H	8	J	DB13L	8	J
DAB5H	9	K	DB15L	9	K
DSTRH	10	L	SAB0H	10	L
CLIBH	11	M	SAB1H	11	M
IMBL	12	N	SAB2H	12	N
STPKL	13	P	SAB3H	13	P
EIRL	14	R	SAB4H	14	R
SBO1H	15	S	SAB5H	15	S
SBO3H	16	T	IDAH*	16	T
SBO5H	17	U	EASH*	17	U
SBO7H	18	V	EDDH*	18	V
SBO9H	19	W	EXTH	19	W
SB11H	20	X	CB3H	20	X
SB13H	21	Y	CB1H	21	Y
SB15H	22	Z	-A	22	Y
			Ground	Z	Ground

*Source Bus*

EIH	Out	External Instruction: the processor external instruction cycle.
CLRH	Out	Clear: system clear level generated by the start key or power on or off.
BKH	Out	Break: the processor interrupt cycle.
DMH	Out	Direct Memory: the processor direct memory access cycle.
POUTL	Out	Priority Out: the serial interrupt priority-determining level out of an operator.
PINL	Out	Priority In: the serial interrupt priority-determining level into an operator.
DOUTL	Out	DMA Out: the serial DMA priority-determining level out of an operator.
DINL	Out	DMA In: the serial DMA priority-determining level into an operator.

DABOH-DAB5H	Out	Destination Address Bus: the 6-bit address of the destination operator.
XCLL	Out	Crystal Clock: a square wave with period 110 ns.
DSTRH	Out	Data Strobe: used by an operator to gate in data from the source bus.
INTBL	In	Interrupt Bus: a common line for all operators to request an interrupt.
CLIBH	Out	Clear Interrupt Bus: clears the DMA Device Service flipflop in the requesting device.
DIRBL	In	Direction Bus: indicates data transfer direction for DMA (0 volts = out, +4 volts = in).
IMBL	In	Increment Memory Bus: increment the memory location during a DMA cycle.
STKL	In	Start Key: signal generated by the start key.
STPKL	In	Stop Key: signal generated by the stop key.
DMRL	In	Direct Memory Access Request: a common line for all operators to request DMA.
EIRL	In	External Instruction Request: a common line for all operators to request an external instruction cycle.
SBOOH-SB15H	Out	Source Bus Data: the 16 data lines in the source bus.

*Destination Bus*

DBOOL-DB15L	In	Destination Bus: the 16 data lines in the destination bus.
ISYNH	Out	Interrupt Sync: generated in each cycle to synchronize interrupt and DMA requests by operators.
SABOH-SAB5H	Out	Source Address Bus: the 6-bit address of the source operator.
FTB1L-FTB3L	In	Function Test Bus: operators use these lines for status input during an SF instruction.
LINKH	Out	Link: the link bit associated with the bus modifier.
BOH	Out	Bus Overflow: the Bus Overflow flag associated with the bus modifier.
P2H	Out	Time 2 Pulse: strobe that gates FO commands into an operator.
IDAH	Out	Interrupt Destination Address: the destination address is 04, the interrupt status register.
ISAH	Out	Interrupt Source Address: the source address is 04, the interrupt status register.
EASH	Out	External Address, Source: the source address is 16, the DMA address register or interrupt address generator.
EDSH	Out	External Data, Source: the source address is 15, the DMA data register or logic that supplies an external instruction from a read-only memory.

EDDH	Out	External Data, Destination: the destination address is 15, the DMA data register.
FUNCH	Out	Function: the current processor instruction is an SF or an FO.
EXTH	Out	Execute Time. A T2 period when programmed transfer occurs.
CBOH-CB3H	Out	Control Bus: lines that transmit control bits in an FO instruction.
+A, -A	Out	Unregulated voltage (26-35 volts) for use in local regulators.

#### IV INTERFACE LOGIC AND TIMING

There are two types of in-out data transfer: the movement of words or characters by the program and the automatic transfer of data via direct memory access. The program can handle in-out by sensing Ready or by allowing the device to interrupt when it requires service. If the device is automatic, it can use direct memory access for the transfer of data and require response by the program only for control purposes (*eg* when a block transfer is complete or there is some special situation, such as an error, which the program must handle). An optional operator, particularly a firmware operator, may also carry out operations by means of external instructions.

There are thus six categories of functions used in operating equipment added to the system: programmed data transfers, function generation, function testing, interrupts, direct memory access, and external instructions. Typical circuit configurations and timing for these are given here. The timing diagrams show the relationships among the various bus signals involved in the operations. Each line for a control signal represents the actual voltage level. For groups of signals that carry binary information, such as data and addresses, a raised section in the line indicates the time during which that information is held on the bus.

##### Programmed Data Transfers

Figure 5 shows the timing and hardware for data transmission between an interface register and the bus system. If a register is to receive data it must be

connected to the source bus data lines SB00H to SB15H and its input gating must include a decoding net for the destination address lines DAB0H to DAB5H so that only this operator responds when its code is specified as the destination.

It is recommended that the data lines be connected to the D inputs of type 7474 flipflops; these offer the greatest versatility in that they also have dc clear and set inputs for external data entry. The clock input to the data register is derived by combining the data strobe DSTRH with the output of the address decoder. As can be seen in the timing diagram, the strobe occurs at the end of the interval in which the destination address and source data are both valid. Since the address lines carry high levels, 1s can be recognized by connecting the lines directly to the inputs of a decoder such as the 7430 gate, whereas lines for 0s must be connected through inverters. *Eg* to decode address 75, DAB1H is connected through an inverter, the remaining lines are connected directly. Should a master clear signal be desired for the data register, the CLRH line is available; this carries +5 volts during the power-up and power-down sequences and also every time a start signal is sent from the console or remotely. CLRH is normally low and must therefore be inverted to drive the direct clear inputs of the data register.

If a register being added is to supply data to the system, its outputs must be connected through open collector gates, such as the 7401, to the destination bus data lines DB00L to DB15L. The gating input for the register output into the 7401s is derived by decoding the address that appears on source address lines SABOH

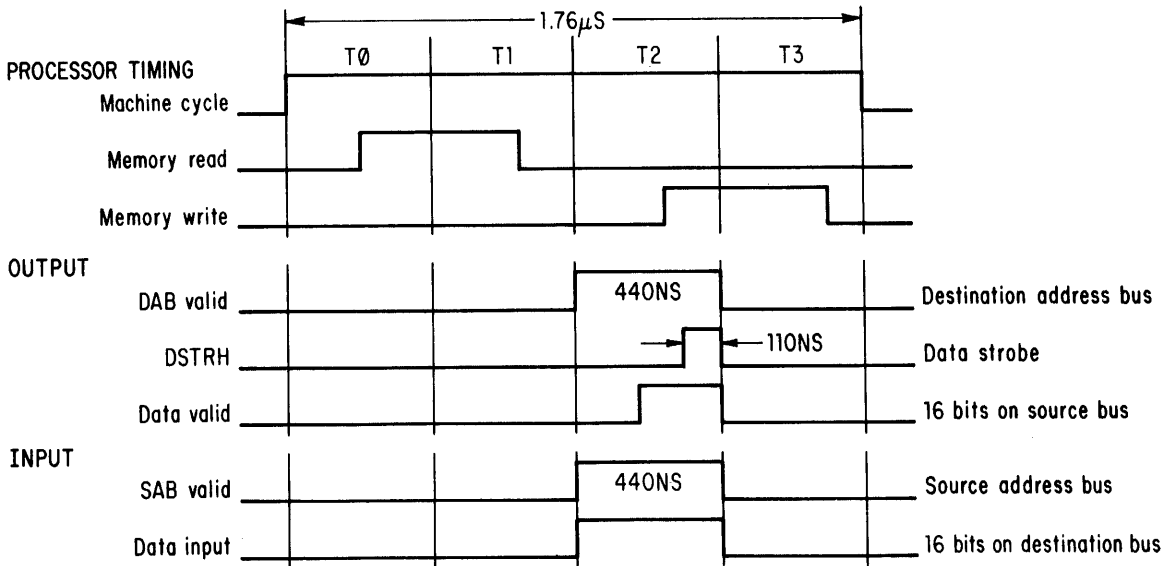
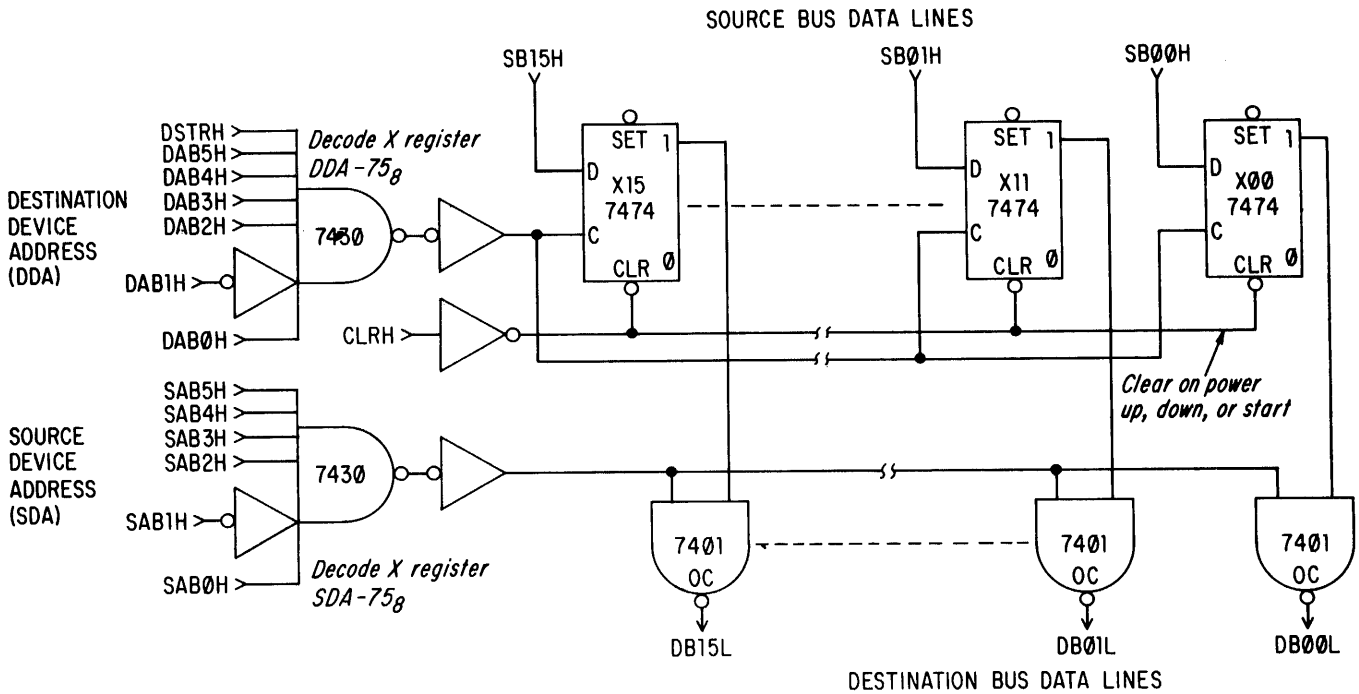


Figure 5. Programmed Data Transfers

to SAB5H. The decoding technique in a 7430 multiple input gate is identical to that for the destination address. The timing of the transfer is the same as that for output. The SAB address is valid for the same 440 ns period that a valid address appears on the DAB lines. The 110 ns strobe at the input to the receiving register occurs at the end of this interval, allowing a settling time of 330

ns to transmit the data from the DB lines through the bus modifier onto the SB lines. Whatever logic is added between the DAB decoder and the open collector gates that connect to the DB lines must not exceed two pair delays (four gates). It is recommended that any inverters used be of the high speed type such as the Signetics 8H90 (7 ns delay hex inverter) to minimize pair delays.

The DDAH and SDAH signals produced by decoding the addresses may also be used by the logic for function output or function test instructions, rather than separately decoding the same addresses for use in testing, setting or clearing flags, or controlling an IO device.

CB3H during time 2 of the FO instruction. These lines are strobed by the combination of FUNCH, a signal present during any SF or FO instruction, DDAH, the decoded destination address, and P2H, a strobe pulse occurring at the end of time 2.

### Function Generation

An FO instruction delivers up to four coded or individually usable pulses to operators for setting, clearing, or complementing flags. These pulses are placed on the control bus lines CBOH to

The examples in Figure 6 show three uses for the CB signals. At A, direct clear and set signals are being used to control a flipflop or flag in the device. As with the data register, CLRH may be used for a master clear when starting and during power on and power off. The type of connection at B is for clearing, setting and complementing a flag and is used with the JK type flipflop. This

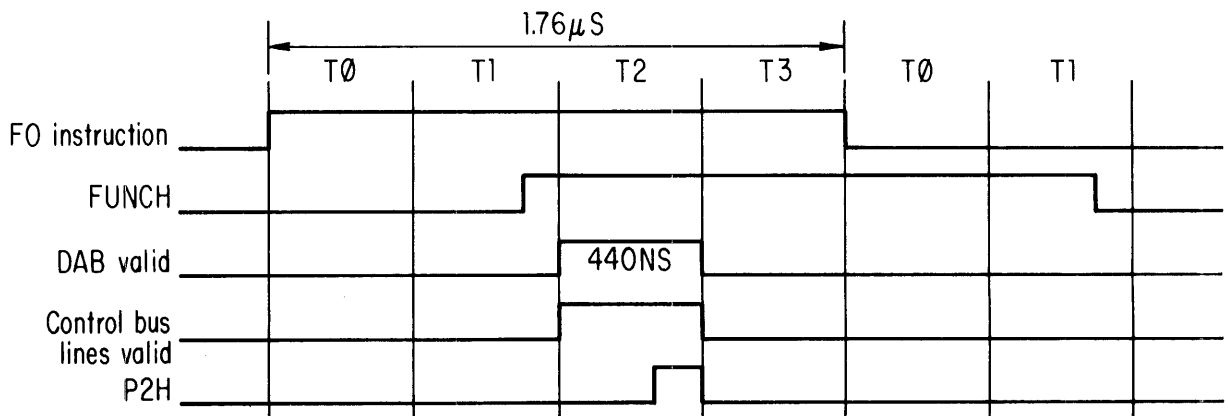
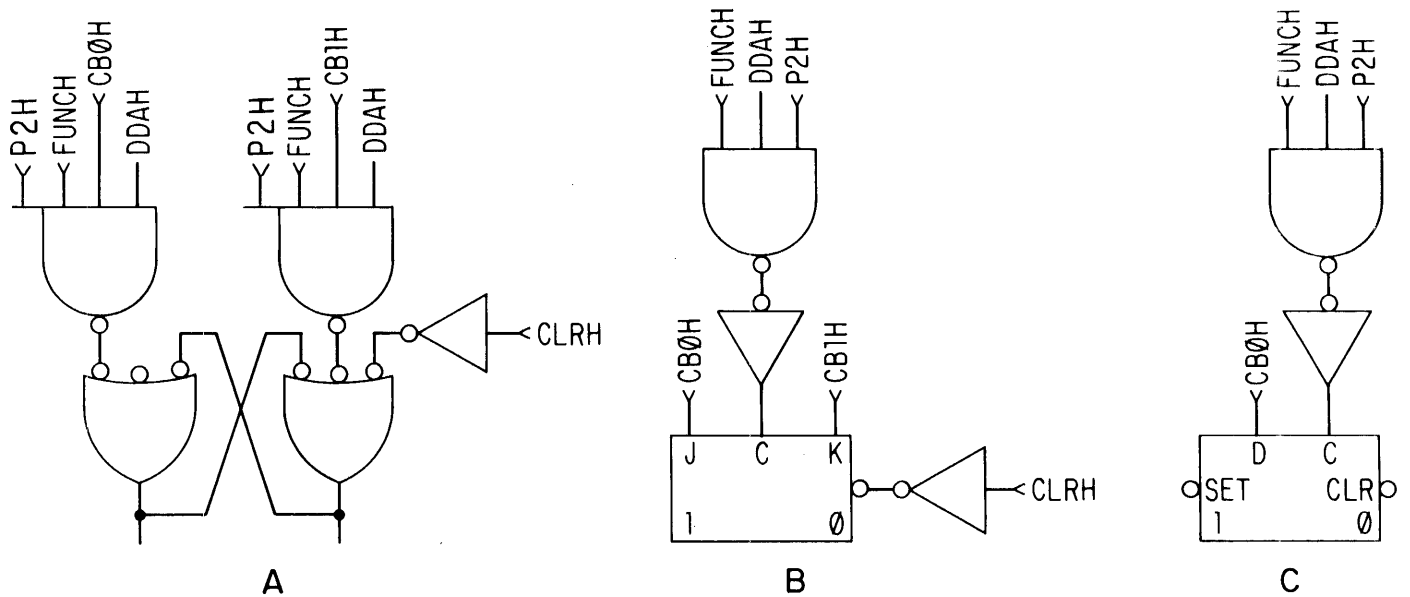


Figure 6. Function Generation

permits use of control bits 0 and 1 together to provide a microprogrammed complement of the flipflop. Example C uses a D type flipflop (7474) where the data input is connected to the CBOH line and the clock is provided by the gating of FUNCH and P2H with DDAH. This arrangement permits the transfer of the current state of the CB line, whether it be 0 or 1, into the flipflop, and it can be used to transfer up to four coded bits of data into a small function register for multiplexing or selecting up to sixteen functions.

By convention, if an operator must be placed in operation by an FO instruction, CBOH is used for this purpose. This applies to both firmware and device operators, but a simple output operator may be placed in operation just by sending data to it. Moreover the Ready flag in a de-

vice should be cleared by CB1H; if a single operator code addresses two devices, one for input, the other for output (data source and destination, respectively), Input Ready should be cleared by CB3H, Output Ready by CB1H.

### Function Testing

Almost all operators contain flags, relay contacts or status levels that must be sensed by the program. These conditions are connected to the function test bus lines, FTB1L, FTB2L and FTB3L, through open collector gates type 7401 or equivalent (Figure 7). The gating function is the combination of SDAH and FUNCH. The latter is the same signal that is high during an FO instruction, but in this case

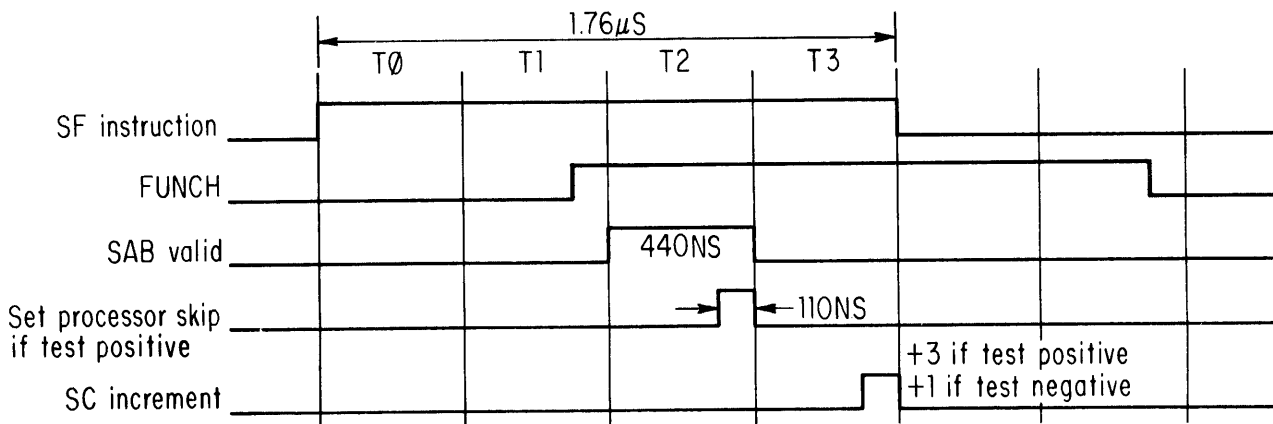
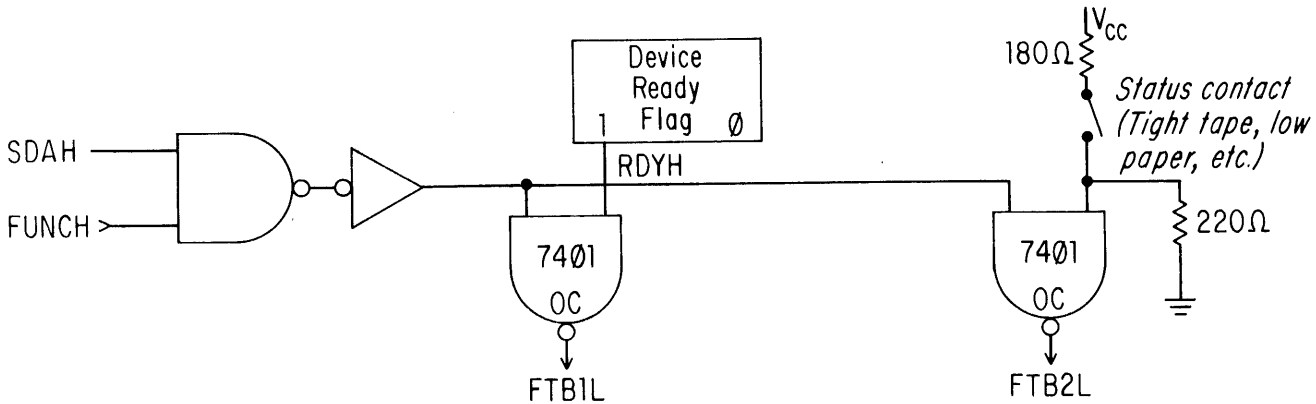


Figure 7. Function Testing

it is combined with the decoding of the appropriate source address.

At the end of the interval defined by SDAH the processor strobes the function test lines to compare the information on them with the test specification given in the SF instruction. If the test result is positive, the processor increments SC by 3 in the final time interval of the cycle; otherwise it increments SC only by 1.

By convention the Ready flag in a device is connected to FTB1L; if a single operator code addresses two devices, one for input, the other for output (data source and destination, respectively), Input Ready should be connected to FTB3L, Output Ready to FTB1L. The other lines may be assigned at the user's discretion to test conditions such as tight tape, low paper, power on, etc.

### Interrupt

Any but the simplest device operator contains a flag — usually Ready — which is set at the completion of an operation to cause an interrupt. If the operator is for output, the flag is also set by CLRH so that following power on or use of the start key, the operator will indicate that it is ready to output data. In an input operator CLRH clears the flag. In either case the flag must also have provision for a programmed clear by an FO instruction.

Once RDY is set, INT REQ will set at the next ISYNH time providing the INT STAT bit for the device is on (Figure 8). INT STAT is a single bit in the interrupt status register ISR, which can be addressed as a data source or destination. The address of this register is decoded in the processor and is sent on the IO bus as IDAH when used as a destination, ISAH when used as a source. Other registers of this type may be added to the system, but decoding for them must then be done from the DAB and SAB lines.

Once INT REQ is set the interrupt bus line INTBL is pulled to ground causing

the next available cycle to be used for a break. A serial signal PINL and POUTL determines which of the operators requesting an interrupt has the highest priority. Among those operators whose INT REQ flags are set, the one that is physically closest to the processor on the bus has priority.

The priority determining signal is passed along the bus from one device operator to another. If an operator receives PINL and its own INT REQ flag is clear, it generates POUTL, which is PINL at the input to the next operator. But INT REQ being clear disrupts the serial signal. Hence the first operator on the bus whose INT REQ flag is set is the only one that both receives PINL and has its own INT REQ flag set, and this is precisely the condition that allows the acknowledgement signal BKH from the processor to select an operator for a break.

BKH is gated at two different times by the external address request signal EASH, which causes a fixed-wired set of open collector gates to produce a hardwired address on the destination bus data lines during those periods of the break state when an external address is required by the processor. If no address is generated at the time of the EASH signal, the processor traps to location 0, *ie* it stores SC in location 0 and resumes operation at location 1. Otherwise the processor uses the address generated by the interrupting operator for storing SC and uses the next consecutive location to resume the execution of instructions.

Gating the address into the processor twice allows the operator to supply a different address the second time. Thus an operator might always store SC in the same pre-assigned location, but then begin program operation at various locations depending upon the cause of the interrupt.

### Direct Memory Access

This feature is available to any operator in the system for passing data directly to memory, taking data directly from mem-

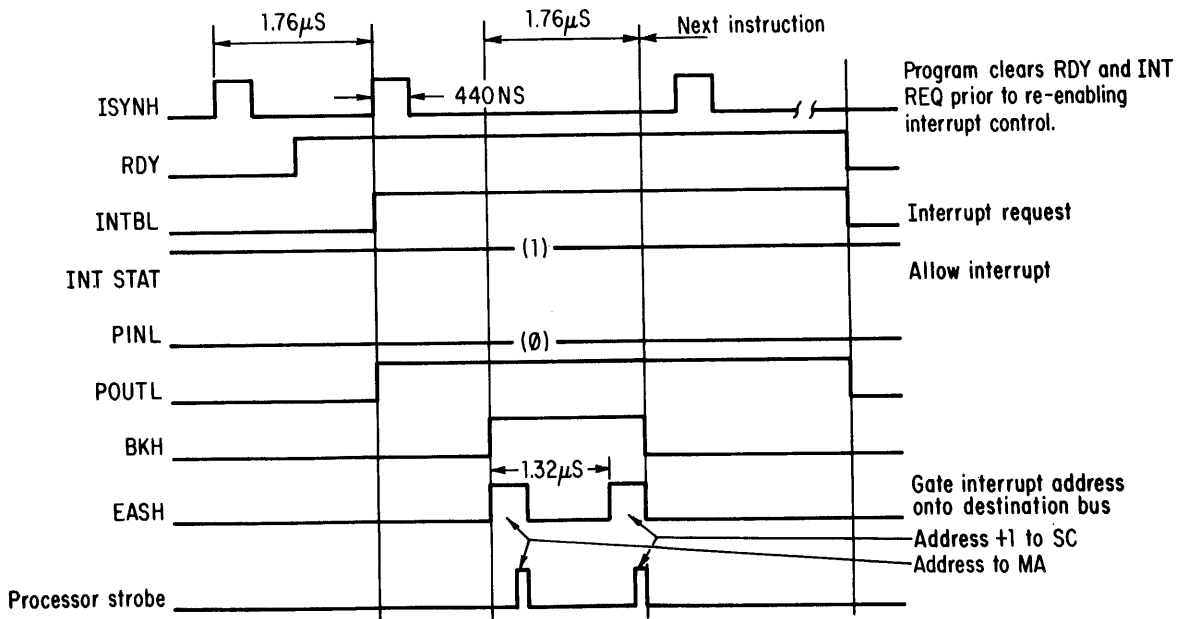
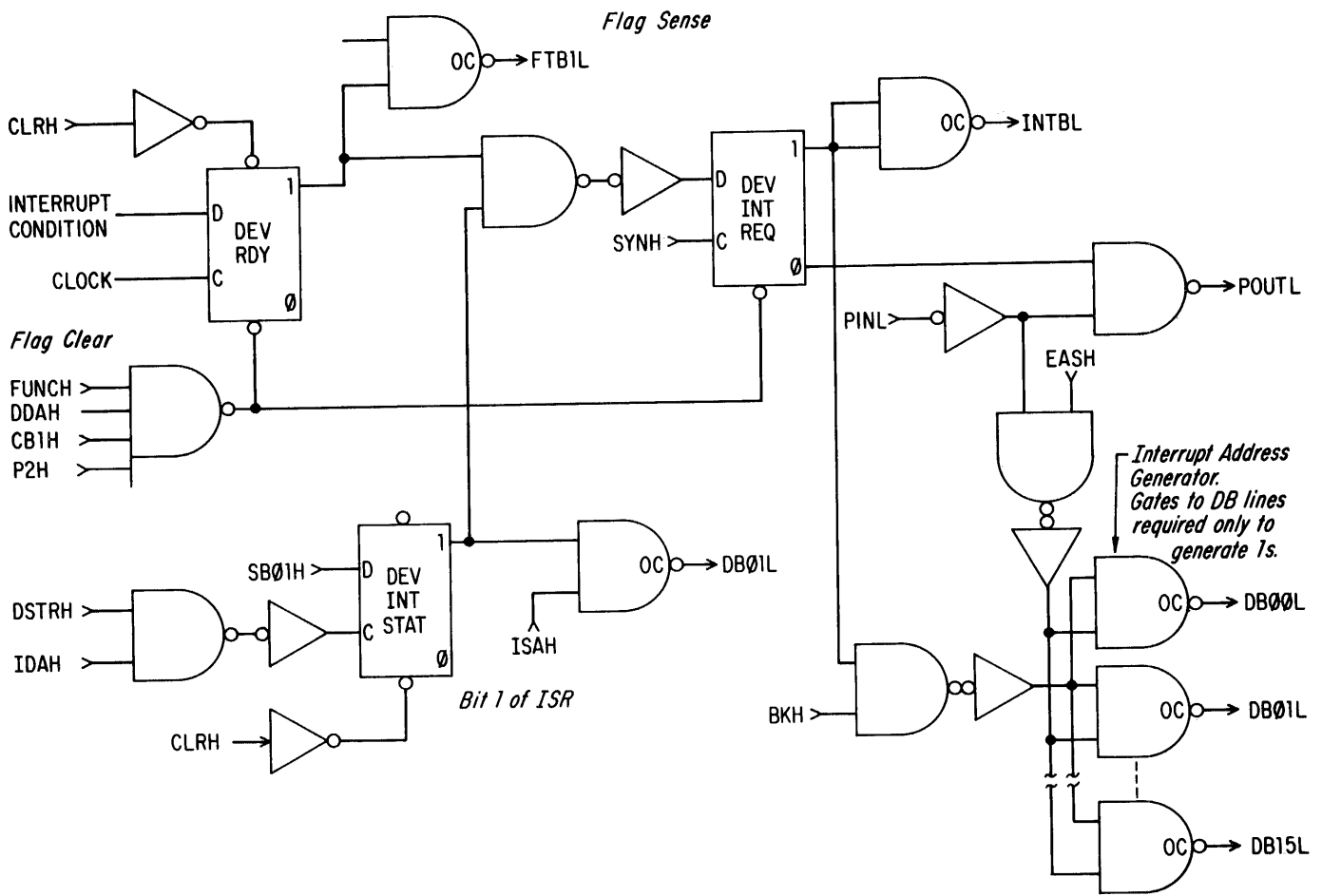


Figure 8. Interrupt



ory, or incrementing the contents of a memory location by one. Each access requires one memory cycle during which the program simply pauses. The operator requesting access must always supply the memory address.

The logic for direct memory access (Figure 9) is very similar to the logic for an interrupt except that there is no status flag. An internal condition sets DMA SYNC which in turn sets DMA REQ the next time the processor generates the ISYNH pulse, which occurs in every cycle. Setting DMA REQ gives rise to the DMA request signal DMRL on the bus. Like the interrupt logic, the DMA logic in an operator also has hardware for a serial priority determining signal that goes from one device to the next. In this case a device that receives DINL generates DOUTL for the next device if its own DMA REQ flag is clear. The setting of DMA REQ disrupts the serial signal so that it terminates at and gives priority to the first operator that both receives DINL and in which DMA REQ is set.

At the next available cycle after a request is made the processor generates the direct memory address signal EASH, which clears DMA SYNC (so that the next ISYNH clears DMA REQ) and sets DMA SERV in the device that has priority. DMA SERV combined with EASH gates a memory address onto the destination bus data lines; and combined with appropriate control levels in the device it may generate DIRBL to specify input (otherwise output is specified) or IMBL to specify that the word in the addressed memory location will be incremented.

The next operations depend upon the type of cycle. For output the processor generates EDDH to place the data from memory on the source bus data lines and sends a strobe DSTRH to load the data into a register at the operator. If the increment function is called for the processor sends the incremented word out to the operator and also writes it back in memory in place of the original data. For input the processor generates EDSH

to place data from the operator on the destination bus data lines and generates a strobe internally to load the data into MB. When access is complete CLIBH clears DMA SERV to end the operation.

The logic diagram shows the basic request logic required for any type of cycle but shows the transfer logic only for input and shows only the gates for supplying a memory address. Output transfer logic is not shown and any operator making a series of DMA transfers would have a memory address counter for addressing consecutive locations.

### External Instructions

This mode of operation allows a system operator to take control of the bus system and temporarily suspend the stored program. Then the operator can supply instructions from its own read-only memory in place of those from core. The instructions cannot reference memory and are executed at twice the normal rate, *ie* two per processor cycle.

Figure 10 shows the logic and timing for external instructions. The sequence begins when an FO instruction sets a flag to generate an external instruction request on the bus from the operator. An external instruction sequence follows immediately, making the FO and the sequence appear as one long instruction. The EI state is maintained until a done condition in the operator combined with EDSH drops the request.

While in the EI state, the operator must supply an instruction to the destination bus data lines every even time period. Gating is supplied by EDSH and the word is sent to IR through the bus modifier. In each odd time period the instruction is performed. Except for memory references, programs running in the EI state can accomplish the same tasks as a core program but at twice the speed.

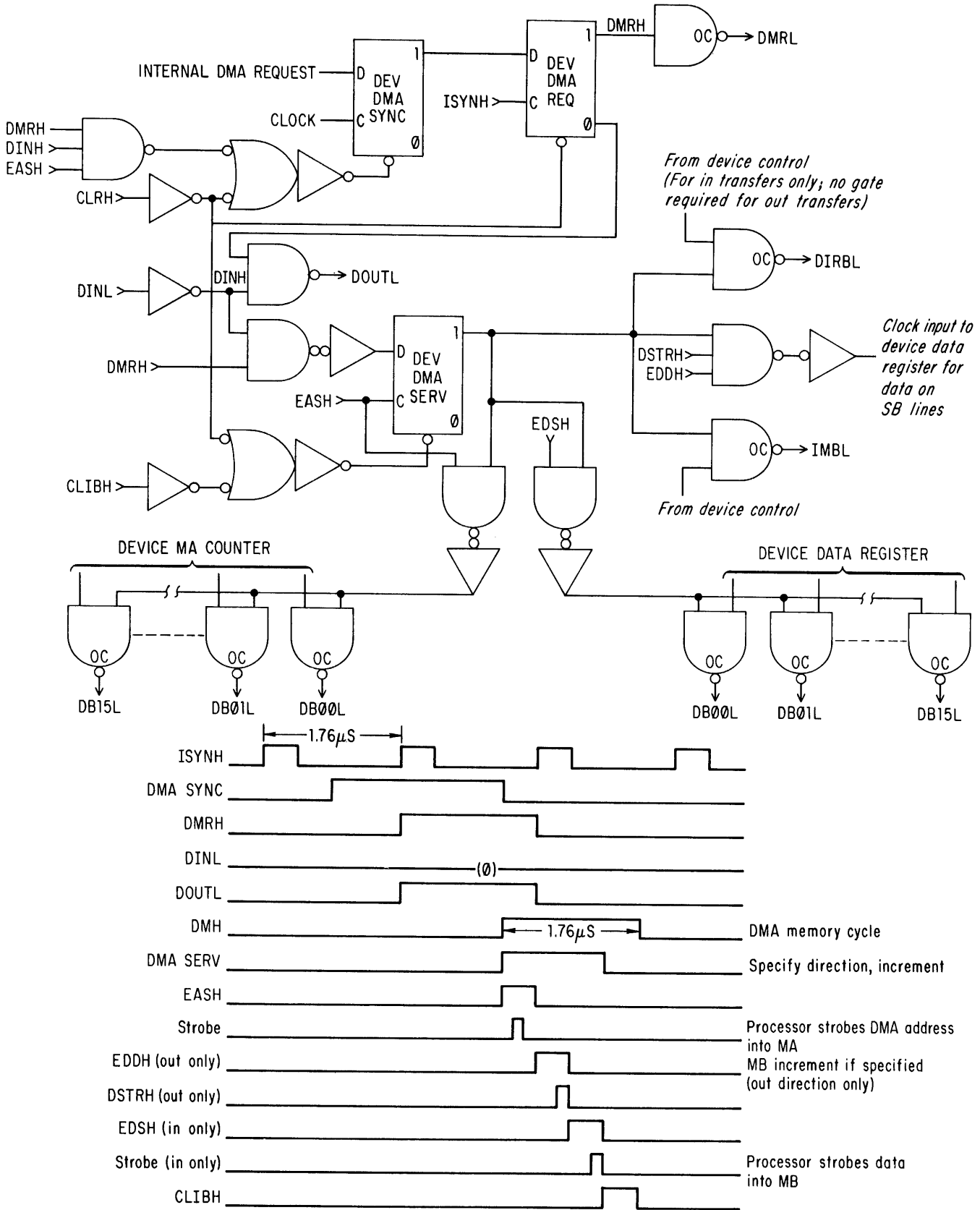


Figure 9. Direct Memory Access

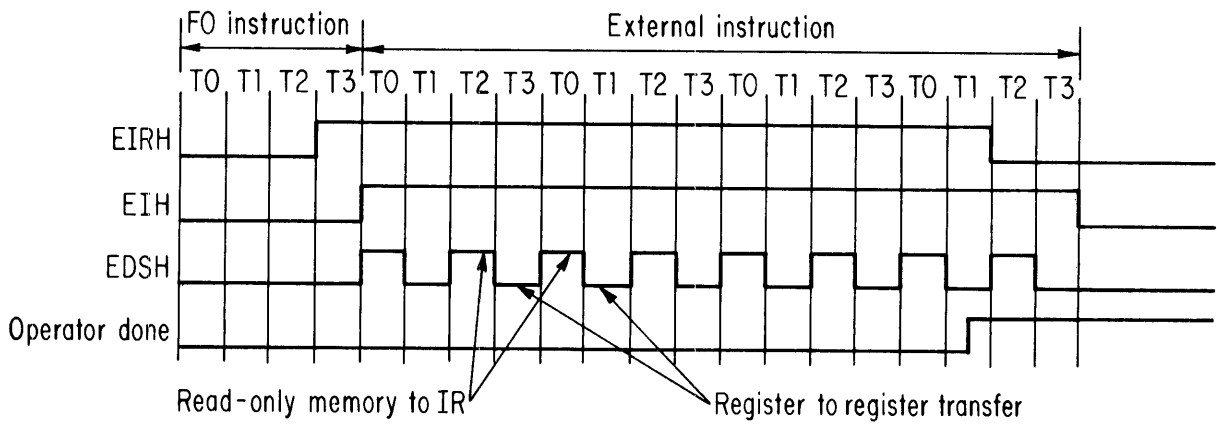
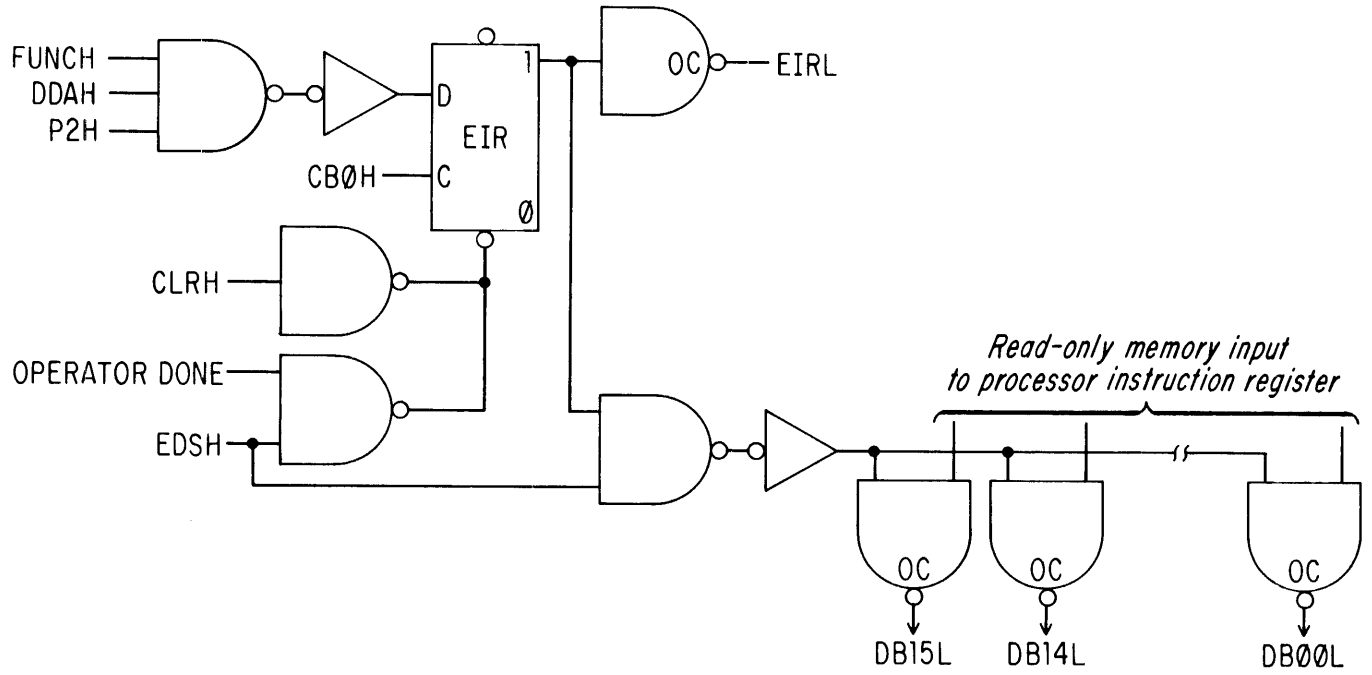


Figure 10. External Instruction Request

V DESIGN EXAMPLES

A common and relatively simple operation that is required in many process control applications is mechanical positioning of a device upon command from the computer. Figure 11 shows a valve positioner interfaced to the GRI-909 source bus. Valve position in digital form is loaded into the operator data buffer when that operator code is specified as a destination. The buffer output goes directly to the

external device connector through the Amphenol plug to a D-A converter and then by cable to a positioning servo external to the computer.

Figure 12 shows an operator that monitors the status of 32 relay contacts. An FO instruction selects one of the two sets of 16 contacts, which can then be addressed as a data source, where the 16 data bits equal the relay contact status (eg 0 indicates an open relay, 1 indicates a closed relay).

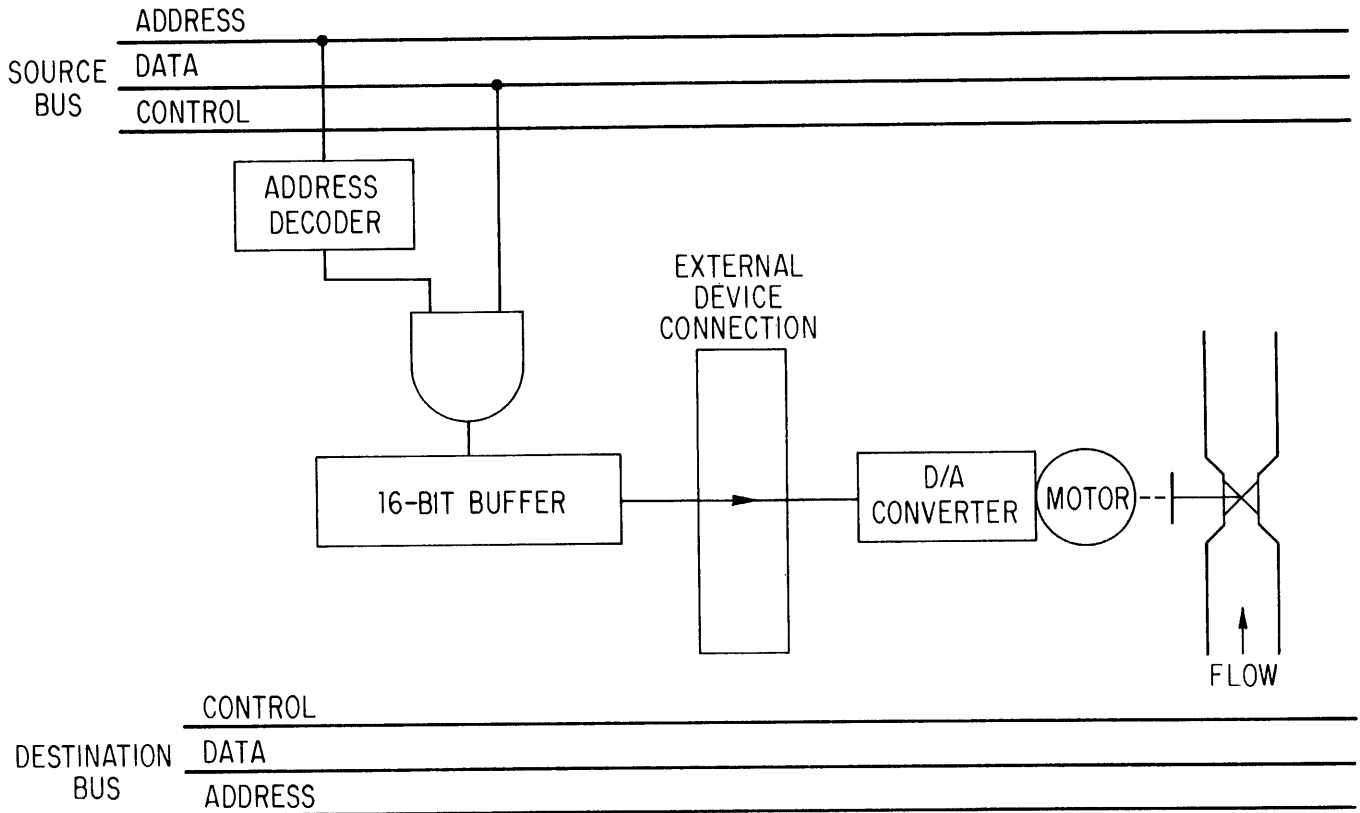


Figure 11. Valve Controller

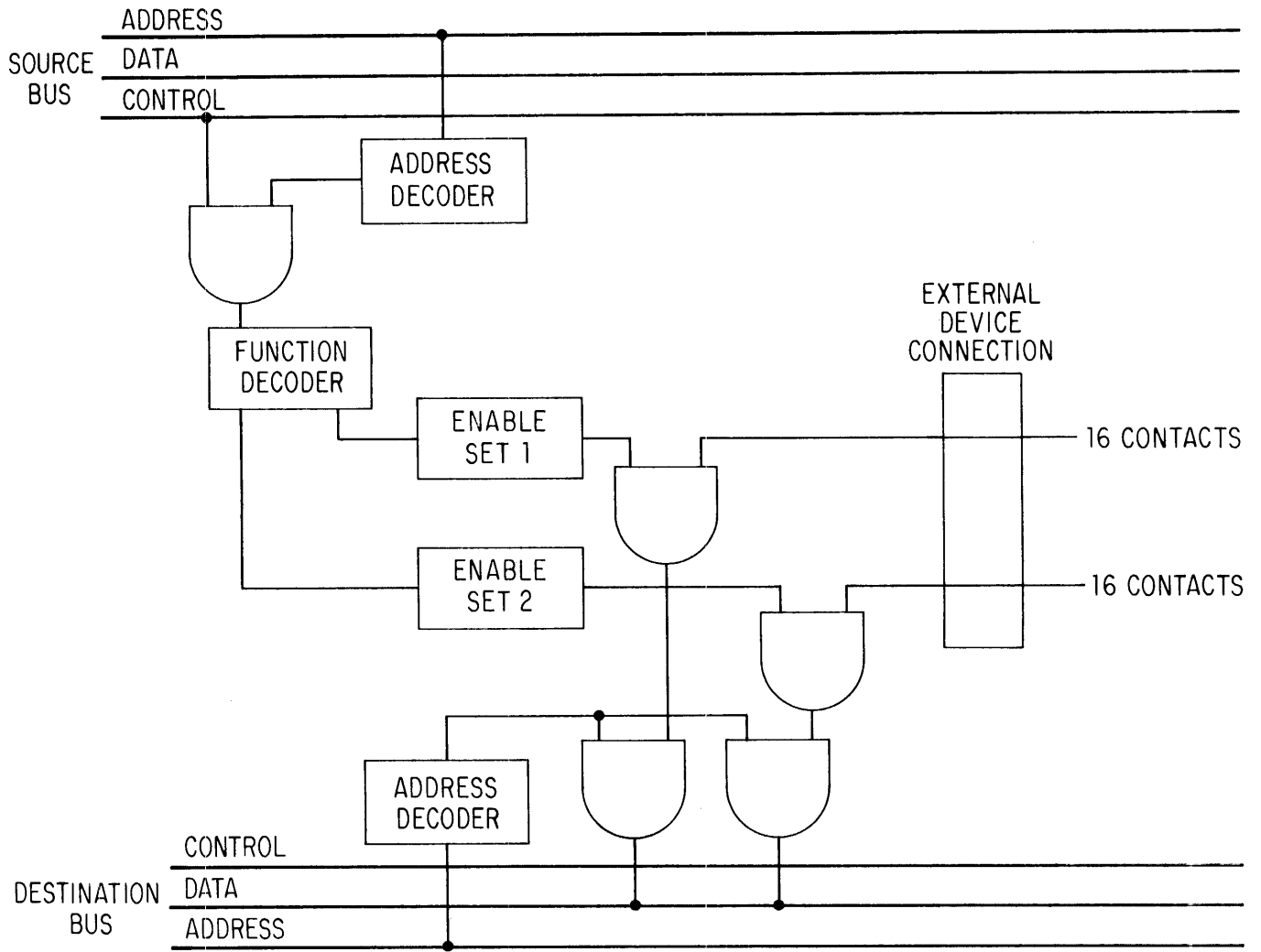


Figure 12. Relay Contact Monitor



## APPENDIX C

### INSTALLATION

The physical layout and dimensions of the computer chassis are shown on the next page. The chassis is set up for easy mounting in a standard 19-inch rack, either bolted in from the front or mounted on slides. (Slides can be obtained from Grant Pulley and Hardware Co., High St., Nyack, New York; catalog number SS-300-NT-20, 23½ inch travel with adjustable rear brackets.) An expansion chassis with the same dimensions can be mounted above or below the unit.

Access to the front of the chassis can be gained by swinging the hinged console aside. Viewed from the front, the power supply is on the left, the memories on the right; in the center are slots for seven large printed circuit boards. Accessible from the back of the chassis are sixteen slots for smaller boards. All cards are mounted vertically to take maximum advantage of convective cooling inside the rack. There are two types of expansion chassis: one is identical to the basic chassis, the other has connectors at the back for 24K of additional memory with its power supply.

It is recommended that the ambient temperature at the installation be maintained between 20° and 30°C, but the ambient temperature in the vicinity of the chassis can vary from 0° to 50°C without adverse effect. The relative humidity can be as high as 90%. (Although all exposed surfaces are treated to prevent corrosion, exposure of extreme humidity for long periods of time should be avoided.)

The computer uses single phase line power, 100-130 vac, 60±3% Hz. An optional

power supply operates from 200-240 vac, 50±3% Hz. The power source should be capable of supplying 15 amperes. The power cable has a standard 3-wire plug and should be plugged into a properly grounded receptacle rated at 15 amperes.

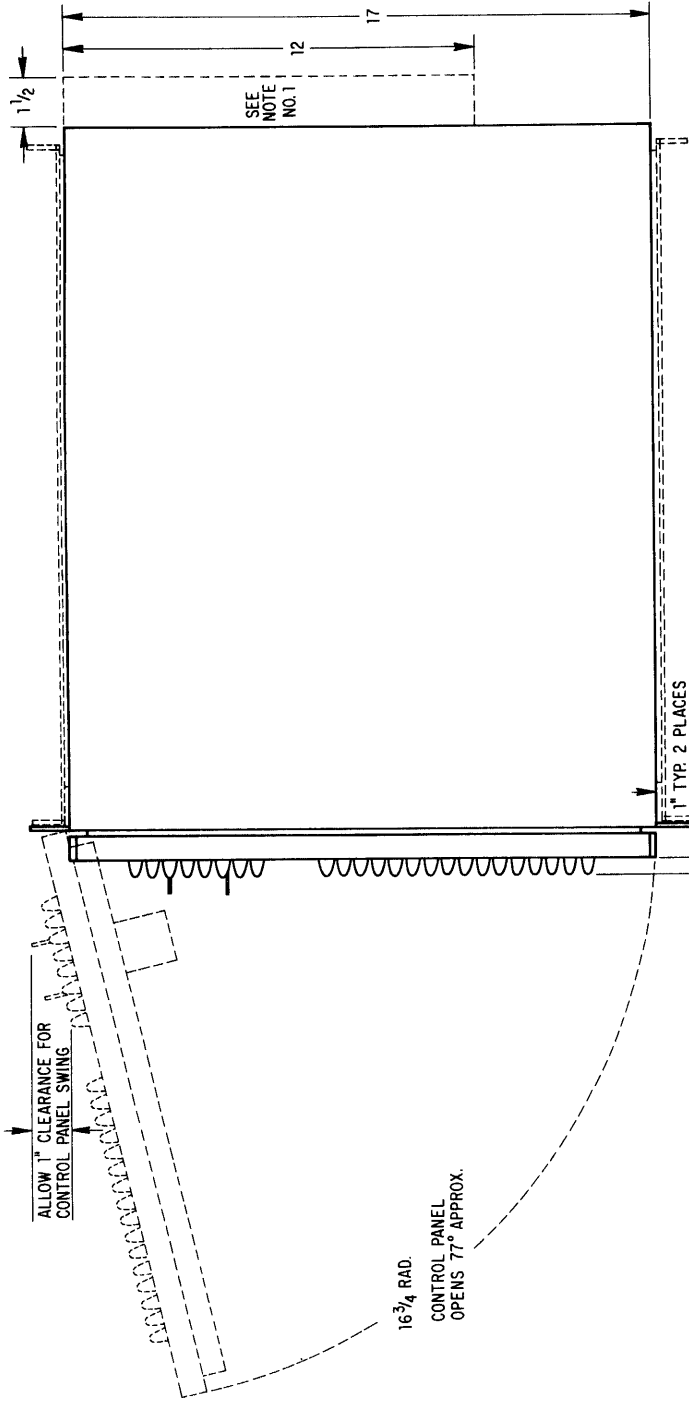
	<i>Processor</i>	<i>Teletype</i>
Line current (115 vac)	4 amperes	2 amperes Turnon surge 7 amperes
Dissipation	150-250 watts	92 watts

The +5 vdc output of the power supply can deliver 13 amperes, of which about 6 are used by the processor with 4K of memory; the rest is available for additional memory and other optional operators. Each expansion chassis has its own power supplies.

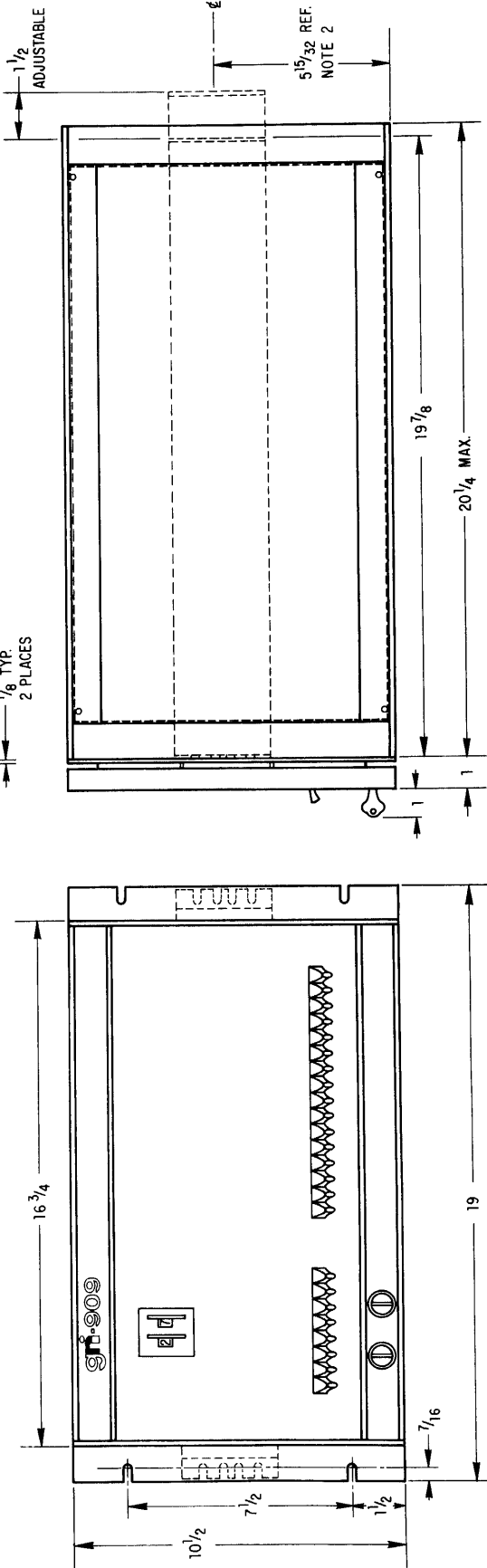
Complete assembly instructions for the teletype are given in Section 574-100-201 of Bulletin 273B, Volume 1, *Technical Manual, 32 and 33 Teletypewriter Sets*. In particular, Part 6 of that section describes the installation of the power pack, which is mounted inside the stand as shown in the illustration on page 14. Plug the power pack cable into the pack, and plug the teletype power cable into the line power source. Plug and lock the signal cable onto the edge fingers on the back edges of the Teletype interface cards at the back of the processor chassis (the teletype output and input interface cards are at the left end, closest to the memory, and are marked TTO and TTI respectively).

	<i>Height</i> <i>(inches)</i>	<i>Width</i> <i>(inches)</i>	<i>Depth</i> <i>(inches)</i>	<i>Weight</i> <i>(pounds)</i>
Main chassis	10½	19	20	50
Teletype ASR33	45	22	19	56

C2



- NOTES:  
 1. THE NOTED AREA MUST BE FREE OF OBSTRUCTIONS TO ALLOW FOR POWER AND IO CABLE SWEEPS.  
 2. THESE DIMENSIONS ARE FOR SLIDE MOUNTING OPTION.



Physical Dimensions



## APPENDIX D

### POWER FAILURE AND AUTOMATIC RESTART

Power supply specifications are given in the preceding appendix. A rise or fall of .25 volt in the +5 volt or -5 volt output will result in a power failure. Should this occur, the power supply control circuitry signals the processor of the condition and then waits at least 100  $\mu$ s before initiating an orderly power down sequence. To protect system components from being damaged by an excessive overvoltage, the +5 and -20 vdc supplies contain silicon-controlled rectifiers (known as crowbars) that will short circuit the supply if necessary.

To ensure full core memory protection, the power supply control executes an orderly power up sequence following power turnon or a power failure. If the

failure condition still exists as power is coming up, the control simply initiates the shutdown sequence again. The power up sequence takes 3 seconds, and upon its completion the processor is ready to run. If the autorestart switch is on, the processor goes into normal operation starting at location 6; otherwise it comes on stopped. The switch is located on the front panel of the power supply behind the console.

#### *Caution*

If the machine continually shuts down and restarts, the most likely cause is transients in the ac input.



## APPENDIX E

### INSTRUCTION MNEMONICS

Listed below are the basic instruction types with their execution times and the number of words they require. At the bottom of the page is a chart showing the derivation of the instruction mnemonics. The table on the next page lists the

basic assembly mnemonics in alphabetical order. On pages E3 and E4 is a list of operator codes in numerical order with page references. Following that is a table showing the many variations of which each instruction type is capable.

	<i>Words</i>	<i>Cycles</i>	<i>Time Microseconds</i>
Data Transmission			
Nonmemory reference	1	1	1.76
Memory reference			
Direct	2	3	5.28
Deferred	2	4	7.04
Immediate	2	2	3.52
Immediate and deferred	2	3	5.28
Data Testing			
No jump	2	1	1.76
Jump direct	2	2	3.52
Jump deferred	2	3	5.28
Function Generating	1	1	1.76
Function Testing	1	1	1.76

Register Zero	} to Register	{	~ Complement
Register Zero	} to Memory	{	direct Deferred Immediate Immediate and Deferred
Memory to	{ Register Self	}	
Jump	{ Conditional Unconditional	}	direct Deferred
Function Output	{ Machine Interrupt Arithmetic	}	
Sense Function	{ Machine Arithmetic	}	

## INSTRUCTION MNEMONICS

ADD	0000	ISR	04	R1	1100
AND	0100	JC	00 0000 03	RM	00 0000 06
AO	13	JCD	00 0001 03	RMD	00 0001 06
AOV	0010	JU	00 0010 03	RMI	00 0010 06
AX	11	JUD	00 0011 03	RMID	00 0011 06
AY	12	L1	1000	RR	00 0000 00
BOV	0010	LEZ	1100	RRC	00 0010 00
CLIF	1000	LNK	0100	RS	00 0000 00
CLL	0001	LTZ	1000	RSC	00 0010 00
CLOF	0011	MPO	14	SC	07
CML	0011	MR	06 0000 00	SF	00 0000 02
ETZ	0100	MRD	06 0001 00	SFA	13 0000 02
FO	02 0000 00	MRI	06 0010 00	SFM	00 0000 02
FOA	02 0000 13	MRID	06 0011 00	STRT	0001
FOI	02 0000 04	MS	06 0000 06	STL	0010
FOM	02 0000 00	MSD	06 0001 06	SWR	10
GEZ	1010	MSI	06 0010 06	TRP	03
GR1	26	MSID	06 0011 06	TTI	77
GR2	27	MSR	17	TTO	77
GTZ	1110	NEZ	0110	XOR	1000
HLT	0100	NOP	00 0000 00	ZM	00 0000 06
HSP	76	NOT	0001	ZMD	00 0001 06
HSR	76	NPFL	1000	ZMI	00 0010 06
ICF	0001	OR	1100	ZMID	00 0011 06
ICO	0010	ORDY	0010	ZR	00 0000 00
IRDY	1000	P1	0100	ZRC	00 0010 00

## OPERATOR CODES

Octal	Mnemonic	Page	Source	Operator	Destination
00				Null-Control	
01			Instruction Register		Null
02			Function Generator		Function Tester
03	TRP	2-7	Trap Register	Data Tester ( <i>nonmemory source</i> ) Trap Register ( <i>memory source</i> )	
04	ISR	2-16		Interrupt Status Register	
05			Memory Address		Null
06				Memory (Buffer)	
07	SC	2-11		Sequence Counter	
10	SWR	2-19	Console Switch Register		Null
11	AX	3-1		Register AX	
12	AY	3-1		Register AY	
13	AO	3-1		Arithmetic Operator	
14	MPO*	3-4		Multiply Operator	
15				External Data	
16			External Address		Null
17	MSR	2-11		Machine Status Register	
20					
21	BX*			Register BX	
22	BY*			Register BY	
23	BAO*			Second Arithmetic Operator	
24	BSW*	3-4		Byte Swapper	
25	BPK*	3-4		Byte Packer	
26	GR1	3-3		General Register 1	
27	GR2	3-3		General Register 2	
30					
31					
32					
33					
34					
35					
36					
37					

E4

Octal	Mnemonic	Page	Source	Operator	Destination
40					
41					
42					
43					
44					
45					
46					
47					
50					
51					
52					
53					
54					
55					
56					
57					
60					
61					
62					
63					
64					
65					
66					
67					
70					
71					
72					
73					
74					
75	RTC *			Real Time Clock	
76	HSR HSP	4-6	High Speed Reader		High Speed Punch
77	TTI TTO	4-1	Teletype Input		Teletype Output

\* Not defined in the assembler symbol table.

## INSTRUCTION VARIATIONS

In order to show the wide variety of individual instructions available in the GRI-909, we list here all the variations of the basic instruction types for a single pair of operators. The assemblers recognize mnemonic or structural forms for eleven instruction types as follows:

- |                         |                       |
|-------------------------|-----------------------|
| 1. Register to Register | 7. Memory to Self     |
| 2. Zero to Register     | 8. Conditional Jump   |
| 3. Register to Self     | 9. Unconditional Jump |
| 4. Register to Memory   | 10. Function Generate |
| 5. Zero to Memory       | 11. Sense Function    |
| 6. Memory to Register   |                       |

## 1. Register to Register

Data transmission from one register to another is the fastest and most commonly used class of machine instruction. The modifications performed on the data by the bus modifier while the data is in transit expand this form into the set listed below. For illustration the arithmetic register AX is being sent to general purpose register 1 (GR1)

<i>Data modification</i>	<i>BASE</i>	<i>FAST</i>
None	RR AX,GR1	AX TO GR1
Increment by 1	RR AX,P1,GR1	AX P1 TO GR1
Shift left 1	RR AX,L1,GR1	AX L1 TO GR1
Shift right 1	RR AX,R1,GR1	AX R1 TO GR1
Complement	RRC AX,GR1	C AX TO GR1
Complement and increment by 1	RRC AX,P1,GR1	C AX P1 TO GR1
Complement and shift left 1	RRC AX,L1,GR1	C AX L1 TO GR1
Complement and shift right 1	RRC AX,R1,GR1	C AX R1 TO GR1

## 2. Zero to Register

This is a special case of the register to register instruction where the source is the null operator. With no source register delivering data to the destination bus, the data supplied to the bus modifier is zero, and the following set of instructions results.

<i>Data modification</i>	<i>BASE</i>	<i>FAST</i>
None	ZR AX	ZERO TO AX
Increment by 1	ZR P1,AX	ZERO P1 TO AX
Shift left 1	ZR L1,AX	ZERO L1 TO AX
Shift right 1	ZR R1,AX	ZERO R1 TO AX
Complement	ZRC AX	C ZERO TO AX
Complement and increment by 1	ZRC P1,AX	C ZERO P1 TO AX
Complement and shift left 1	ZRC L1,AX	C ZERO L1 TO AX
Complement and shift right 1	ZRC R1,AX	C ZERO R1 TO AX

### 3. Register to Self

The bus modifier can be made to act directly on the contents of a single register by specifying that register as both source and destination. This special case of register to register gives this instruction set.

<i>Data modification</i>	<i>BASE</i>	<i>FAST</i>
Increment by 1	RS AX,P1	AX P1
Shift left 1	RS AX,L1	AX L1
Shift right 1	RS AX,R1	AX R1
Complement	RSC AX	C AX
Complement and increment by 1	RSC AX,P1	C AX P1
Complement and shift left 1	RSC AX,L1	C AX L1
Complement and shift right 1	RSC AX,R1	C AX R1

### 4. Register to Memory

To transfer data from a register to memory the memory buffer is designated as the destination. The next consecutive memory location in the program is then used as a memory address or as an immediate data storage location. This instruction type expands into the set given here when memory addressing modes and bus modifier options are considered. AX is the source, MDATA is the address of a location containing data, and ADATA is the address of a location containing a deferred address. In immediate mode the second instruction location will be used to receive data, so we specify its contents initially as 0.



<i>Memory addressing</i>	<i>Data modification</i>	<i>BASE</i>		<i>FAST</i>
Direct	None	RM	AX,MDATA	AX TO MDATA
Direct	Increment by 1	RM	AX,P1,MDATA	AX P1 TO MDATA
Direct	Left 1	RM	AX,L1,MDATA	AX L1 TO MDATA
Direct	Right 1	RM	AX,R1,MDATA	AX R1 TO MDATA
Deferred	None	RMD	AX,ADATA	AX TO D ADATA
Deferred	Increment by 1	RMD	AX,P1,ADATA	AX P1 TO D ADATA
Deferred	Left 1	RMD	AX,L1,ADATA	AX L1 TO D ADATA
Deferred	Right 1	RMD	AX,R1,ADATA	AX R1 TO D ADATA
Immediate	None	RMI	AX,0	AX TO I 0
Immediate	Increment by 1	RMI	AX,P1,0	AX P1 TO I 0
Immediate	Left 1	RMI	AX,L1,0	AX L1 TO I 0
Immediate	Right 1	RMI	AX,R1,0	AX R1 TO I 0
Immediate deferred	None	RMID	AX,ADATA	AX TO ID ADATA
Immediate deferred	Increment by 1	RMID	AX,P1,ADATA	AX P1 TO ID ADATA
Immediate deferred	Left 1	RMID	AX,L1,ADATA	AX L1 TO ID ADATA
Immediate deferred	Right 1	RMID	AX,R1,ADATA	AX R1 TO ID ADATA

## 5. Zero to Memory

This is a special case of register to memory where the source is the null operator. The source word is therefore zero and the data sent to memory is dependent upon only the operations performed in the bus modifier. The set of instructions for this special case are given using the same terminology as for register to memory.

<i>Memory addressing</i>	<i>Data modification</i>	<i>BASE</i>		<i>FAST</i>
Direct	None	ZM	MDATA	ZERO TO MDATA
Direct	Increment by 1	ZM	P1,MDATA	ZERO P1 TO MDATA
Direct	Left 1	ZM	L1,MDATA	ZERO L1 TO MDATA
Direct	Right 1	ZM	R1,MDATA	ZERO R1 TO MDATA
Deferred	None	ZMD	ADATA	ZERO TO D ADATA
Deferred	Increment by 1	ZMD	P1,ADATA	ZERO P1 TO D ADATA
Deferred	Left 1	ZMD	L1,ADATA	ZERO L1 TO D ADATA
Deferred	Right 1	ZMD	R1,ADATA	ZERO R1 TO D ADATA
Immediate	None	ZMI	0	ZERO TO I 0
Immediate	Increment by 1	ZMI	P1,0	ZERO P1 TO I 0

E8

Immediate	Left 1	ZMI	L1,0	ZERO L1 TO I 0
Immediate	Right 1	ZMI	R1,0	ZERO R1 TO I 0
Immediate deferred	None	ZMID	ADATA	ZERO TO ID ADATA
Immediate deferred	Increment by 1	ZMID	P1,ADATA	ZERO P1 TO ID ADATA
Immediate deferred	Left 1	ZMID	L1,ADATA	ZERO L1 TO ID ADATA
Immediate deferred	Right 1	ZMID	R1,ADATA	ZERO R1 TO ID ADATA

## 6. Memory to Register

This is the exact inverse of register to memory discussed above. MDATA and ADATA have the same meaning as before, but in immediate mode we must specify the data to be supplied from the second instruction location. For an example we use 5 as the data word.

### *Memory addressing*

	<i>Data modification</i>	<i>BASE</i>		<i>FAST</i>
Direct	None	MR	MDATA,AX	MDATA TO AX
Direct	Increment by 1	MR	MDATA,P1,AX	MDATA P1 TO AX
Direct	Left 1	MR	MDATA,L1,AX	MDATA L1 TO AX
Direct	Right 1	MR	MDATA,R1,AX	MDATA R1 TO AX
Deferred	None	MRD	ADATA,AX	D ADATA TO AX
Deferred	Increment by 1	MRD	ADATA,P1,AX	D ADATA P1 TO AX
Deferred	Left 1	MRD	ADATA,L1,AX	D ADATA L1 TO AX
Deferred	Right 1	MRD	ADATA,R1,AX	D ADATA R1 TO AX
Immediate	None	MRI	5,AX	I 5 TO AX
Immediate	Increment by 1	MRI	5,P1,AX	I 5 P1 TO AX
Immediate	Left 1	MRI	5,L1,AX	I 5 L1 TO AX
Immediate	Right 1	MRI	5,R1,AX	I 5 R1 TO AX
Immediate deferred	None	MRID	ADATA,AX	ID ADATA TO AX
Immediate deferred	Increment by 1	MRID	ADATA,P1,AX	ID ADATA P1 TO AX
Immediate deferred	Left 1	MRID	ADATA,L1,AX	ID ADATA L1 TO AX
Immediate deferred	Right 1	MRID	ADATA,R1,AX	ID ADATA R1 TO AX

## 7. Memory to Self

A memory reference instruction can access only one memory data location, but when the memory buffer is designated as both source and destination, the contents of that location can be modified directly, giving this instruction set.

<i>Memory addressing</i>	<i>Data modification</i>	<i>BASE</i>	<i>FAST</i>
Direct	Increment by 1	MS	M DATA,P1
Direct	Left 1	MS	M DATA,L1
Direct	Right 1	MS	M DATA,R1
Deferred	None	MSD	A DATA
Deferred	Increment by 1	MSD	A DATA,P1
Deferred	Left 1	MSD	A DATA,L1
Deferred	Right 1	MSD	A DATA,R1
Immediate	None	MSI	0
Immediate	Increment by 1	MSI	0,P1
Immediate	Left 1	MSI	0,L1
Immediate	Right 1	MSI	0,R1
Immediate deferred	None	MSID	A DATA
Immediate deferred	Increment by 1	MSID	A DATA,P1
Immediate deferred	Left 1	MSID	A DATA,L1
Immediate deferred	Right 1	MSID	A DATA,R1

## 8. Conditional Jump

This is a data test instruction. The source data is send directly to the data tester and is not subject to action by the bus modifier. Jump addressing and conditions for testing the data produce this instruction set.

<i>Memory addressing</i>	<i>Data test</i>	<i>BASE</i>	<i>FAST</i>
Direct	Data = 0	JC	AX,ETZ,BEGIN
Direct	Data < 0	JC	AX,LTZ,BEGIN
Direct	Data ≤ 0	JC	AX,LEZ,BEGIN
Direct	Data ≠ 0	JC	AX,NEZ,BEGIN
Direct	Data ≥ 0	JC	AX,GEZ,BEGIN
Direct	Data > 0	JC	AX,GTZ,BEGIN
Deferred	Data = 0	JCD	AX,ETZ,ABGIN
Deferred	Data < 0	JCD	AX,LTZ,ABGIN
Deferred	Data ≤ 0	JCD	AX,LEZ,ABGIN
Deferred	Data ≠ 0	JCD	AX,NEZ,ABGIN
Deferred	Data ≥ 0	JCD	AX,GEZ,ABGIN
Deferred	Data > 0	JCD	AX,GTZ,ABGIN

## 9. Unconditional Jump

<i>Memory addressing</i>	<i>BASE</i>	<i>FAST</i>
Direct	JU BEGIN	GO TO BEGIN
Deferred	JUD ABGIN	GO TO D ABGIN

## 10. Function Generate

The four function bits in an FO instruction word permit up to sixteen unique FO instructions per destination operator address. These bit combinations can be given symbolic names or can simply be written in octal in the BASE language. The instruction set shown here generates functions for an A-D converter, mnemonic ADC.

<i>BASE</i>	<i>FAST</i>	<i>BASE</i>	<i>FAST</i>
FO 0,ADC	NO TO ADC	FO 10,ADC	N10 TO ADC
FO 1,ADC	N1 TO ADC	FO 11,ADC	N11 TO ADC
FO 2,ADC	N2 TO ADC	FO 12,ADC	N12 TO ADC
FO 3,ADC	N3 TO ADC	FO 13,ADC	N13 TO ADC
FO 4,ADC	N4 TO ADC	FO 14,ADC	N14 TO ADC
FO 5,ADC	N5 TO ADC	FO 15,ADC	N15 TO ADC
FO 6,ADC	N6 TO ADC	FO 16,ADC	N16 TO ADC
FO 7,ADC	N7 TO ADC	FO 17,ADC	N17 TO ADC

## 11. Sense Function

The four control bits in an SF instruction word allow up to fourteen different skip instructions per source operator address. The rightmost bit determines whether the skip shall occur if any condition specified by the other three is satisfied, or if no condition specified by them is satisfied. The conditions may be given in octal as is done here in BASE or by a symbolic name as must be done in the FAST language.

<i>BASE</i>	<i>FAST</i>	<i>BASE</i>	<i>FAST</i>
SF ADC,1	SKIP IF ADC F1	SF ADC,NOT 1	SKIP IF ADC NOT F1
SF ADC,2	SKIP IF ADC F2	SF ADC,NOT 2	SKIP IF ADC NOT F2
SF ADC,3	SKIP IF ADC F3	SF ADC,NOT 3	SKIP IF ADC NOT F3
SF ADC,4	SKIP IF ADC F4	SF ADC,NOT 4	SKIP IF ADC NOT F4
SF ADC,5	SKIP IF ADC F5	SF ADC,NOT 5	SKIP IF ADC NOT F5
SF ADC,6	SKIP IF ADC F6	SF ADC,NOT 6	SKIP IF ADC NOT F6
SF ADC,7	SKIP IF ADC F7	SF ADC,NOT 7	SKIP IF ADC NOT F7

APPENDIX F  
IN-OUT CODES

The table below lists the in-out devices, their interrupt status bit and channel assignments, mnemonics, operator codes and GRI option numbers. The table beginning on the next page lists the complete teletype code. Codes generated by the keyboard have a 1 in the most significant bit, but this bit can be 0 or 1 in a code sent to the printer. The lower case character set (codes 340-376) is

not available on the Model 33, but giving one of these codes causes the teletype to print the corresponding upper case character. Definitions of control codes are those given by ASCII. Most control codes, however, have no effect on the teletype, and their definitions bear no necessary relation to the use of the codes in conjunction with the GRI-909 software.

IN-OUT DEVICES

Interrupt Status Bit	Trap Location	Device	Mnemonic	Operator Code	Page	Option Number
	0	Power failure		00	2-19	
	0	Breakpoint		01	2-17	
0	11	Teletype output	TTO	77	4-1	S42-002
1	14	Teletype input	TTI	77	4-1	S42-001
2	17	High speed punch	HSP	76	4-6	S42-006
3	22	High speed reader	HSR	76	4-6	S42-004
4						
5						
6						
7						
8						
9						
10						
11						
12						
13						
14						
15						

## TELETYPE CODE

8-Bit Octal Code	Character	Remarks
200	NUL	Null, tape feed. Control shift P.
201	SOH	Start of heading; also SOM, start of message. Control A.
202	STX	Start of text; also EOA, end of address. Control B.
203	ETX	End of text; also EOM, end of message. Control C.
204	EOT	End of transmission; shuts off TWX machines. Control D.
205	ENQ	Enquiry; also WRU, "Who are You?" Triggers identification ("Here is ...") at remote station if so equipped. Control E.
206	ACK	Acknowledge; Also RU, "Are you ...?" Control F.
207	BEL	Rings the bell. Control G.
210	BS	Backspace; also FEO, format effector. Backspaces some machines. Control H.
211	HT	Horizontal tab. Control I.
212	LF	Line feed or line space; advances paper to next line. Duplicated by control J.
213	VT	Vertical tab. Control K.
214	FF	Form feed to top of next page. Control L.
215	CR	Carriage return to beginning of line. Control M.
216	SO	Shift out; changes ribbon color to red. Control N.
217	SI	Shift in; changes ribbon color to black. Control O.
220	DLE	Data link escape. Control P (DC0).
221	DC1	Device control 1, turns transmitter (reader) on. Control Q (X ON).
222	DC2	Device control 2, turns punch or auxiliary on. Control R (TAPE, AUX ON).
223	DC3	Device control 3, turns transmitter (reader) off. Control S (X OFF).
224	DC4	Device control 4, turns punch or auxiliary off. Control T (AUX OFF).
225	NAK	Negative acknowledge; also ERR, error. Control U.
226	SYN	Synchronous idle. Control V.
227	ETB	End of transmission block; also LEM, logical end of medium. Control W.
230	CAN	Cancel. Control X.
231	EM	End of medium. Control Y.
232	SUB	Substitute. Control Z.

8-Bit Octal Code	Character	Remarks
233	ESC	Escape, prefix. This code is also generated by control shift K.
234	FS	File separator. Control shift L.
235	GS	Group separator. Control shift M.
236	RS	Record separator. Control shift N.
237	US	Unit separator. Control shift O.
240	SP	Space.
241	!	
242	"	
243	#	
244	\$	
245	%	
246	&	
247	'	Accent acute or apostrophe.
250	(	
251	)	
252	*	
253	+	
254	,	
255	-	
256	.	
257	/	
260	0	
261	1	
262	2	
263	3	
264	4	
265	5	
266	6	
267	7	
270	8	
271	9	
272	:	
273	;	

F4

8-Bit Octal Code	Character	Remarks
274	<	
275	=	
276	>	
277	?	
300	@	
301	A	
302	B	
303	C	
304	D	
305	E	
306	F	
307	G	
310	H	
311	I	
312	J	
313	K	
314	L	
315	M	
316	N	
317	O	
320	P	
321	Q	
322	R	
323	S	
324	T	
325	U	
326	V	
327	W	
330	X	
331	Y	
332	Z	
333	[	Shift K.
334	\	Shift L.



8-Bit Octal Code	Character	Remarks
335	]	Shift M.
336	↑	
337	←	
340	˘	Accent grave.
341	a	
342	b	
343	c	
344	d	
345	e	
346	f	
347	g	
350	h	
351	i	
352	j	
353	k	
354	l	
355	m	
356	n	
357	o	
360	p	
361	q	
362	r	
363	s	
364	t	
365	u	
366	v	
367	w	
370	x	
371	y	
372	z	
373	{	
374		

F6

8-Bit  
Octal  
Code

Character

Remarks

375	}	On early versions, either of these codes may be generated by either the ALT MODE or ESC key.
376	~	
377	DEL	Delete, rub out.

#### Keys That Generate No Codes

REPT	Causes any other key that is struck to repeat continuously until REPT is released.
LOC LF	Local line feed.
LOC CR	Local carriage return.
BREAK	Opens the line (machine sends a continuous string of null characters).
BRK RLS	Break release (not applicable).
HERE IS	Transmits predetermined 20-character message.

## APPENDIX G

### NUMERICAL TABLES

#### POWERS OF TWO IN DECIMAL

$2^n$	$n$	$2^{-n}$
1	0	1.0
2	1	0.5
4	2	0.25
8	3	0.125
16	4	0.062 5
32	5	0.031 25
64	6	0.015 625
128	7	0.007 812 5
256	8	0.003 906 25
512	9	0.001 953 125
1 024	10	0.000 976 562 5
2 048	11	0.000 488 281 25
4 096	12	0.000 244 140 625
8 192	13	0.000 122 070 312 5
16 384	14	0.000 061 035 156 25
32 768	15	0.000 030 517 578 125
65 536	16	0.000 015 258 789 062 5
131 072	17	0.000 007 629 394 531 25
262 144	18	0.000 003 814 697 265 625
524 288	19	0.000 001 907 348 632 812 5
1 048 576	20	0.000 000 953 674 316 406 25
2 097 152	21	0.000 000 476 837 158 203 125
4 194 304	22	0.000 000 238 418 579 101 562 5
8 388 608	23	0.000 000 119 209 289 550 781 25
16 777 216	24	0.000 000 059 604 644 775 390 625
33 554 432	25	0.000 000 029 802 322 387 695 312 5
67 108 864	26	0.000 000 014 901 161 193 847 656 25
134 217 728	27	0.000 000 007 450 580 596 923 828 125
268 435 456	28	0.000 000 003 725 290 298 461 914 062 5
536 870 912	29	0.000 000 001 862 645 149 230 957 031 25
1 073 741 824	30	0.000 000 000 931 322 574 615 478 515 625
2 147 483 648	31	0.000 000 000 465 661 287 307 739 257 812 5
4 294 967 296	32	0.000 000 000 232 830 643 653 869 628 906 25

#### POWERS OF TEN IN OCTAL

$10^n$	$n$	$10^{-n}$
1	0	1.000 000 000 000 000 000 00
12	1	0.063 146 314 631 463 146 31
144	2	0.005 075 341 217 270 243 66
1 750	3	0.000 406 111 564 570 651 77
23 420	4	0.000 032 155 613 530 704 15
303 240	5	0.000 002 476 132 610 706 64
3 641 100	6	0.000 000 206 157 364 055 37
46 113 200	7	0.000 000 015 327 745 152 75
575 360 400	8	0.000 000 001 257 143 561 06
7 346 545 000	9	0.000 000 000 104 560 276 41
112 402 762 000	10	0.000 000 000 006 676 337 66
1 351 035 564 000	11	0.000 000 000 000 537 657 77
16 432 451 210 000	12	0.000 000 000 000 043 136 32
221 411 634 520 000	13	0.000 000 000 000 003 411 35
2 657 142 036 440 000	14	0.000 000 000 000 000 264 11
34 327 724 461 500 000	15	0.000 000 000 000 000 022 01
434 157 115 760 200 000	16	0.000 000 000 000 000 001 63
5 432 127 413 542 400 000	17	0.000 000 000 000 000 000 14
67 405 553 164 731 000 000	18	0.000 000 000 000 000 000 01









## OCTAL TO DECIMAL CONVERSION, FRACTIONS

<i>Octal</i>	<i>Decimal</i>	<i>Octal</i>	<i>Decimal</i>	<i>Octal</i>	<i>Decimal</i>	<i>Octal</i>	<i>Decimal</i>	<i>Octal</i>	<i>Decimal</i>
.00000	.000000	.10000	.125000	.20000	.250000	.30000	.375000	.40000	.500000
.00100	.001953	.10100	.126953	.20100	.251953	.30100	.376953	.40100	.501953
.00200	.003906	.10200	.128906	.20200	.253906	.30200	.378906	.40200	.503906
.00300	.005859	.10300	.130859	.20300	.255859	.30300	.380859	.40300	.505859
.00400	.007812	.10400	.132812	.20400	.257812	.30400	.382812	.40400	.507812
.00500	.009765	.10500	.134765	.20500	.259765	.30500	.384765	.40500	.509765
.00600	.011718	.10600	.136718	.20600	.261718	.30600	.386718	.40600	.511718
.00700	.013671	.10700	.138671	.20700	.263671	.30700	.388671	.40700	.513671
.01000	.015625	.11000	.140625	.21000	.265625	.31000	.390625	.41000	.515625
.01100	.017578	.11100	.142578	.21100	.267578	.31100	.392578	.41100	.517578
.01200	.019531	.11200	.144531	.21200	.269531	.31200	.394531	.41200	.519531
.01300	.021484	.11300	.146484	.21300	.271484	.31300	.396484	.41300	.521484
.01400	.023437	.11400	.148437	.21400	.273437	.31400	.398437	.41400	.523437
.01500	.025390	.11500	.150390	.21500	.275390	.31500	.400390	.41500	.525390
.01600	.027343	.11600	.152343	.21600	.277343	.31600	.402343	.41600	.527343
.01700	.029296	.11700	.154296	.21700	.279296	.31700	.404296	.41700	.529296
.02000	.031250	.12000	.156250	.22000	.281250	.32000	.406250	.42000	.531250
.02100	.033203	.12100	.158203	.22100	.283203	.32100	.408203	.42100	.533203
.02200	.035156	.12200	.160156	.22200	.285156	.32200	.410156	.42200	.535156
.02300	.037109	.12300	.162109	.22300	.287109	.32300	.412109	.42300	.537109
.02400	.039062	.12400	.164062	.22400	.289062	.32400	.414062	.42400	.539062
.02500	.041015	.12500	.166015	.22500	.291015	.32500	.416015	.42500	.541015
.02600	.042968	.12600	.167968	.22600	.292968	.32600	.417968	.42600	.542968
.02700	.044921	.12700	.169921	.22700	.294921	.32700	.419921	.42700	.544921
.03000	.046875	.13000	.171875	.23000	.296875	.33000	.421875	.43000	.546875
.03100	.048828	.13100	.173828	.23100	.298828	.33100	.423828	.43100	.548828
.03200	.050781	.13200	.175781	.23200	.300781	.33200	.425781	.43200	.550781
.03300	.052734	.13300	.177734	.23300	.302734	.33300	.427734	.43300	.552734
.03400	.054687	.13400	.179687	.23400	.304687	.33400	.429687	.43400	.554687
.03500	.056640	.13500	.181640	.23500	.306640	.33500	.431640	.43500	.556640
.03600	.058593	.13600	.183593	.23600	.308593	.33600	.433593	.43600	.558593
.03700	.060546	.13700	.185546	.23700	.310546	.33700	.435546	.43700	.560546
.04000	.062500	.14000	.187500	.24000	.312500	.34000	.437500	.44000	.562500
.04100	.064453	.14100	.189453	.24100	.314453	.34100	.439453	.44100	.564453
.04200	.066406	.14200	.191406	.24200	.316406	.34200	.441406	.44200	.566406
.04300	.068359	.14300	.193359	.24300	.318359	.34300	.443359	.44300	.568359
.04400	.070312	.14400	.195312	.24400	.320312	.34400	.445312	.44400	.570312
.04500	.072265	.14500	.197265	.24500	.322265	.34500	.447265	.44500	.572265
.04600	.074218	.14600	.199218	.24600	.324218	.34600	.449218	.44600	.574218
.04700	.076171	.14700	.201171	.24700	.326171	.34700	.451171	.44700	.576171
.05000	.078125	.15000	.203125	.25000	.328125	.35000	.453125	.45000	.578125
.05100	.080078	.15100	.205078	.25100	.330078	.35100	.455078	.45100	.580078
.05200	.082031	.15200	.207031	.25200	.332031	.35200	.457031	.45200	.582031
.05300	.083984	.15300	.208984	.25300	.333984	.35300	.458984	.45300	.583984
.05400	.085937	.15400	.210937	.25400	.335937	.35400	.460937	.45400	.585937
.05500	.087890	.15500	.212890	.25500	.337890	.35500	.462890	.45500	.587890
.05600	.089843	.15600	.214843	.25600	.339843	.35600	.464843	.45600	.589843
.05700	.091796	.15700	.216796	.25700	.341796	.35700	.466796	.45700	.591796
.06000	.093750	.16000	.218750	.26000	.343750	.36000	.468750	.46000	.593750
.06100	.095703	.16100	.220703	.26100	.345703	.36100	.470703	.46100	.595703
.06200	.097656	.16200	.222656	.26200	.347656	.36200	.472656	.46200	.597656
.06300	.099609	.16300	.224609	.26300	.349609	.36300	.474609	.46300	.599609
.06400	.101562	.16400	.226562	.26400	.351562	.36400	.476562	.46400	.601562
.06500	.103515	.16500	.228515	.26500	.353515	.36500	.478515	.46500	.603515
.06600	.105468	.16600	.230468	.26600	.355468	.36600	.480468	.46600	.605468
.06700	.107421	.16700	.232421	.26700	.357421	.36700	.482421	.46700	.607421
.07000	.109375	.17000	.234375	.27000	.359375	.37000	.484375	.47000	.609375
.07100	.111328	.17100	.236328	.27100	.361328	.37100	.486328	.47100	.611328
.07200	.113281	.17200	.238281	.27200	.363281	.37200	.488281	.47200	.613281
.07300	.115234	.17300	.240234	.27300	.365234	.37300	.490234	.47300	.615234
.07400	.117187	.17400	.242187	.27400	.367187	.37400	.492187	.47400	.617187
.07500	.119140	.17500	.244140	.27500	.369140	.37500	.494140	.47500	.619140
.07600	.121093	.17600	.246093	.27600	.371093	.37600	.496093	.47600	.621093
.07700	.123046	.17700	.248046	.27700	.373046	.37700	.498046	.47700	.623046



## Octal to Decimal Conversion, Fractions

Octal	Decimal	Octal	Decimal	Octal	Decimal	Octal	Decimal
.50000	.625000	.60000	.750000	.70000	.875000	.00000	.000000
.50100	.626953	.60100	.751953	.70100	.876953	.00001	.000030
.50200	.628906	.60200	.753906	.70200	.878906	.00002	.000061
.50300	.630859	.60300	.755859	.70300	.880859	.00003	.000091
.50400	.632812	.60400	.757812	.70400	.882812	.00004	.000122
.50500	.634765	.60500	.759765	.70500	.884765	.00005	.000152
.50600	.636718	.60600	.761718	.70600	.886718	.00006	.000183
.50700	.638671	.60700	.763671	.70700	.888671	.00007	.000213
.51000	.640625	.61000	.765625	.71000	.890625	.00010	.000244
.51100	.642578	.61100	.767578	.71100	.892578	.00011	.000274
.51200	.644531	.61200	.769531	.71200	.894531	.00012	.000305
.51300	.646484	.61300	.771484	.71300	.896484	.00013	.000335
.51400	.648437	.61400	.773437	.71400	.898437	.00014	.000366
.51500	.650390	.61500	.775390	.71500	.900390	.00015	.000396
.51600	.652343	.61600	.777343	.71600	.902343	.00016	.000427
.51700	.654296	.61700	.779296	.71700	.904296	.00017	.000457
.52000	.656250	.62000	.781250	.72000	.906250	.00020	.000488
.52100	.658203	.62100	.783203	.72100	.908203	.00021	.000518
.52200	.660156	.62200	.785156	.72200	.910156	.00022	.000549
.52300	.662109	.62300	.787109	.72300	.912109	.00023	.000579
.52400	.664062	.62400	.789062	.72400	.914062	.00024	.000610
.52500	.666015	.62500	.791015	.72500	.916015	.00025	.000640
.52600	.667968	.62600	.792968	.72600	.917968	.00026	.000671
.52700	.669921	.62700	.794921	.72700	.919921	.00027	.000701
.53000	.671875	.63000	.796875	.73000	.921875	.00030	.000732
.53100	.673828	.63100	.798828	.73100	.923828	.00031	.000762
.53200	.675781	.63200	.800781	.73200	.925781	.00032	.000793
.53300	.677734	.63300	.802734	.73300	.927734	.00033	.000823
.53400	.679687	.63400	.804687	.73400	.929687	.00034	.000854
.53500	.681640	.63500	.806640	.73500	.931640	.00035	.000885
.53600	.683593	.63600	.808593	.73600	.933593	.00036	.000915
.53700	.685546	.63700	.810546	.73700	.935546	.00037	.000946
.54000	.687500	.64000	.812500	.74000	.937500	.00040	.000976
.54100	.689453	.64100	.814453	.74100	.939453	.00041	.001007
.54200	.691406	.64200	.816406	.74200	.941406	.00042	.001037
.54300	.693359	.64300	.818359	.74300	.943359	.00043	.001068
.54400	.695312	.64400	.820312	.74400	.945312	.00044	.001098
.54500	.697265	.64500	.822265	.74500	.947265	.00045	.001129
.54600	.699218	.64600	.824218	.74600	.949218	.00046	.001159
.54700	.701171	.64700	.826171	.74700	.951171	.00047	.001190
.55000	.703125	.65000	.828125	.75000	.953125	.00050	.001220
.55100	.705078	.65100	.830078	.75100	.955078	.00051	.001251
.55200	.707031	.65200	.832031	.75200	.957031	.00052	.001281
.55300	.708984	.65300	.833984	.75300	.958984	.00053	.001312
.55400	.710937	.65400	.835937	.75400	.960937	.00054	.001342
.55500	.712890	.65500	.837890	.75500	.962890	.00055	.001373
.55600	.714843	.65600	.839843	.75600	.964843	.00056	.001403
.55700	.716796	.65700	.841796	.75700	.966796	.00057	.001434
.56000	.718750	.66000	.843750	.76000	.968750	.00060	.001464
.56100	.720703	.66100	.845703	.76100	.970703	.00061	.001495
.56200	.722656	.66200	.847656	.76200	.972656	.00062	.001525
.56300	.724609	.66300	.849609	.76300	.974609	.00063	.001556
.56400	.726562	.66400	.851562	.76400	.976562	.00064	.001586
.56500	.728515	.66500	.853515	.76500	.978515	.00065	.001617
.56600	.730468	.66600	.855468	.76600	.980468	.00066	.001647
.56700	.732421	.66700	.857421	.76700	.982421	.00067	.001678
.57000	.734375	.67000	.859375	.77000	.984375	.00070	.001708
.57100	.736328	.67100	.861328	.77100	.986328	.00071	.001739
.57200	.738281	.67200	.863281	.77200	.988281	.00072	.001770
.57300	.740234	.67300	.865234	.77300	.990234	.00073	.001800
.57400	.742187	.67400	.867187	.77400	.992187	.00074	.001831
.57500	.744140	.67500	.869140	.77500	.994140	.00075	.001861
.57600	.746093	.67600	.871093	.77600	.996093	.00076	.001892
.57700	.748046	.67700	.873046	.77700	.998046	.00077	.001922



## APPENDIX H

### ARITHMETIC FORMATS

The format for single precision numbers in twos complement fixed point notation is treated at the beginning of Chapter 2. Let us first discuss some further properties of such numbers here.

Zero is represented by a word containing all 0s. Complementing this number produces all 1s, and adding 1 to that produces all 0s again. Hence there is only one zero representation and its sign is positive. Since the numbers are symmetrical in magnitude about the single zero representation, all even numbers both positive and negative end in 0, all odd numbers in 1 (the number all 1s represents -1). But since there are the same number of positive and negative numbers and zero is positive, there is one more negative number than there are nonzero positive numbers. This is the most negative number and it cannot be produced by negating any positive number (its magnitude is one greater than the largest positive number and its octal representation is 100000).

If ones complements were used for negatives one could read a negative number by attaching significance to the 0s instead of the 1s. In twos complement notation each negative number is one greater than the complement of the positive number of the same magnitude, so one can read a negative number by attaching significance to the rightmost 1 and attaching significance to the 0s at the left of it (the negative number of the largest magnitude has a 1 in only the sign position). In a negative integer, 1s may be discarded at the left just as leading 0s may be dropped in a positive integer. In a negative fraction, 0s may be discarded at the right. So long as only 0s are discarded the number remains in twos complement form because it still has a 1 that possesses significance; but if a portion including the rightmost 1 is discarded, the remaining part of the fraction is now a ones complement.

The computer does not keep track of a binary point — the programmer must adopt a point convention and shift the magnitude of the result to conform to the convention used. Two common conventions are to regard a number as an integer (binary point at the right) or as a proper fraction (binary point at the left); in these two cases the range of signed numbers represented by a single word is  $-2^{15}$  to  $2^{15} - 1$  or  $-1$  to  $1 - 2^{-15}$ .

**Double Precision Arithmetic.** In a double length fixed point number, the second word is simply an extension of the magnitude part of the number. A double length number consists of two words concatenated into a 32-bit string wherein bit 15 of the high order word is the sign, and bits 14-0 of that word and bits 15-0 of the low order word are the magnitude in twos complement notation [see the upper illustration on the next page]. The high order part of a negative number is therefore in ones complement form unless the low order part is null (at the right only 0s are null regardless of sign). Hence in processing double length numbers, twos complement operations are usually confined to the low order parts, whereas ones complement operations are generally required for the high order parts. The address of a double length number is the address of its more significant word.

Suppose we wish to negate the double length number whose high and low order words respectively are in AX and AY. We negate the low order part, but we simply complement the high order part unless the low order part is zero.

JC	AY,ETZ,ZERO	;Low part zero?
RSC	AY,P1	;No,negate low
RSC	AX	;Complement high
JU	.+3	
ZERO: RSC	AX,P1	;Yes,negate high

Note that the magnitude parts of the sequence of negative numbers from the

H2

$$+262,146_{10} = +2000002_8 = \begin{array}{|c|c|} \hline 0\ 000\ 000\ 000\ 001\ 000 & 0\ 000\ 000\ 000\ 000\ 010 \\ \hline 15 & 0\ 15\ 0 \end{array}$$

$$-262,146_{10} = -2000002_8 = \begin{array}{|c|c|} \hline 1\ 111\ 111\ 111\ 110\ 111 & 1\ 111\ 111\ 111\ 111\ 110 \\ \hline 15 & 0\ 15\ 0 \end{array}$$

### Double Precision Fixed Point Format

$$+153_{10} = +231_8 = +.462 \times 2^8 = \begin{array}{|c|c|c|} \hline 0\ 100\ 110\ 010\ 000\ 000 & 0\ 000\ 000\ 0 & 10\ 001\ 000 \\ \hline 15\ 14 & 0\ 15 & 87\ 0 \end{array}$$

$$-153_{10} = -231_8 = -.462 \times 2^8 = \begin{array}{|c|c|c|} \hline 1\ 011\ 001\ 110\ 000\ 000 & 0\ 000\ 000\ 0 & 10\ 001\ 000 \\ \hline 15\ 14 & 0\ 15 & 87\ 0 \end{array}$$

### Floating Point Format

most negative toward zero are the positive numbers from zero upward. In other words the negative representation  $-x$  is the sum of  $x$  and the most negative number. Hence in multiple precision arithmetic, low order words can be treated simply as positive numbers. In unsigned addition a carry indicates that the low order result is just too large and the high order part must be increased. We add the number in A and A+1 to the number in GR1 and GR2, with the result going to GR1 and GR2.

```
FOA  ADD
RR   GR2,AX
MR   A+1,AY
RR   AO,GR2
SFA  NOT AOV
RS   GR1,P1
NOP
RR   GR1,AX
MR   A,AY
RR   AO,GR1
```

In twos complement subtraction a carry should occur unless the subtrahend is too large.

### Floating Point Arithmetic

Software is available for processing floating point numbers. For a given word length, floating point format sacrifices some precision for a much greater range in order of magnitude. The software interprets the two-word floating point representation of a number as containing a sign, a 23-bit proper fraction, and an 8-bit exponent [*lower illustration above*]. The sign is bit 15 of the high order word, and in a positive number it is 0. The contents of bits 14-0 of the high word and bits 15-8 of the low word are interpreted only as a binary fraction; and the contents of bits 7-0 of the low word are interpreted as an integral exponent in excess 128 ( $200_8$ ) code. Exponents from -128 to +127 are therefore represented by the binary equivalents of 0 to 255 ( $0-377_8$ ). The negative of a number is represented by taking the twos complement of the sign and fraction only — the exponent is left in positive form. Zero is represented by all 0s in sign, fraction and exponent. The routines always represent a zero result in this form, but they in-

interpret any operand with a zero fractional part as being zero.

Most routines assume that all nonzero operands are normalized, and they normalize a nonzero result. A floating point number is considered normalized if the magnitude of the fraction is greater than or equal to  $\frac{1}{2}$  and less than 1; in other words the sign and the most significant bit of the fraction differ or the fraction is  $-\frac{1}{2}$ . These numbers thus have a fractional range in magnitude of  $\frac{1}{2}$  to  $1 - 2^{-23}$  and an exponent range of -128 to +127.

This corresponds to a decimal range of approximately  $5 \times 10^{-40}$  to  $5 \times 10^{38}$ . In some cases a routine may not give the correct result if the programmer supplies an operand that is not normalized.

Numbers of greater precision are produced simply by inserting words containing sixteen fraction bits between the words described above. As in the fixed point case, the address of a multiple precision number is the address of its highest order word.



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