## A DESCRIPTION OF THE RIKKE 1 SYSTEM

## by

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Page
Foreword ..... iii

1. 0. Introduction ..... 1
1. 2. Historical Notes ..... 1
1.2. General Design Criteria and Constraints ..... 2
2.0. The RIKKE 1 system ..... 5
2.1. The Register Group ..... 6
2.2. Counter $A$ ..... 8
2.3. Bus Transport ..... 10
1. 4. Working Registers ..... 12
1. 4. 5. Microinstruction Format and a Few Examples ..... 14
2.5. The Bus Shifter ..... 19
1. 6. Bus Masks ..... 24
2.7. Postshift Masks ..... 28
2.8. The Arithmetical and Logical Unit ..... 35
2.9. The Local Registers ..... 38
2.10. The Accumulator Shifter ..... 40
2.11. The Variable Width Shifter ..... 46
2.12. Double Shifter ..... 48
2.12.1. Two examples using the shifters ..... 50
2.13. The Common Shifter Standard Group ..... 54
2.14. Loading Masks ..... 56
2.15. The Parity Generator ..... 60
2.16. The Bit Encoder ..... 60
1. 17. Input Ports ..... 61
1. 18. Output Ports ..... 64
1. 19. The Bus Structure ..... 67
1. 20. The Control Unit ..... 69
1. 20.1. Microinstruction Sequencing ..... 70
2. 20. 2. The Control Unit Arithmetical Logical Unit ..... 72
1. 20.3. Return Jump Stacks $A$ and $B$ ..... 77
2. 20. 4. The Save Address Register ..... 80
1. 20.5. The Microinstruction Address Bus ..... 81
2. 20.6. Control Store Loading ..... 83
2.21. Control Panel Switches KA and KB ..... 84
3. 22. Internal Flags $K C$ and $K D$ ..... 84
2.23. The Conditions and Condition Selector ..... 86
1. 24. Short and Long Cycle ..... 90
2.25. The Real. Time Clock ..... 91
1. 26. Auxiliary Facilities ..... 92
2.26.1. Counter $B$ ..... 92
1. 26. 2. Main Memory ..... 93
1. 27. An Alternate View of the Working Registers ..... 96
1. 28. An Alternate View of the Postshift Masks ..... 99
1. 0. Microinstruction Specification and Execution ..... 102
1. 2. Microinstruction Format ..... 102
3.2. Microinstruction Execution ..... 110
3.2.1. Example of how to use Clock Pulse 1 and Clock Pulse 2 ..... 112
1. 3. Comprehensive Tables of Microoperations for Individual Functional Units ..... 113
Tables of Microoperations ..... 114
Table of First Occurrance of Abbreviations and Symbols ..... 121
List of Figures ..... 125
List of Tables ..... 127
References ..... 129

## Foreword

It is the purpose of this document to give an introductory (yet reasonably detailed) description of the RIKKE 1 System. The bus structure, the registers and functional units attached to it, and the control which can be exercised on these components are discussed. The document is not a reference manual. Rather, it is written entirely from the pedagogical point of view, with the system described in a modular fashion. Examples are introduced after each component is added to the basic bus structure. The examples are written in the RIKKE 1 microassembly language (see [8]). The examples are deliberately kept simple so the reader will not spend time learning a complicated or clever algorithm but will learn the control mechanisms of the particular components involved. Thus, many of the examples are "contrived" and do not perform any particular "useful" data transformations. It is hoped that this approach enhances the reader's understanding and underscores the overall simplicity and homogeneity of the structure and its components.

The present description is a modification of a similar one, describing another slightly different system called MATHILDA (DAIMI PB-13), written by Bruce D. Shriver.

For more detailed information the reader is referred to [9].

# A Description of the RIKKE 1 System <br> by <br> Jørgen Staunstrup 

### 1.0. Introduction

RIKKE 1 is a dynamically microprogrammable processor which has been designed to be used as a tool in emulation-oriented and processor design research. For the sake of completeness we will discuss briefly a short history of the unit and then some of the criteria which served as a basis for its design.

## 1. 1. Historical Notes

In the spring of 1971 the Department of Computer Science of the University of Aarhus was considering the purchase of a standard minicomputer to act as a controller for a variety of peripherals and to simulate a medium speed batch terminal to the Computer Center's large system. A group of people were, at this time, working on the design of an integrated software and hardware description language called BPL [1]. To support this group and to make the use of such a minicomputer more flexible, it was decided to design and construct a microprogrammable minicomputer within the department itself.

The design was started and completed during the summer of 1971. The resulting machine, RIKKE 0 [2], was constructed and began running in early 1972. In the meantime a number of projects were proposed which were considered not to be compatible with that design. Among these were various projects in numerical analysis [3, 4] in which it was found that the word size and bus width of the RIKKE 0 ( 16 bit) was too short to obtain an efficient implementation of even standard arithmetic operations on numbers. It was then suggested that a microprogrammed functional unit with a wider data path and special features could be attached to

RIKKE 0 as an I/O device, or "functional unit", together with a wider memory, for use with these projects. A proposal was made to the Danish Research Council to obtain a grant to design and construct such a funcional unit. A grant was made i June 1972 in which funds were awarded for hardware and a memory ( 32 K , 64 bit wide, $1.4 \mu \mathrm{~s}$ access time). The manpower for the construction of the unit was, in part, granted by the Research Council; two staff engineers and one staff technician were provided by the Department. The design was started in May 1972 and completed during the summer of 1972. The construction of the resulting machine, MATHILDA, is due to be completed summer 1974.

The motivation for building the MATHILDA instead of purchasing a commercially available machine can be summarized as follows. First, there were ( as far as we knew ) no commercially available dynamically microprogrammable processors at the time we started our efforts which: (a) were in the price range we could afford, (b) were designed for or supported user written microcode or (c) offered a reasonable experimental and growth oriented structure. We felt that we had the in-house capability to design and construct the machine. The availability of LSI circuits and convenient mounting techniques and our experience with RIKKE 0 supported this view.

It was also decided that the new design for MATHILDE outdated the design of RIKKE 0, and with only minor modifications and additions could be used in the construction of a 16-bit machine, RIKKE 1 , which is the subject of this description. Design criteria with respect to construction supported this view, these will be described in the next section.

### 1.2. General Design Criteria and Constraints

The RIKKE-0 machine is intended to be a research oriented machine. Its main design criteria then, within the money and timing constraints on the project, was to provide a machine on which a large variety of experiments related to processor and emulator design and evaluation could be performed. We attempted to use the "top-down" design approach
which quite frequently was tempered by the "forces from below", see Rosin [5]. Therefore, we tried to let various application-oriented and software ideas be reflected in the design.

Two general software concepts had a reasonable impact on design. The one being the ability to multiprogram virtual machines and the other being the concept that virtual machines would be defined through several layers, (e.g., R. Dorin [6]). The effect of these ideas is apparent in the design of the control unit, especially with respect to the capabilities of addressing. Many addressing features known on the virtual level are present here on the micro level.

Another criterion was to have a clean and consistent way of dealing with timing problems. We decided not to force the speed; rather we vould have a slower machine than obtainable with the componemtry at hand, and thus one, hopefully, with a reduced set of timing idiosyncrasies. It was also decided to be able to control all elements of the system from an immediate control or a residual control capability, or some combination of both. The residual control was made homogeneous to the user by having a reasonably "standard control register group" where ever such control was provided.

Another design criterion dealt with the actual construction of the unit. It had been decided, prior to the obtaining of the grant from the Danish Research Council, to construct additional RIKKE's by other funding. It became apparent, during the design phase of MATHILDA, that the machine would be reasonably complex and that several features of MATHILDA included or extended similar features on RIKKE O. Because of the complexity of the design, the limited funds and manpower available, and the fact that we wished to design, construct, and test the machine within 1 year, it was decided that the additional RIKKE's (now called RIKKE 1's) should be modeled after the MATHILDA System. Thus, one design criterion was to ensure a modularity in the hardware design. This would enable an economy in print-lay out and construction to be achieved. As an example, the bus structure is laid out on one print board, 8-bits
wide. Two of these boards, interconnected, comprise one RIKKE 1 bus structure with all registers, shifters, etc. Four of these RIKKE 1 boards, interconnected, give the MATHILDA bus structure. (For a description of the MATHILDA see Shriver [7]).

### 2.0. The RIKKE 1 System

RIKKE 1, as has been stated earlier, is a microprogrammed controlled bus structure. The major elements of the system are shown in Figure 2.1. and are the:

1) bus structure.
2) control unit.
3) auxiliary facilities.
4) $1 / 0$.
5) Memory.

In the following sections we will describe each of these systems independently and give examples of their utilization.

Figure 2.1.
RIKKE 1 System


## 2. 1. The Register Group

We begin by introducing a fundamental building block which is used in the various control mechanisms of the system, viz, a Register Group RG*, as shown in Figure 2.2. A RG is a set of 16 or 256 registers. The width of the registers and the number of registers in a specific RG will be stated when it is introduced. The element of a particular RG, which is to be used as a source or destination for the transfer of information, is pointed to by the RG address register. This register is called the Register Group Pointer, RGP, as shown in Figure 2. 2.

Figure 2. 2.
Typical Register Group

*) After a particular system element is first introduced, an abbreviation for its name is given which, for the sake of brevity, is then used in the text; see the "Tables of First Occurrance of Abbreviations and Symbols", beginning on page 121, for the page of first occurrance.

There are four microoperations associated with an RGP. They are marked L, +1, -1 , and $C$ in Figure 2.2. and all subsequent figures.

Table 2. 1.
Microoperations for the control of an RG

| Symbolic Notation |  | Microoperation |
| :---: | :--- | :--- |
| L | RGP:=Pointer Source | Load the RGP from the Pointer Source |
| +1 | RGP + 1 | Increment RGP by 1 |
| -1 | RGP - 1 | Decrement RGP by 1 |
| C | RGPC | Clear (i.e., set to zero) RGP |

The symbolic notation RGP + 1, RGP - 1, etc. is the notation which is used with our microassembler, and all of our examples will be shown using this notation. The abbreviation 'RG' will often be replaced by the abbreviation of the name of the functional unit with which that particular RG is associated. Not all of the RGP's will have the microoperation

RGP:=Pointer Source
associated with them. For those RGP's which do have this microoperation it will be seen that the Pointer Source data itself can usually be selected to come from any of four different sources.

There is one additional microoperation required for the control of an RG; namely the function labelled "load" in Figure 2.2. If the loading of an RG can be initiated by a microoperation it will be indicated by an "L" on such a diagram.

### 2.2. Counter $A$

We will, from time to time, give small segments of microcode to illustrate the use of a device and its control. In order to make these examples clearer and also to give a more realistic view of how such a code is actually written we introduce the system counter, Counter A, CA. CA is a 16 -bit wide counter as shown in Figure 2.3.

Figure 2. 3.
Counter A, CA


CA has four microoperations associated with it as shown in the box labelled 'CA' in this Figure. These microoperations are given in Table
2. 2.

Table 2. 2.
Microoperations for control of CA

| Symbolic Notation |  | Microoperation |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| $\llcorner$ | CA:=CM\|OD|SB|CAS | Load CA from either CM, OD, SB, or <br> CAS. Note the use of "\|" to mean "or" <br> in the symbolic notation for this micro- <br> operation. |
| +1 | CA +1 | Increment CA by 1 |
| -1 | CA -1 | Decrement CA by 1 |
| C | CAC | Clear (i. e., set to zero) CA |

Both the box labelled "Selector" in Figure 2. 3. and the explanation of the microoperation "L" in Table 2. 2. state that CA can be loaded from one of four possible sources:

1) Immediate data within the Current Microinstruction, CM ,
2) A 16-bit Output Register, OD (discussed in Section 2.18.),
3) Bits 0 through 15 of the Shifted Bus, SB (discussed in Section 2.5), and
4) From an element of a 16-bit wide, 16 element RG called the Counter A Save Registers, CAS.

Thus the microoperation

$$
C A:=37
$$

loads CA with the constant 37 from a data field within the CM. While the microoperation
CA:=CAS
loads CA with the contents of the element of CAS which is pointed to by the CAS Pointer, CASP. Notice that the CAS can be loaded with the contents of CA thus allowing one to save the current value of CA. The four microoperations associated with the CAS and CASP are in Table 2. 3.

Table 2. 3.
Microoperations for control of CAS and CASP

| Symbolic Notation |  | Microoperation |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| L | CAS:=CA | Load the el ement of CAS pointed to by <br> CASP with CA |
| +1 | CASP +1 | Increment the CASP by 1 |
| -1 | CASP - 1 | Decrement the CASP by 1 |
| C | CASPC | Clear (i.e., set to zero) CASP |

We can test to see if CA contains zero. We will demonstrate the use of this condition and the microoperations in Tables 2.2. and 2.3. in subsequent examples.

### 2.3. Bus Transport

Having introduced some elementary notions we will now examine in some detail the bus structure, the registers and functional units attached to it, and the control which can be exercised on these components. We will construct the bus structure in a modular fashion - hopefully to enhance the reader's understanding and to underscore the overall simplicity and homogeneity of the structure and its components.

Let us introduce the concept of a bus transport by considering a subsystem of the bus structure consisting of the Working Registers A, WA, Working Registers B, WB, and the Bus Shifter, BS, as shown in Figure 2.4. The exact nature of WA, WB and BS is not important to us here.

Figure 2. 4.
Sub-system of the Bus Structure


The BUS is a 16-bit wide data path. The input to the BUS (its SOURCE) is obtained from a bus selector which has eight inputs, two of which are shown here. i.e., WA and WB. The particular input which is selected as the SOURCE for bus transport may be shifted a specified amount in the BS. The output of the BS, called the Shifted Bus, SB, can then be stored in at least one of seven possible 16-bit destinations (called Bus Destinations, BD, or DESTINATION). Two such BD's are shown in Figure 2.4. i. e., WA and WB. We will in this report specify bus transport information as we do in our microassembler, viz,

DESTINATION:=SOURCE, BS Specification.

If the BS Specification field is empty, i. e., the BS is not to be used (no shift occurs) then the bus transport is given by

## DESTINATION:=SOURCE.

As an example, the bus transport WB:=WA has the obvious meaning of a register to register transfer from WA to WB. If a SOURCE is chosen to be transported but not stored in any of the BD's, the bus transport information is written

SOURCE, BS Specification
or
SOURCE
as is appropriate. The SOURCE may be stored in destinations other than BD's during a bus transport. We will learn what functional units or registers can serve as these "other destinations" as this report develops. If the SOURCE is to be stored in more than one destination, the DESTINATION portion of the bus transport specification is written as a list of destinations separated by commas, i.e.,

LIST:=SOURCE, BS Specification
or
LIST:=SOURCE
where
LIST::= $d_{1}, \ldots, d_{n}$.

The value of $n$ and the units which can serve as destinations, $d_{1}$, will be discussed later.

### 2.4. Working Registers

WA and WB, introduced in the previous section, are not single registers but each is a 16 -bit wide, 256 element RG. Figure 2.5. shows WA; WB, not shown, is identical.

The first thing we wish to point out in this figure is that the WA Pointer, WAP, is a mechanism identical to CA except that it is 8-bit wide and not 16-bit wide. (Note the dashed-line box in Figure 2.5.). Therefore, WAP not only points to which element of WA can be used as a SOURCE
for bus transport (or used as a BD), but also can be stored in an RG

Figure 2. 5.
Working Registers, A, WA

called the WAP Save registers, WAPS. This is identical to CA being saved. Also, as indicated in the box labelled "Selector" in Figure
2.5. the WAP can be loaded from any of four sources:

1) immediate data from the CM
2) the least significant 8-bits from $O D^{*}$ )
3) the least significant 8 -bits of the SB, * $^{*}$ ) and
4) an element of WAPS.

This is identical to the loading of CA. Thus the microoperations WAP:= 37 and WAP:=WAPS have well defined analogous meanings.

The WA (and WB) registers are not loaded by a microoperation but rather as a result of being chosen as a BD in a bus transport specification; thus the loading of these registers is shown by the function "BD Load" on Figure 2.5. This notation will be used in all subsequent drawings.
*) WB is different with respect to 2 ) and 3 ) in the sense that loading of WBP takes place from the most significant 8-bits of OD and SB.

There are 8 microoperations shown in Figure 2.5. associated with the use of WA. These are listed along with the corresponding microoperations for WB in symbolic form in Table 2.4. The actual microoperation descriptions can be extracted from the previous tables and are not repeated here.

Table 2. 4.
Microoperations for control of WA and WB

| WAP: $=C M\left\|O D_{0 \sim 7}\right\| S B B_{0 \rightarrow 7} \mid$ WAPS | WBP: $=C M\left\|O D_{8-15}\right\| S B_{8-15} \mid$ WBPS |
| :---: | :---: |
| $W A P+1$ | $W B P+1$ |
| WAP - 1 | $W B P-1$ |
| WAPC | WBPC |
| WAPS:=WAP | WBPS:=WBP |
| WAPSP + 1 | WBPSP + 1 |
| WAPSP - 1 | WBPSP - 1 |
| WAPSPC | WBPSPC |

### 2.4.1. Microinstruction Format and a Few Examples

In order to present a few examples we will introduce the microinstruction format which we use in our microassembler. The format of a microinstruction is:
"A: bus transport; microoperations and data; microinstruction sequencing.'",
where
a) "Al" is a symbolic name for the address of the microinstruction,
b) "Bus transport" is a field giving the bus transport information as explained previously in Section 2.3.,
c) "microoperations and data" is a field of up to 7 microoperations and immediate data to be executed or used during this microinstruction (the exact combination of microinstructions and data which can be included in this field and precise details of the timing of microoperations are given in Section 3. 0.).
d) "microinstruction sequencing" information will be written in the form

```
if \(c\) then \(A_{t}\) else \(A_{f}\)
```

which is to mean: if a particular selected condition $c$ is true then choose address $A_{t}$ as the address of the next microinstruction else choose $A_{f}$.

It is not necessary or appropriate at this point to list all of the conditions which are testable by the system nor how $A_{t}$ and $A_{p}$ are functions of the address of the current microinstruction, $A$. These matters will be dealt with in Section 2. 20.1. However, conditions and address functions will be introduced as needed for examples. If no condition is to be considered, i.e., if $A_{t}=A_{f}$, the sequencing information will merely be written $A_{t}$ (and not "if $c$ then $A$ else $A$ " where $c$ is an arbitrary condition).

Thus, the microinstruction labelled $A$,

$$
A: W A:=W B ; W B P+1 ; A+1
$$

means: load the element of WA pointed to by WAP from the element of WB which is pointed to by WBP without shifting it during the bus transport; Then increment WBP by 1 ; then obtain the next microinstruction from $A+1$. The action associated with every microoperation specified in a microinstruction is completed before the next microinstruction is executed. For example, in the above microinstruction if WBP had been set to 9 before the beginning of the execution of this instruction, then WB9 would be the SOURCE for the bus transport. At the end of execution of the instruction, the WBP would be set to 10 . If, in the next microinstruction WB were again selected as the SOURCE, then the contents of WB10 would be gated onto the BUS.

In order to give an example of a microinstruction using conditional branching, we establish the following convention for the testing of conditions which will be used in all of our examples (unless stated explicitly otherwise): all conditions which arise as a result of bus transport and microoperation execution specified by a particular microinstruction, $M$, are testable in the next microinstruction to be executed after $M$ is executed. This means that all the conditions available or changed during the execution of microinstruction $M$ are "saved". These "saved" conditions are those tested in the next instruction to be executed. Therefore, our microinstruction can be thought of being executed in the following sequential way:
(a) save the conditions of the previous microinstruction
(b) execute bus transport
(c) execute microoperations
(d) execute microinstruction sequencing based on saved conditions.

Let us introduce the notation that bit 15 of the WA input to the bus selector is testable, that is, bit 15 of the element of WA which is pointed to by WAP. If we wish, for example, to test bit 15 of WA7, and if it is set to 1 , jump to the microinstruction labelled BITON, else continue with the next microinstruction, we could write,

```
A-1: ; WAP:=7
A : ; if WA(15) then BITON else A+1
A+1:
```

We could not write
$A: \quad$; WAP: $=7$; if $\operatorname{WA}(15)$ then BITON else $A+1$,
according to our current convention. It is possible to conditionally repeat the same instruction. Let us give an example of this. Assume there is at least one register in WA which contains bit 15 set to 1 , the following four microinstructions will: search WA starting with register 0 and transfer the first register of WA encountered with bit 15 set to 1 to register 0 of WB; then, store the address of the WA register which
was transferred in register 0 of WAPS; and then continue with the next microinstruction.

```
                                    ; WAPC, WAPSPC, WBPC .
LOOP: ; WAP + 1; if WA(15) then SAVE else LOOP.
SAVE: ; WAP - }1
WB:=WA ; WAPS:=WAP.
```

We have introduced some standard defaults in this example:
a) If the bus transport field is empty it means that an unspecified source is selected for bus transport but is not stored anywhere.
b) If the microoperations field is empty it means that no microoperations are to be exectuted during this particular microinstruction.
c) An empty microinstruction sequencing field implies the next microinstruction to be executed is that in $A+1$ if the address of the current microinstruction is A. If you wish to use comments these must start with "." (period).
d) Any instruction sequence shown is assumed to be located sequentially in control store and the symbolic address name is used only when needed in the microinstruction sequencing field of some other instruction.
e) The symbol will be used to indicate the end of the group of microinstructions in the example.

The symbolic names HERE-1, HERE, and HERE+1 are used often in the microinstruction sequencing field to mean $A-1, A$, and $A+1$ assuming the address of the current microinstruction is $A$. As an example, the instruction labelled LOOP above could have been written

```
; WAP+1; if WA(15) then HERE+1 else HERE.
```

Through the use of CA the assumption that at least one register of WA contains bit 15 set to 1 is not required. CA can be used to control the number of elements of WA we will search. If we establish a routine labelled NONE which handles the situation when no element of WA contains bit 15 set to 1 , then the code to perform the same task as related above is,
; WAPC, WAPSC, WBPC.
; CA:=255; TEST.
; WAP+1, CA-1; if CA then NONE else HERE + 1.
TEST:; if WA(15) then HERE+1 else HERE-1.
WB:=WA ; WAPS:=WAP.

The final example in this section uses the capability of loading CA from the SB. In the previous example CA was loaded with N-1 where $N(2 \leq N \leq 256)$ is the number of registers of WA to be searched. Let us suppose that this number is in register 0 of $W B$ and furthermore that you wish to save it in register 0 of CAS because it may be written over if a transfer is made to WB. A possible code segment is,
; WAPC, WAPSPC, WBPC.
WB ; CASPC, CA:=SB.
; CAS:=CA; TEST.
; WAP+1; if CA then NONE else HERE+1.

* TEST:; CA-1; if WA(15) then HERE+1 else HERE-1. WB:=WA ; WAPS:=WAP.

If the Af address is HERE+1 we will only write, from now on, if $c$ then $A_{t}$. Thus, the fourth instruction of the above example would be written
; WAP+1; if CA then NONE.

### 2.5. The Bus Shifter

The Bus Shifter, BS, introduced in Figure 2. 4. and shown in more detail in Figure 2. 6. is a 16 -bit wide right cyclic shifter which can be set to shift $n$ bits, $0 \leq n \leq 15$. There exists a dedicated bit in each microinstruction to control the BS which indicates whether or not the $B S$ should be used (enabled) during the current bus transport. If the BS is not enabled, no shift will occur.

Figure 2. 6.
Bus Shifter, BS


If we wish to use the BS, the amount of shift can be selected from one of three possible sources as shown in the box labelled "Shift Control" in Figure 2.6., i. e. , from

1) a data field in the $C M$,
2) the least significant 4 bits of the $O D$ register,
3) an element of a 4-bit wide 16 element RG called the BSSG.

Which of these four sources is used is determined by BSS. This is loaded from CM S3(0:1). By default BSS:=CM, and you are advised to reset the BSS if you change it. The bus transport specification

WA: =WB
means: take the element of WB pointed to by the WBP and store it in the element of WA pointed to by the WAP without shifting is. While the bus transport specification

$$
W A:=W B, \rightarrow 3
$$

means: take the element of WB pointed to by the WBP, shift it 3 bits right cyclic and then store it in the element of WA pointed to by WAP, assuming that the BSS is set to select CM as the datasource. This will be assumed to be the standard setting of BSS in the following.

A 16-bit left cyclic shifter and a 16-bit right cyclic shifter are related by the expression

$$
\mathrm{lcs}=16-\mathrm{rcs}
$$

where
Ics is the amount of left cyclic shift and rcsis the amount of right cyclic shift.

We can therefore write as a notational convenience

$$
W B:=W A, \leftarrow 5
$$

to mean the same thing as

$$
W B:=W A, \rightarrow 11
$$

thus using $\leftarrow($ left shift $)$ or $\rightarrow$ (right shift) whichever makes the understanding of the processing clearer. The microassembler will do the proper computation and insert the correct amount for right shifting in the datafield.

The BS specification in the bus transport field of the microinstruction is given by

$$
\{\overrightarrow{+}\} \mathrm{Cm} \mid \text { OD } \mid \text { |BSSG }
$$

The BSS-selector chooses from which source the shifter-control data is to be taken, whether or not you indicate the source in the actual microinstruction. You can load BSS by the microoperation BSS:=CM|OD |BSSG.

Having seen how the BS is controlled and how we specify this control, let us turn our attention to the BS register group Pointer, BŞP. We see in Figure 2.6. that the data which can be loaded into the BSP can also be loaded into an additional register called the BS Save1 register, BSS1. If, for example, we know in advance the address of a particular register in the BSSG, which we will want to use as shift data (e. g. , some highly used shift constant), we can store this pointer in BSS1 by loading BSS1 from the CM,

> BSS1:=CM.

Whenever we wish to use this stored pointer we can load it into the BSP by executing

> BSP:=BSS1.

Now notice in Figure 2.6. that the BSP not only points to the element of the BSSG which can be chosen as data for the shift control unit, but also can be stored in a register called the BS Save2 register, BSS2. Suppose we are pointing at a particular element of the BSSG for the current shift control data and in the next microinstruction we wish to have register 9 of the BSSG to be used as shift data, but we do not wish to loose the pointer to our current control data. The following microinstruction achieves this,
; BSS2:=BSP, BSP:=9.

Thus at some later time if we execute

$$
B S P:=B S S 2
$$

the pointer information which had been saved in BSS2 would be restored.

A 16 element RG with the two Save registers and Pointer as shown in Figure 2.7. is a fundamental control element in the system and will be used with many devices in the subsequent sections. It will be referred to as a Standard Group (SG) and will be noted on drawings as such, i. e., it will not be explicitly be drawn out each time as it was in Figure 2. 6. Each SG will, however, be given a name closely associated with the particular functional unit to which it is connected as, for example, in the current discussion the SG associated with the BS is called the BSSG.

Figure 2.7. Typical Standard Group


[^0]Table 2.5, below, lists the seven microoperations associated with the $B S$ in their symbolic form; their meanings should be obvious from previous tables and the text. Note that the BSSG is loaded with the least significant 4 bits of the SB i.e., SB( $0: 3$ ).

Table 2.5.
Microoperations for control of the BS

| $B S P:=C M\|O D\| B S S 1 \mid B S S 2$ |
| :--- |
| $B S P+1$ |
| $B S P-1$ |
| $B S P C$ |
| $B S S 1:=C M\|O D\| B S S 1 \mid B S S 2$ |
| $B S S 2:=B S P$ |
| $B S S G:=S B$ |

Let us assume the following information to be in WBP and WBP+1:


We wish to take a given WB register (WB Adr), shift it a given amount ( $L$ Shift Data), and store it in a given WA register (WA Adr).

The following code will: Load the BSSG with the L shift Data, Save the current WBP, load WBP with the WB Adr, Load WAP with the WA Adr, transfer the WB register pointed to by WB Adr to the register pointed to by WA-adr shifting it left cyclic by the amount $L$ shift Data during transport, restore the old WBP, and then continue.

```
WB ; WAP:=SB,WBP + 1.
WB ; BSSG:=SB,WBP - 1.
WB ; WBP:=SB,WBPS:=WBP , BSS:=BSSG.
WA:=WB,\leftarrow ; WBP:=WBPS .
; BSS:=CM.
```


### 2.6. Bus Masks

Let us now expand the initial bus structure given in Figure 2. 4. by adding the Bus Masks, BM, as shown in Figure 2.8.

Figure 2. 8.
Expanded Bus Structure


The BM allow one to specify which bits of the SOURCE (i.e., the particular input to the bus selector which has been selected for bus transport) are actually to be transported. A mask is a string of 16-bits. If bit $i(0 \leq i \leq 15)$ of a mask is a 1 , then bit $i$ of the SOURCE is to be transmitted; if bit i of the mask is a 0 , then the value 0 is to be transmitted. Since the BM are not an input to the bus selector but affect the transmission of the SOURCE, they are shown connected to the bus selector with the symbol ——o(which we will interpret to mean "mask") and not by the symbol $\longrightarrow$ (which means "input"). WARNING!!! When the Busmask is loaded it is the inverted SB which is.loaded into BM.

The SOURCE is masked during every bus transport by the mask which is specified to be

$$
M A \vee M B
$$

where

$$
\begin{aligned}
M A= & \text { an element of a } 16 \text {-bit wide, } 16 \text { element RG } \\
& \text { called the Mask A registers, } \\
M B= & \text { an element of a } 16 \text {-bit wide, } 16 \text { element RG } \\
& \text { called the Mask } B \text { registers, } \\
V= & \text { logical "inclusive or". }
\end{aligned}
$$

MA and MB are shown in Figure 2.9. Upon dead start, the system is

Figure 2. 9.
Bus Masks, MA and MB

such that the "no mask", i.e., 15 l's, is in register 0 of MA and the $^{\prime}$ "bus clear mask", i.e., $160^{\prime} s$, is in register 1 of MA. We will assume this to be the case throughout normal operation of the system. One can
then look upon the pointer MAP as a switch for the use of the bus masks: If MAP $=0$ then the BUS is not masked, if MAP $=1$ then the BUS is masked by the mask specified by MB. This is, of cource, not the only interpretation of the use of the BM but it is a convenient one and one which we will normally employ unless otherwise stated.

As an example, with no sensible applications, assume we are representing very small floating point numbers in the following sign magnitude format,


Suppose the following 4 masks are available in the first 4 registers of MB.


The following code will decompose a floating point number found in the register of WA pointed to by WAP and store the information as follows,

1) sign of the exponent in bit 15 of WBO
2) magnitude of the exponent in WB1(15:12)
3) sign of coefficient in bit 15 of WB2
4) magnitude of the coefficient in WB3(15:6)
```
        ; MAPC.
        ; MAP+1, MBPC, WBPC.
WB:=WA ; MBP+1, WBP+1.
WB:=WA, \leftarrow 1 ; MBP+1, WBP+1.
WB:=WA, \leftarrow5; MBP+1, WBP+1.
WB:=WA, \leftarrow6 ;
```

It is suggested by this example that when one is decomposing formatted information (e.g., a virtual machine instruction) one may wish to coordinate the use of the BS with the use of the BM. Let us therefore suppose the shift constants $0,15,11$, and 10 to be stored in the first 4 registers of the BSSG. The above decomposition and storage could be written as the following 3 microoperations:
; CA:=3, MAPC, BSS:=BSSG.
; BSPC, WBPC, MBPC, MAP+1.
WB:=WA ; BSP+1, WBP+1, MBP+1, CA-1; if CA then HERE else HEREA 1.
; BSS:=CM.

The MA Pointer (MAP) and the MB Pointer (MBP) both of which were used in the above examples are loadable either separately or together; thus we can execute the microoperations

$$
\begin{aligned}
M A P:=C M|O D| S B \mid S G, \\
M B P:=C M|O D| S B \mid S G, \text { or } \\
M A P, M B P:=C M|O D| S B \mid S G .
\end{aligned}
$$

The name of the SG associated with the BM is the Bus Mask Pointer (BMP) Standard Group. The following table lists the microoperations associated with MA, MB, and BMP.

Table 2. 6.
Microoperations for control of the BM

| MAP+1 | MBP+1 |
| :---: | :---: |
| MAP-1 | MBP-1 |
| MAPC | MBPC |
| MAP:=CM\|OD|SB|SG | MBP:=CM\|OD|SB|SG |
| MAP, MBP:=CM\|OD|SB|SG |  |
| BMP: $=$ SB |  |
| BMPP: $=C M\|O D\| B M P S 1 \mid B M P S 2$ |  |
| BMPP+1 |  |
| BMPP-1 |  |
| BMPPC |  |
| BMPS $1:=C M\|O D\| B M P S 1 \mid B M P S 2$ |  |
| BMPS2:=BMPP |  |

### 2.7. Postshift Masks

The Bus Masks, as described in the previous section, are applied to the SOURCE as it is gated onto the BUS and thus before the SOURCE is shifted in the BS. There is also a possibility of masking the SOURCE after it has been shifted by using the Postshift Masks, PM, as shown in Figure 2. 10.

Figure 2. 10.

## Expanded Bus Structure



One of the purposes of the PM is to apply a mask to the output of the BS which will mask off the unwanted "cyclic" bits and replace them with 0's thereby simulating a logical shift. As an example, if the bus transport

$$
W B:=W A, \leftarrow 2
$$

is executed with the postshift mask

applied to the output of the BS, then we have taken a WA register, shifted it 2 bits left logical, and stored it in a WB register. Similarly, the bus transport

$$
\text { WB: }=W A, \rightarrow 6
$$

with the mask

applied to the output of the BS means a WA register is shifted 6 bits right logical and then stored in a WB register. The output of the BS is masked during every bus transport by the mask which is specified to be

$$
\text { PA } \vee \mathrm{PG}
$$

where,

$$
\begin{aligned}
\mathrm{PA}= & \text { an element of a } 16 \text { bit wide, } 16 \text { element RG } \\
& \text { called the Postshift Mask A registers, } \\
\mathrm{PG}= & \text { a functional unit called the Postshift mask } \\
& \text { Generator, } \\
\mathrm{V}= & \text { logical "inclusive or". }
\end{aligned}
$$

PA and PG are shown in Figure 2.11. This is quite similar to the BM where PG now takes the place of MB.

WARNING!!! As with the BM, when PA is loaded from the bus, it is the inverted bus which is loaded.

Figure 2. 11.
Postshift Masks, PA and PG


The PG is a 32 word ROM which can be addressed through PGS. The contents of the ROM is

Table 2.7.
Table representing the READ-ONLY-MEMORY
containing the 32 Masks for the PG


The PG can generate the 32 masks required to view the BS as both a logical and cyclic shifter. As is seen from Figure 2.11. the postshift mask generation data can come from one of three sources, CM|OD|SG.

Which particular source is to be used as data for the mask generation is determined by the contents of a 2-bit Postshift mask Generator Selection register (PGS) as shown in this figure and in Table 2.8. below.

Table 2.8.
Source of Data for Postshift Mask Generation

| Contents of PGS | Source of DATA |
| :---: | :---: |
| 00 | CM |
| 01 | OD |
| 10 | (undef)* |
| 11 | SG |

If, what we will assume as standard, the PGS has been set to point to the CM as the data source, then the PG data are specified in the "microoperations and datal field of the microinstruction in the following symbolic way,
PG "arrow" n
where,
$n=$ the number of $01 s$ to be generated and the "arrow" $(-\mid \rightarrow)$ indicates from which direction they should be generated; $0 \leq n \leq 16$.

Thus, the previous two examples could have been written (assuming PGS and BSS points to the CM as the data sources).

$$
\begin{aligned}
& W B:=W A, \leftarrow 2 ; P G \leftarrow 2 \\
& W B:=W A, \rightarrow 6 ; P G \rightarrow 6
\end{aligned}
$$

Upon dead start, the system is such that the mask of all 1's is in register 0 of PA, and the mask of all 0 's is in register 1 of PA. This is identical to the situation in MA. We will assume this to be the case

[^1]throughout normal operation of the system. One can then look upon the pointer PAP as a switch for the use of the Postshift mask Generator: if PAP $=0$ then the mask generator is not used, if PAP $=1$ then the postshift mask which is to be applied will be that generated by the mask generator. This is, of course, not the only interpretation of the use of the postshift masks, but it is a convenient one and one which we shall normally employ unless otherwise stated.

Table 2.9. is a list of the microoperations associated with the PM. The first half of this table deals with PA. The second half of this table deals with the PG. The name of the SG associated with the PG control is the Postshift Mask Generator SG (PGSG). Note, the name of the SG associated with the PA pointer is the Postshift $A B$ Pointer (PABP). It is not discussed here but in Section 2.28.

Table 2.9.
Microoperations for the control of the PM

| Operations associated with PA |
| :--- |
| PA $:=B U S$ |
| PAP: $=C M\|O D\| S B \mid S G$ |
| PAP +1 |
| PAP -1 |
| PAPC |
| Operations associated with PG and PGSG |
| PGS: $:=C M$ |
| PGS +1 |
| PGS -1 |
| PGSG:=SB |
| PGP $:=C M\|O D\| P G S 1 \mid P G S 2$ |
| PGP +1 |
| PGP -1 |
| PGPC |
| PGS1:=CM $\|O D\| P G S 1 \mid P G S 2$ |
| PGS2:=PGP |

Let us extend the example of Section 2.5. in which we emulated a virtual machine instruction which performed a register to register transfer combined with left/rigth cyclic shifting. As shown below, if we use the PG we can execute an instruction which will take a given WB register (WB Adr), shift it left/right logical or cyclic (Shift \& Mask Data), and then store it in a WA register (WA Adr). If the data for the instruction is in the current $W B$ register pointed at by WBP in the form

a possible code sequence would be:


Note well, there are two important assumptions in this example. The first is that MAP $=0$ upon entry to this code, i. e., a bus mask is not applied to the source, and the second is that PAP $=0$ upon entry to this code, i.e., no postshift masking occurs. Indeed, we will make these assumptions in all examples which follow (unless stated explicitly otherwise). They can be summarized as follows: bus transport normally occurs in an unmasked fashion; if a particular code segment requires the use of a masking facility it is responsible for leaving the system in this normal state after such masking occurs.

### 2.8. The Arithmetical and Logical Unit

We will now add additional computational capability to the bus structure in addition to the shifting and masking already encountered by introducing the Arithmetical and Logical Unit (AL). The AL, shown in Figure 2.12., is a functional unit with 2 inputs which, for the moment we will call A and B.

Figure 2.12.
Arithmetical Logical Unit, AL


6 bits are required to control the $A L: 5$ bits to select one of the 32 operations listed in Table 2.10. which this unit can execute on $A$ and $B$ and 1 bit which specifies the carry-in bit into the AL for any arithmetic operations.

Table 2. 10.
AL Functions

| $A R I T H M E T I C$ | LOGICAL |
| :--- | :--- |
| $A$ | $\bar{A}$ |
| $A \vee B$ | $\bar{A} \wedge \bar{B}$ |
| $A \vee \bar{B}$ | $\bar{A} \wedge B$ |
| minus $1^{*}$ | $a l \prime 0^{\prime} s$ |
| $A+(A \wedge \bar{B})$ | $\bar{A} \vee \bar{B}$ |
| $(A \vee B)+(A \wedge \bar{B})$ | $\bar{B}$ |
| $A-B-1$ | $A \neq B$ |
| $(A \wedge \bar{B})-1$ | $A \wedge \bar{B}$ |
| $A+(A \wedge B)$ | $\bar{A} \vee B$ |
| $A+B$ | $A \equiv B$ |
| $A \vee \bar{B}+(A \wedge B)$ | $B$ |
| $(A \wedge B)-1$ | $A \wedge B$ |
| $A+A$ | $A l l 1^{\prime} s$ |
| $(A \vee B)+A$ | $A \vee \bar{B}$ |
| $(A \vee \bar{B})+A$ | $A \vee B$ |
| $A-1$ | $A$ |

* in 2's complement; the arithmetic operations are shown with the carryin set to 0 . If the carry-in is 1 , then the AL Function is $F+1$ where $F$ is the specified arithmetic function. The logical functions are not affected by the carry-in.

The 6 control bits which specify the current operation for the AL are the contents of the $A L$ Function and Carry-in register, ALF, which can be loaded, ALF:=CM|OD|SB|SG, or set to the arithmetic addition operation $A+B$ and other standard settings. The SG associated with the ALF is called the AL Standard Group (ALSG). The microoperations associated with the $A L$ are given in table 2. 11.

Table 2. 11.
Microoperations for control of the AL

```
ALF:=CM|OD|SB|SG
SET ALF +
SET ALF -
SET ALF B
SET ALF A - 1
ALSG:=SB
ALP:=CM|OD|ALS1|ALS2
ALP +1
ALP - 1
ALPC
ALS 1:=CM|OD|ALS1|ALS2
ALS2:=ALP
```

If the ALF is to be loaded with an operation specification from the $C M$, we will note this symbolically merely by writing the required function in the symbolic form which appears in Table 2.10. in the ALF assignment statement, i.e.,

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { ALF }:=A+B \\
& A L F:=A \wedge B \\
& \text { etc. }
\end{aligned}
$$

The $A L$ is always running. If the $A L F$ is changed in a microinstruction, then the result of the newly computed function is available for bus trans-
port in the very next microoperation. Thus the microinstructions

$$
\begin{aligned}
; & \mathrm{ALF}:=\text { all } 1 \mathrm{~s}, \mathrm{PAP}+1 \\
\mathrm{WA}:=\mathrm{AL} ; & \mathrm{PG}
\end{aligned} \mathrm{\rightarrow} 9, \mathrm{PAP}-1 .
$$

will put a string of $71^{\prime}$ s in the WA register pointed to by WAP. The 1's will be least significant bits, $b_{0}$, justified.

There are many testable conditions concerning the operation of the $A L$. A few of these are

| Symbolic Notation | Condition |
| :---: | :--- |
| $A L$ | result of AL operation all 1's <br> bit 0 of the result of the AL operation <br> $A L(15)$ <br> $A L O V$ |
|  | bit 15 of the result of the AL operation <br> Al overflow (equivalent to a carry-out <br> during addition and a borrow-in during <br> subtraction) |

Before giving examples of the control of the AL let us first discuss the nature of its inputs, $A$ and $B$.

### 2.9. The Local Registers

The Local Registers, LR, serve as the A input to the AL in the context of the $A L$ Functions shown in Table 2.10. The LR, shown in Figure 2.13, are 4 16-bit wide registers which have independent input and output pointers. The input pointer, LRIP, points to a LR which can be used as a BD for the current bus transport. The output pointer, LROP, points to a LR which can be used as either the $A$ input to the $A L$ or as the SOURCE for the current bus transport.

Figure 2. 13.
Local Registers, LR


Both the LR input pointer, LRIP, and the LR output pointer, LROP, are incrementable, decrementable, clearable, and loadable with two bits from the Double Shifter, $D S(V: V+1)$, see Section 2.12. The utility of this last feature will be demonstrated with examples when the Double Shifter is introduced. Table 2. 12. gives the microoperations associated with the control of the LR.

## Table 2. 12.

Microoperations for control of the LR

```
LRIPC
LRIP + 1
LRIP - 1
LRIP:=DS(V:V+1)
LROPC
LROP + 1
LROP - 1
LROP:=DS(V:V+1)
LRPC
LRP + 1
LRP - 1
LRP:=DS(V:V+1)
```

The last four microoperations allow for the clearing, incrementing, decrementing, and loading of both the IP and the OP simultaneously.

## 2. 10. The Accumulator Shifter

The Accumulator Shifter, $A S$, serves as the $B$ input to the $A L$ in the context of the AL functions shown in Table 2.10. The AS can serve as a bus DESTINATION; but to be read, its contents must be gated through the AL with the ALF set to B. The AS, shown in Figure 2.14., is a 1-bit shifter which can shift left, shift right, be loaded, or remain idle during the execution of any given microinstruction.

Figure 2. 14.
Accumulator Shifter, AS


| Source <br> nc. | AS(15) <br> Input | AS(0) <br> Input |
| :---: | :--- | :--- |
| 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 1 | 1 | 1 |
| 2 | $A S(0)$ | $A S(15)$ |
| 3 | $A S(15)$ | $B U S(15)$ |
| 4 | Undef | $S B(15)$ |
| 5 | $D S(V+1)$ | $D S(V+1)$ |
| 6 | $A S(V)$ | $A S(V)$ |
| 7 | $V S(V)$ | $V S(V)$ |

There are 2 interesting features of this shifter:
a) its variable width characteristic and
b) its connection to other elements of the system.

The features are discussed in the following:
a) Although the shifter is 16 -bits wide it may, in connection with either the BM or PM, be viewed as being m-bits wide ( $1 \leq m \leq 16$ ). This is accomplished by having each of the 16 bits of the AS input to a selector (labelled the $b_{0}-b_{15}$ selector in Figure 2.14). The output of this selector (called the variable bit, $V$ ) can then be a possible input into either the left or right end of the shifter, depending upon what particular type of shift one requires. When the AS is selected as a source for bus transport by gating it through the $A L$, after the desired shift
has occurred, the bits not consi dered to be a part of the shifter must be masked off. This can be done either by using the BM or the PM. The width of the shifter is then determined by the contents of the AS(V) Selection register, $A S(V) S$, as shown in the above figure and the use of of an appropriate mask.

The $A S(V) S$ can be loaded by the following microoperation

$$
A S(V) S:=C M|O D| S B \mid S G .
$$

Thus, for example, if we wish to consider the AS as a 12 bit left cyclic shifter, we would execute the microoperation

## AS(V)S:=11

while making sure that $A S(V)$ be used as the input to bit $A S(0)$ during the shift operation. Subsequent use of the $A S$ as a source could be accompanied by use of the PG masking off bits $b_{15}-b_{12}$, e.g.

$$
\begin{aligned}
& ; \operatorname{SET} \text { ALF B } . \\
\mathrm{WA}:=A L & ; \mathrm{PG} \rightarrow 4
\end{aligned}
$$

b) In Figure 2.14. it is seen that bits $A S(0)$ and $A S(15)$ can be filled by one of a variety of sources during a shift operation. Which source is to be used to fill the vacated bit position is determined by the contents of the $A S(0)$ and $A S(15)$ source selection registers, $A S(0) S$ and $A S(15) S$ respectively. An examination of the table in Figure 2.14. shows that the AS can be considered a logical shifter, a 1's fill shifter, a cyclic shifter, and a right arithmetic shifter. It can also be connected to another 1 bit shifter, called the variable width shifter, VS, to yield a long variable width shifter. It can be connected to a 2-bit shifter called the Double Shifter, DS, so it can be used in the merging of 2 bit streams into 1 or the diverging of 1 bit stream into 2. It can also be connected to the BUS and SB. These latter input is of an experimental nature and uses will be demonstrated in later examples.

Thus to use the $A S$, one must load the $A S(V) S$ to set the width of the shifter and must load either the $A S(0) S$ or $A S(15) S$ to point to the source to be used as the input into the vacated bit position, i.e., one must set what the type of shift is, e. g., logical, l's fill, long, etc. That both of these operations need not be done each time the shifter is used, but only when one is "changing" the width or type of shifter is obvious. Table 2. 13. lists the microoperations associated with the control of the AS. Note the AS can be set to a logical left, ASLL, or logical right, ASLR, shift.

Table 2. 13.
Microoperations for control of the AS

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { AS }(0) S:=C M|O D| S B \mid S G \\
& A S(15) S:=C M|O D| S B \mid S G \\
& A S(V) S:=C M|O D| S B \mid S G \\
& A S L L \quad(\equiv A S(0) S C) \\
& A S L R \quad(\equiv A S(15) S C) \\
& A S(V) S C \\
& A S(V) S+1 \\
& A S(V) S-1
\end{aligned}
$$

There are 2 bits in each microinstruction which control the operation of the AS: shift left, AS $\leftarrow$, shift right, $A S \rightarrow$, load, i.e., AS:=SB(0:15), or be idle. When the AS is to be shifted, the operation is put in the "microoperation and data" field of the microinstruction; when the AS is to be loaded, the operation is specified in the "bus transport" field of the microinstruction. As an example, the microinstruction

$$
W A:=A L ; A S \leftarrow
$$

stores the output of the $A L$ in a WA register and then shifts the AS left, while the microinstruction

LR, AS:=WB; WBP + 1 .
stores a WB in both the AS and a LR and then increments the WB pointer. If the AS is not employed during a given microinstruction, it does not appear in the specification of that microinstruction.

Having introduced the $A L$ and its inputs, $L R$ and $A S$, we now have knowledge of the expanded bus structure as shown in Figure 2. 15.

Figure 2. 15.
Expanded Bus Structure


Let us now give a few examples using these resources to demonstrate the use of their associated microoperations.

## Example 1

Let us consider WA as a stack as shown below


We wish to take two operands, $a$ and $b$, and an arithmetical or logical operator, op, from the stack and place a op b on the new top of stack. The following microinstruction sequence does this.

WA ; ALF:=SB, WAP-1, LRPC.
LR:=WA; WAP - 1 .
AS:=WA.
WA:=AL .

## Example 2

Let us again consider WA as a stack.


We wish to treat the AS as a left shifter whose characteristics are given by shiftspec. We wish to shift a $n$-times and return the result to the new top of stack after removing shiftspec and a. Let us assume shiftspec to have the following format.

| ${ }_{15}$ | n $_{12}$ | ${ }_{11}$ pgnsk $_{7}$ | Width $_{3}$ | type |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |

where

$$
\begin{aligned}
\text { type }= & \text { encoding found in the table of Figure } 2.14 \\
& \text { for logical, cyclic, etc. shift, } \\
\text { width }= & \text { width of shifter }-1,1 \leq \text { width of shifter } \leq 16 \\
\text { pgmsk }= & \text { PG mask specification, } \\
n \quad= & \text { number of shifts }-1,1 \leq \text { number of shifts } \leq 16
\end{aligned}
$$

The following microinstructions execute the desired operation.

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { WA ; AS(0)S:=SB. } \\
& \text { WA, } \rightarrow 3 ; A S(V) S:=S B \text {. } \\
& \text { WA, } \rightarrow 7 \text {; PGSG:=SB. } \\
& W A, \rightarrow 12 ; C A:=S B, W A P+1 . \\
& \text { AS :=WA; PGS:=SG, PAP + 1, SET ALF B. } \\
& \text {; ASł ; if CA then HERE+1 else HERE. , CA-1 } \\
& \text { WA:=AL ; PAP-1, PGS:=CM. }
\end{aligned}
$$

## 2. 11. The Variable Width Shifter

The Variable Width Shifter, VS, is a shifter functionally identical to the AS. The reason one is called the Accumulator Shifter is that not only does it serve as an input to the $A L$, but also it will serve as the accumulator required in the realization of the basic arithmetic operations (e. g. multiplication). The VS can be a SOURCE or DESTINATION for a bus transport. It is shown in Figure 2. 16.

Figure 2. 16.
Variable Width Shifter, VS


| Source <br> no. | VS(15) <br> Input | VS(0) <br> Input |
| :---: | :--- | :--- |
| 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 1 | 1 | 1 |
| 2 | $V S(0)$ | $V S(15)$ |
| 3 | $V S(15)$ | BUS(14) |
| 4 | Undef | $S B(14)$ |
| 5 | $D S(V)$ | $D S(V)$ |
| 6 | $V S(V)$ | $V S(V)$ |
| 7 | $A S(V)$ | $A S(V)$ |

The microoperations associated with the VS are identical to those associated with the AS and are listed below in Table 2. 14.

Table 2. 14.
Microoperations for control of the VS

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { VS(0)S:=CM|OD|SB|SG } \\
& \text { VS(15)S:=CM }|O D| S B \mid S G \\
& V S(V) S:=C M|O D| S B \mid S G \\
& V S L L \quad(\equiv V S(0) S C) \\
& V S L R \quad(\equiv V S(15) S C) \\
& V S(V) S C \\
& V S(V) S+1 \\
& V S(V) S-1
\end{aligned}
$$

One of the important features of the AS and VS, as seen from the tables in Figures 2.14. and 2.16., is that they can be connected together. This allows, for example, the AS and VS to be viewed as a "long" shifter when coupled together. The microinstructions,

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text {; AS(15):=7, VS(15):=7. } \\
& \text {; AS(V)SC, VS(V)SC. }
\end{aligned}
$$

connect the AS and VS together so that they can be viewed as a right cyclic 32 -bit shifter as shown below.


Just as with the AS, there are 2 bits in each microinstruction which control the operation of the VS: shift left, VS $\leftarrow$, shift right, VS $\rightarrow$, load, i.e., VS:=SB(0:15), or remain idle.

Assuming the previous AS/VS connection has been made, subsequent execution of the microoperations

$$
A S \rightarrow, V S \rightarrow
$$

shifts this 32 -bit shifter 1 bit right cyclic. Other "long shifters", e.g. left logical, right logical, right arithmetic, etc., result from appropriate set up sequences.

## 2. 12. Double Shifter

The Double Shifter, DS, is a shifter with functional characteristics similar to those of the AS and VS, except that it shifts 2 bits at a time and not 1. Bits $D S(0)$ and $D S(1)$ require input during a left shift and $\mathrm{DS}(14)$ and $\mathrm{DS}(15)$ require input during a right shift. The DS is shown in Figure 2.17. The DS can be a SOURCE for or a DESTINATION of a bus transport.

Figure 2. 17.
Double Shifter, DS


The microoperations which are associated with the DS are directly comparable to those for the AS or VS and are shown in Table 2.15.

Table 2. 15.
Microoperations for control of the DS

```
\(D S(0: 1) S:=C M|O D| S B \mid S G\)
\(D S(14: 15) S:=C M|O D| S B \mid S G\)
DS(V)S \(:=C M|O D| S B \mid S G\)
DSLL ( \(\equiv \mathrm{DS}(0: 1) \mathrm{SC})\)
DSLR ( \(\equiv \mathrm{DS}(14: 15) \mathrm{SC})\)
DS(V)SC
\(D S(V) S+1\)
DS(V)S - 1
```

The $b_{0}-b_{15}$ selector specifies two bits $D S(V: V+1)$ as output, these may be used in coupling the shifters, or as input to the LRIP and LROPpointers.

There are 2 bits in each microinstruction which control the operation of the $D S$ : shift left, $D S \leftarrow$, shift right, $D S \rightarrow$, load i. e., $D S:=S B(0: 15)$, or remain idle.

### 2.12.1. Two examples using the shifters

The AS, VS, and DS are collectively referred to as the "Shifters" whereas the Bus Shifters are not included in this term. The expanded bus structure is shown in Figure 2. 18.

Figure 2. 18.
Expanded Bus Structure


## Example 1

Suppose we wish to count the number of bits which are set to 1 in the WA register pointed to by WAP and leave this number in the same cell. The following algorithm will do this
a) Load the LR with the following constants

LRO: $=0$
LR1:=1
LR2: $=1$
LR2: $=2$
b) Clear the AS (considered here as an accumulator)
c) Set the AL to addition
d) Transfer the data to the DS
e) Do the following 8 times and then do f)
i) if $\operatorname{DS}(0: 1) \equiv 00$ then accumulate LRO $+A S$ in $A S$
if $D S(0: 1) \equiv 01$ then accumulate LR1 + AS in AS
if $D S(0: 1) \equiv 10$ then accumulate LR2 + AS in AS
if $D S(0: 1) \equiv 11$ then accumulate LR3 + AS in AS
ii) shift $D S \rightarrow$
f) Store the accumulated result which is in AS

The following microinstruction sequence accomplishes this. It is assumed the PG data source is the CM.

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { DS:=WA ; ALF:=all } 0 \mathrm{~s} \text {, LRPC. } \\
& \text { AS, LR:=AL; ALF:=A+1; LRIP+1. LR0:=0 } \\
& \text { LR:=AL ; LRP+1, CA=7. LR1:=1 } \\
& \text { LR:=LR ; LRP+1, DS(V)SC. LR2:=1 } \\
& \text { ? LR:=A负, ; ALF:=A+B, LROP:=DS. LR3:=2 } \\
& A S:=A L \quad ; C A-1, D S \rightarrow 2 \text {. LROP:=DS; } \\
& \text { if CA then HERE+1 else HERE } \\
& \text { WA:=AL . }
\end{aligned}
$$

The subset of the bus which is used during the counting loop instruction (AS:=AL) is shown in Figure 2.19. This may help in understanding the algorithm and code.

Figure 2. 19.
Counting Loop for Counting Number of Bits set to 1 in a Word


## Example 2

Consider the contents of the current WA register as a string of 16 bits. It is desired to pack all of the even numbered bits ( $b_{0}, b_{2}$, etc.) in the left 8 bits of the current WB register and the odd numbered bits ( $b_{1}, b_{3}$, etc.) in the right 8 bits of this register so that the result appears as

$$
\begin{array}{|llllllllll|}
\hline b_{15} & \ldots & \ldots & b_{5} & b_{3} & b_{1} & b_{14} & \ldots & b_{4} & b_{2}
\end{array} b_{0} .
$$

Because the DS, AS, and VS can be connected as shown below,

one can accomplish the stated requirement in the following way:
; ALF:=all 0 s, LRPC.
$A S, V S:=A L ; A S(15):=5, V S(15):=5$, $D S(V) S C$.
$D S:=W A \quad ; C A:=7$.
; CA-1, AS $\rightarrow$, VS $\rightarrow$, $D S \rightarrow$; if CA then HERE +1 else HERE.

LR:=VS, $\rightarrow 8$; ALF:=A $\vee B$.
WB:=AL

## 2. 13. The Common Shifter Standard Group

The Shifter Control Selector shown in Figures 2.14., 2.16. and 2.17. is the same selector. This is, perhaps, made a bit clearer in Figure 2. 20.

Figure 2. 20.
AS, VS, and DS Control


The SG which is associated with this selector is called the Common Shifter SG. Various shifter control data can be stored in this SG for various shifter interconnections and then used in environment prologues. The microoperations associated with the CS SG are shown in Table 2. 16.

Table 2. 16.
Microoperations for control of the CS SG

```
CSP:=CM|OD|S1|S2
CSP + 1
CSP - 1
CSPC
CSS1:=CM|OD|S1|S2
CSS2:=CSP
CSSG:=SB
```

in addition there are several microoperations which allow control of the AS, VS, and DS to be executed in parallel. These are shown in Table 2. 17.

Table 2. 17.
Parallel CS Microoperations

| Notation | Microoperation |
| :---: | :---: |
| CSLL | Set AS, VS, DS to logical left shift |
| CSLR | Set AS, VS, DS to logical right shift |
| CS(0)S $:=C M\|O D\| S B \mid S G$ | Load AS(0), VS(0), and DS(0:1) Source register from CM\|OD|SB|SG |
| CS(15)S:=CM\|OD|SB|SG | Load AS(15), VS(15), and DS(14:15) Source register from $C M\|O D\| S B \mid S G$ |
| CS(V)S :=CM\|OD|SB|SG | Load AS(V), VS(V), and DS(V) Selection register from $C M\|O D\| S B \mid S G$ |
| cs(V)Sc | Clear AS(V), VS(V), and DS(V) Selector register |

## 2．14．Loading Masks

Associated with WA there is a SG of loading masks called Loading Masks，A，LA．Associated with WB there is a SG of loading masks cal－ led Loading Masks B，LB．In what follows we will describe only LA； LB is identical in function．The purpose of the loading masks，LA and LB，is to be able to specify which bit positions in a working register WA can be loaded as the result of WA being chosen as the DESTINA－ TION of a bus transport while leaving the nonspecified bits unchanged． As an example，if the loading mask

$$
0 \text {. . . . . . . . . . } 000_{65}^{1111111}
$$

were pointed at by the LA pointer，LAP，then，when the bus transport

$$
\begin{gathered}
A \\
w ⿻ 丷 木 大
\end{gathered}
$$

is executed，bits $\operatorname{SB}(0: 5)$ would be gated into the WA register pointed to by W炎P in bit positions $b_{0}$ through $b_{5}$ respectively while bits $b_{6}$ through $b_{15}$ would not change their value．When WA is selected as a SOURCE for bus transport the mask LA acts in the following fashion： if bit $i(0 \leq i \leq 15)$ of the mask is a 1 ，then bit $i$ of WA is transmitted． If bit $i$ of the mask is a 0 ，then bit $i$ which is transmitted is indetermi－ nate．

As an example if the loading mask

$$
\text { O . . . . . . . . . OQ O } 111111
$$

were pointed at by the LA pointer，LAP，then，when the bus transport
WB:=WA
is executed，bits $S B(0: 5)$ would be gated into the WB register pointed to by WBP in bit positions $b_{0}$ through $b_{5}$ respectively while $b_{6}$ through $b_{15}$ would be indeterminate．

The relationship between the loading masks and the working registers is represented by the symbol-(l) where the script $\ell$ in the mask notation -(R) indicates the special nature of these masks. Figure 2.21. shows the expanded bus structure with the loading masks added.

Figure 2.21.
Expanded Bus Structure


Figure 2. 22. shows a more detailed sketch of LA; LB, not shown, is identical.

Figure 2. 22.
Loading Mask Registers A, LA


There are 7 microoperations shown in Figure 2.22. associated with the use of LA. These are listed along with the corresponding microoperations for LB in symbolic form in Table 2. 18.

Table 2. 18.
Microoperations for control of LA and LB

| LA $:=S B$ | LB $:=S B$ |
| :--- | :--- |
| LAP $:=C M\|O D 1\| S 1 \mid S 2$ | LBP $:=C M\|O D 3\| S 1 \mid S 2$ |
| LAP + 1 | LBP + 1 |
| LAP - 1 | LBP - 1 |
| LAPC | LBPC |
| LAS $1:=$ CM $\|O D 1\| S 1 \mid S 2$ | LBS $1:=$ CM $\|O D 3\| S 1 \mid S 2$ |
| LAS $:=$ LAP | LBS $2:=$ LBP |

NB!
OD1 means OD(0:3)
OD3 means OD(8:11)

Upon the dead start, the system is such that the "full load" and "full read out" mask, i.e., 161 's is in register 0 of LA and register 0 of LB. We will assume this to be the case throughout normal operation of the system. One can then look upon the pointers LAP and LBP as selection switch for the use of the loading masks. If $L A P=0$ then no loading mask is applied to WA, if LAP $\neq 0$ then WA is masked by the mask specified by LAP; similar statement can be made for LBP. This is, of course, not the only interpretation of the use of the loading masks, but it is a convenient one and one which we will normally employ unless otherwise stated. When you load LA (or LB) from SB you actually get $\neg$ SB (i.e. the inverted SB) into LA (or LB).

As an example, suppose we wish to place the high order 13 bits of the output of the DS into the least 13 bits of WBO leaving the high order 3 bits the same. If the mask

is in LB9, the following microinstruction sequence accomplishes this:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text {; LBP:=9, WBPC } \\
& \text { WB:=DS, } \rightarrow 3 ; \text { LBPC. }
\end{aligned}
$$

This mask could have been generated by use of the PG and AL. The code, (remember that we have to generate the inverted mask)

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text {; ALF:=all } 1 \mathrm{~s}, \text { LBP:=9 } \\
& \text {; PGS:=CM, PAP }+1 . \\
& \text {; PG+13, LB:=SB, PAP-1. }
\end{aligned}
$$

AL
generates the mask and stores it in LB9. It should be reasonably obvious now how the loading masks can be used to store the result of various data transformations as they are determined, e.g., in the implementation of signed-magnitude arithmetic, the magnitude of the exponent, its sign, the magnitude of the coefficient and its sign can be stored in a given word as they are obtained.

We will henceforth assume in all examples (unless explicitly stated otherwise) that $L A P=0$ and $L B P=0$, i. e., that no loading masks are applied to either set of working registers. If a particular code segment uses the loading mask facility it is responsible for leaving the system operating in this fashion. The treatment of the loading masks then becomes quite identical with that of the bus masks and postshift masks as stated in Section 2.7.

### 2.15. The Parity Generator

The parity generator is a circuit which determines the parity of the 16 bits which compose the bus transport. It posts the result of this evaluation as a testable condition, the bus parity, $B P$, condition. If $B P=1$, the BUS is odd parity; if BP $=0$, the BUS is of even parity. This condition can be used, obviously, in any processing wherein parity information is variable, e. g., in communicating with devices which transmit words of a particular parity. The parity generator functions during each bus transport and has no microoperations associated with it. Since its input is the BUS, we show it attached to the bus structure.

### 2.16. The Bit Encoder

The RIKKE 1 is prepared for a Bit-encoder, BE, but this is not implemented. In those places where BE has been used the value will be undefined. For a detailed description se Shriver [7].

## 2. 17. Input Ports

There are two input ports through which external devices may be connected to the bus selector. They are called Input Port A, IA, and Input Port B, IB. Up to 16 devices can be connected to each of these input ports. IA is shown in Figure 2.23.; IB, not shown, is identical.

Figure 2.23.
Input Port A, IA


The particular device which is selected by the IAD register to be read is pointed to by a Device Register. There are two conditions associated with a selected device:
a) Data available, IADA, and
b) Mark-bit set , IADM

All devices must be able to set the first condition. The second condition can be set by devices which can transmit two different sorts of information, for example control data and information. When a device
is activated the IADA condition is reset. The microoperations associated with the control of IA and IB are given in Table 2.19.

Table 2. 19.
Microoperations for control of IA and IB

|  |  |
| :--- | :--- |
| $I A A$ | Activate Port, i. e., read IA |
| $\left.I A D:=C M\|O D\| S B^{*}\right)$ | Load IA Device Register from CM $\|O D\| S B$ |
| $I A D C$ | Ciear IA Device Register |
| $I A D+1$ | Increment IA Device Register |
| $I A D-1$ | Decrement IA Device Register |
| $I B A$ | Activate Port, i. e., read IB |
| $\left.I B D:=C M\|O D\| S B^{*}\right)$ | Load IB Device Register from CM $\|O D\| S B$ |
| $I B D C$ | Clear IB Device Register |
| $I B D+1$ | Increment IB Device Register |
| $I B D-1$ | Decrement IB Device Register |

As an example, if we wish to read a piece of data from device 9 on IB and store it in AS, we can write the following classical wait loop:
; IBD:=9, IBA.
$A S:=1 B$; if IBDA then HERE+1 else HERE.

The expanded bus structure can now be shown as Figure 2. 24.

[^2]Figure 2. 24.
Expanded Bus Structure


## 2. 18. Output Ports

There are four output ports through which output to external devices may occur. They are called Output Ports A, B, C, and D; OA, $O B, O C$, and $O D$ respectively. They are identical in operation with the exception that OA and OB are loaded from the SB and can be selected as bus DESTINATIONS whereas OC and OD are loaded from the BUS and cannot be selected as bus DESTINATIONS, but must be loaded by a microoperation. OA is shown in Figure 2.25; OB, OC, and OD, not shown, are identical.

Figure 2. 25.
Output Port A, OA


The particular device which is selected for output is pointed to by a device register. There is a condition associated with a selected device: space available, OASA. The microoperations associated with the control of OA and OC are shown in Table 2.20. The microoperations for $O B$ are identical to those for $O A$ and the microoperations for $O D$ are identical to those for OC.

Table 2. 20.
Microoperations for control of OA and OC

|  |  |
| :--- | :--- |
| OAA | Activate Port, i. e. write OA |
| OAR | Reset condition on OA, selected device |
| OAD: $=C M\|O D\| S B$ | Load OA register from CM $\mid$ OD $\mid$ SB |
| OADC +1 | Clear OA Device Register |
| OAD -1 | Increment OA Device Register |
| Decrement OA Device Register |  |
| OCA | Activate Port, i. e. write OC |
| OCD:=CM $\|O D\| S B$ | Reset condition on OC, selected Device |
| Load OC register from CM $\mid$ OD $\mid$ SB |  |
| $O C D+1$ | Clear OC Device Register |
| $O C D-1$ | Increment OC Device Register |
| Decrement OC Device Register |  |

Table 2.21.
Microoperations for loading of OC and OD

| OC:=BUS | Load Output port $C$ from the Bus |
| :--- | :--- |
| $O D:=B U S$ | Load Output port $C$ from the Bus |

As an example, suppose we wish to write out the output of the AL onto device 13 of output port $C$. We could then write,

AL; OC:=BUS, OCD:=13.
; if OCSA then HERE +1 else HERE.
; OCA.

There is one additional feature associated with the "activate" microopetion. Recall that on the input ports it is possible to test a mark bit which is set by a device. Analogous with this, it is possible on output to write out an extra mark bit in addition to the data. The device can, for example, treat this extra bit as a selector between two different modes of operations. The microoperations for output port activate are now given by

OAA1 activate with mark bit set to 1
OAAO activate with mark bit set to 0
OAA activate with mark bit undefined.

## Special purpose output Port D.

The Output Port $D$ is dedicated for control, so far we have used the mnemonic OD in a lot of the selectors (f. ex. in the BS standard group). This means that all these units can be controlled from Output Port D.

Notice that since the port has been dedicated, all operations on ODD, as well the operations ODA and ODR, has no effect. The only operation left with an effect is

## OD:=BUS

which will save the information on the Bus for subsequent use through one of the selectors.

### 2.19. The Bus Structure

With the introduction of the output ports in the previous section we have completed a description of (with only very minor modifications) the RIKKE-1 Bus Structure, the registers and functional units attached to it, and the control which can be exercised on these components. The Bus Structure is now shown in Figure 2. 26.

Figure 2. 26.
RIKKE-1 Bus Structure


Let us summarize some of the information with respect to bus SOURCE $s$ and DESTINATION $s$. We have the following SOURCE $s$ and DESTINATIONs for a bus transport:
a) SOURCEs for Bus Transport

WA
WB
LR
AL
VS
DS
IA
1B
b) DESTINATIONS for 16-bit Load of SB with BD Load

MA
MB
WA
WB
LR
OA
OB
c) Shifters which can load 16 -bit SB via dedicated bits in every microinstruction

AS
VS
DS

Thus in the bus transport specification

LIST:=SOURCE,
the LIST can consist of at most 1 destination from (b) above and any list of the shifters, i.e.,

$$
\mathrm{BD}_{\mathrm{b}}[, \mathrm{AS}][, \vee \mathrm{S}][, \mathrm{DS}]:=S O \cup R C E
$$

where the [ ] indicates the option of inclusion in the LIST.

Recall that the inverted SB can be loaded into LA and LB by execution of appropriate microoperations and, the inverted BUS can be loaded into $P A, P B$ and the BUS into OC and OD by execution of appropriate microoperations. Also, a subfield of the SB (normally a contiquous string starting with bit $b_{0}$ ) can be loaded into various SG's and control ports throughout the system by execution the appropriate microoperation. Thus, many parallel loads of both the BUS and the SB may occur in any given microinstruction.

There are three important restrictions on the above bus transport specifications:
a) the specifications $W A:=W A$ or $W B:=W B$ are not allowed,
b) the specification $L R:=L R$ is only defined when LRIP $\neq L R O P$,
c) one cannot use a mask (MA, MB, PA, LA, LB) and load the register containing that mask in the same microinstruction.
d) it is not possible to shift in one of the shifters (AS,VS and DS) while loading the same shifter (these operations are mutually exclusive).

On the other hand the timing allows you shifting in one of the shifters AS, VS and DS while using it as the source of bustransport. This will not affect the transport, the shift will only change the old content of the shifter. (The shift takes place after the transport).

### 2.20. The Control Unit

The control unit of the RIKKE-1 system, shown in Figure 2.1. on page 5 , consists of (1) a control store and (2) a microinstruction sequencing capability. The random access controlstore consists of up to 4.096 words of 64 -bit wide, 80 nanosecond monolithic storage. The microinstruction sequencing is described below.

### 2.20.1. Microinstruction Sequencing

The microinstruction sequencing hardware is a physical embodiment of the "if $c$ then $A_{t}$ else $A_{f}$ " clause we have been using in our microprogramming examples. This is accomplished in the following way. The addresses $A_{t}$ and $A_{f}$ are selected from 8 possible address sources. Let $A$ be the address of the current microinstruction and let B be data which is specified in the current microinstruction. The 8 possible address sources, which are explained in more detail shortly, are listed in Table 2. 22.

Table 2. 22.
Microinstruction Address Sources

| $A-1$ | Current address - 1 |
| :--- | :--- |
| $A$ | Current address |
| $A+1$ | Current address + 1 |
| $A L(A, B)$ | A function of $A$ and $B$ as computed by an arithmetical <br> logical unit |
| RA + B | The contents of the top of a return jump stack, RA, <br> added to $B$ |
| RB + B | The contents of the top of a return jump stack, RB, <br> added to $B$. |
| SA | The contents of the save address register, SA |
|  | spare input (value is 4095) |

These address sources are realized by providing a microinstruction address bus which is shown in a limited form in Figure 2. 27.

Figure 2. 27.
Microinstruction Address Bus (Preliminary)


One can see from this figure how the "if, then, else"-clause is realized. There are 3-bits in each microinstruction which specify one of the 8 address sources of Table 2.22. to be used as the true branch address, denoted $A_{t}$. There are 3-bits in each microinstruction which specify one of the 8 address sources of Table 2. 22. to be used as the false branch address, denoted $A_{f}$. There are 7 bits in each microinstruction used to specify 1 of 128 conditions which are testable in the system; the selected condition is denoted $c$. The state of the selected condition c determines which source, $A_{t}$ or $A_{f}$, will be used to select the next microinstruction address source. If $c=1$ then $A_{t}$ will be used to select the address of the next microinstruction; if $c=0$, then $A_{f}$ will be used for this purpose. When a microinstruction address is selected,
it is loaded into the Control Store Address Buffer so it can be used to fetch the microinstruction, and it is also loaded into the Current Address register so that it can be used in the next address computation, if required. The contents of the Current Address register has been used in previous examples under the symbolic name HERE.

The address sources $A-1, A$, and $A+1$ are straight forward and need not be dealt with. It should be mentioned, however, that Control Store addresses are interpreted modulo the size of the Control Store. At the current version of RIKKE-1 the Control Store is 512 words, this implies that only the first 9 bits of the address are significant.

### 2.20.2. The Control Unit Arithmetical Logical Unit

The Control Unit Arithmetical Logical Unit, CUAL, is functionally identical to the arithmetical logical unit which is connected to the RIKKE-1 bus structure except that it is 12 -bits wide and not 16 -bits wide. The CUAL functions are identical to those of the $A L$ and are given in Table 2. 10.The "A input" to these computations is the address of the current microinstruction and the " $B$ input" is data specified in the current microinstruction. The CUAL is shown as in Figure 2.28.

Figure 2. 28.
Control Unit Arithmetical Logical Unit


First, note that the CUAL Function register can only be loaded from the $C M$, i. e., CUALF:=CM. One can set the CUALF to add $A$ and $B, i . e .$, SCUALF + and also to the logical function B, i. e., SCUALF B. These are the only three microoperations associated with the CUAL. Cnly 5 bits are used to specify the function; the carry-in, when required, is specified in another way. Let c denote the selected condition used to control the address selection and let $\bar{c}$ be its negation. There is a bit in each microinstruction, called the Carry-Input Selection Bit, CISB, which is used to determine the carry-in as shown in Table 2. 23.

Table 2. 23.
Carry-in Selection

| CISB | Carry-in |
| :---: | :---: |
| 0 | $\overline{\mathrm{c}}$ |
| 1 | c |

## Example 1

Suppose the CUALF is set to $A+B$; this is a relative jump. If $C I S B=0$ the specification
if $c$ then CUAL else HERE
can be interpreted to mean:
if $c$ then $H E R E+B$ else $\operatorname{HERE}$.

Whereas, if CISB $=1$, the specification can be interpreted to mean:
if $c$ then HERE $+B+1$ else HERE.

## Example 2:

Suppose the CUALF is set to B; this is an absolute jump. This is a logical function and not affected by the carry-in.
if $c$ then CUAL else CUAL
can be interpreted to mean:
if $c$ then $B$ else $B$.

In our microassembler, the specification of the CISB will be given implicitly. If one chooses the CUAL output as microinstruction address source, we write
CUAL + Carry-in.

Choice of this specification as either an $A_{t}$ or $A_{f}$ will dictate the setting of the CISB.

For the first interpretation of Example 1 to be valid the specification would have to be written
if $c$ then CUAL else HERE
whereas if we meant the second interpretation we would have to write if $c$ then CUAL +1 el se HERE.

It should be obvious that the specification

$$
\text { if } c \text { then CUAL }+1 \text { else CUAL }+1
$$

is an example of a microinstruction sequencing specification which is imcompatible with the specification capability described above. Indeed if one wished to choose the address specification CUAL +1 irrespective of condition, one merely need write

CUAL + 1
in the microinstruction sequencing field of the microinstruction. This would have the same effect as writing, for example,
if TRUE then CUAL + 1 else CUAL.
where TRUE is a manifest system constant set to 1. There is also a manifest system constant, FALSE which always has the value 0 .

In order to complete the discussion of the CUAL we must discuss the specification of the data $B$. There are two 6-bit fields in the microinstruction which we shall call $T$ and $t$. $T$ and $t$ are input into a function box which makes the computations shown in Table 2. 24. There are 2 bits in every microinstruction, called the B-Input Selection Bits, BISB, which determine which of these computations will be used as the B data, if required, in the current address computation.

Table 2. 24.
B data Selection

| BISB | B data |
| :---: | :---: |
| 00 | 0 |
| 01 | $\mathrm{t}^{\mathrm{sign}}{ }^{\mathrm{t}}$ |
| 10 | T0 |
| 11 | Tt |

The notation $\mathrm{t}_{\text {sign }}{ }^{\mathrm{t}}$ means the 12 address bits are given by
$t_{5} t_{5} t_{5} t_{5} t_{5} t_{5} t_{5} \quad t_{4} \quad t_{3} t_{2} \quad t_{1} \quad t_{0}$,
i. e., in "sign extended" form. With the CUALF set to $A+B$ and BISB $=01$ we then have a relative addressing capability of $\pm 32$. The notations Tt and TO denote concatenation.

In our microassembler, the specification of the BISB will be given implicitly. One specifies the $B$ value explicitly as a decimal number in the address specification and this will dictate the setting of the BISB.

We will hence forth write the CUAL specifications as

$$
\text { CUAL }(A, B)+\text { Carry-in. }
$$

Both CU and A are redundant information since this is written in the microinstruction sequencing field of the microinstruction and we will use the shorter form

$$
A L(B)+\text { Carry-in }
$$

where $B$ is a signed integer, $-2048 \leq B \leq 2048$, when combined in an arithmetic function with $A$, but may obviously lie in the interval $0 \leq B \leq 4095$ when used for absolute jumps.

## Example 1

If the CUALF is set to $A+B$ and BISB $=01$, then the specification if $c$ then $A L(-18)$.
can be interpreted to mean
if $c$ then HERE-18 else HERE +1 .

## Example 2

If the CUALF is set to $A+B$ and $B I S B=01$, then the specification if $c$ then $A L(12)$ else $A L(12)+1$
can be interpreted to mean

$$
\text { if } c \text { then HERE + } 12 \text { else HERE + } 13
$$

thus giving a conditional branch to one of two sequentially located microinstructions.

### 2.20.3. Return Jump Stacks $A$ and B

There are two return jump stacks associated with the microinstruction addressing facility. They are called RA and RB. Each is a 12-bit wide, 16 element RG. RA is shown in Figure 2. 29. RB, not shown, is identical.

Figure 2. 29.
Return Jump Stack A, RA


The microoperations associated with RA are shown in Table 2.25. The instructions for RB are identical

Table 2.25.
Microoperations for control of RA

| Notation |  | Map |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| on fig. 2.29. | maoperation |  |
| $+1 \wedge(L)$ | RA $\downarrow$ | Increment RAP and then load RA with the <br> address of the current microinstruction. |
| -1 | RA $\uparrow$ | Decrement RAP <br> Clear the RAP |

Whenever the top of the RA stack is used in the computation of the address of the next microoperation, the microoperation RA $\uparrow$ is executed, i. e., the stack pointer is automatically maintained any time something is added to the stack or whenever the stack is used in an address computation. The use of RA is specified by writing

$$
R A+B+C a r r y-i n .
$$

This is seen immediately from Figure 2. 29. The B data and the Carryin selection are exactly the same as those specified for the CUAL. The specification $R A+1$ or $R B+1$ will be interpreted to mean $B=0$ and the carry-in $=1$.

## Example 1

Suppose we are in a routine at step $n$ and wish to jump to a routine at step $n+m$. At step $j$ of the second routine wish to return to $n+1$. Assuming the CUALF:=A + B we could write

| $\mathrm{n}:$ | $; R A \downarrow$ | $; \mathrm{AL}(\mathrm{m})$ |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| $\mathrm{m}:$ |  |  |
| $\vdots$ |  |  |
| $\mathrm{j}:$ | $;$ | $; R A+1$. |

## Example 2

It should be noted that the availability of 2 return jump stacks may facilitate the implementation of coroutines. For example, the microinstruction

$$
n: \quad ; R A \downarrow \quad ; R B+1
$$

stores the current address in one stack while simultaneously using the other stack as a source in the computation of the address of the next microinstruction.

## Example 3

A conditional return entry point can be obtained by using the specification

$$
\text { if } c \text { then } R A+B+1 \text { else } R A+B
$$

### 2.20. 4. The Save Address Register

The Save Address register, SA, is shown in Figure 2.30.

Figure 2. 30.
The Save Address Register, SA


The microoperations associated with this register are shown in Table 2.26.

Table 2. 26.
Microoperations for control of SA

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { SA: }=\text { SB } \\
& \text { SA }+1 \\
& \text { SA }-1 \\
& \text { SAC }
\end{aligned}
$$

SA provides a data path between the bus structure of RIKKE-1 and the control unit which controls the transactions on this structure. It can be used, for example, during the loading of control store. (See Section 2.20.6.).

### 2.20.5. The Microinstruction Address Bus

Having gained insight into the nature of the various address sources which can be used during microinstruction sequencing, we can now present a more detailed picture of the microinstruction address bus and it is shown as Figure 2.32. Because the number of control elements is small, they are also shown on this figure.

The microoperations associated with the control unit are brought together, for convenience, in Table. 2. 27. All but the last microoperations have been explained in previous sections. The CS Load operation is discusised next.

Table 2. 27.
Microoperations associated with the Control Unit

```
SA:=SB
SA + 1
SA - 1
SAC
CUALF:=CM
S CUALF B
S CUALF +
RA \uparrow
RA \
RAPC
RB \uparrow
RB \downarrow
RBPC
CS Load
LCC
```

Figure 2. 31.
Microinstruction Address Bus (Detailed)

** the address selector bits are decoded to determine if RA or RB are selected.

### 2.20.6. Control Store Loading

Control Store has both an address and a data buffer, as shown below in figure 2. 32.

Figure 2. 32.
Control Store


The CS Address Buffer is loaded from the Microinstruction Address Selector as shown in Fig. 2. 32. The CS Data Buffer is actually Device no. 0 associated with Output Port B.

Since the Output-Port is only 16 bits wide and the Control Store is 64 bits wide, the loading of 1 Control Store word takes at least 4 microoperations. Associated with the Control Store is a Loading counter, LC. The LC indicates whether the next word loaded should be directed to bit 0-15 16-31, 32-47 or 48-63 of the Control Store word pointed to by CS Address Buffer. The load counter is automatically increased when the CS Load microoperation is executed. Furthermore one can clear the LC by the microoperation LCC.

Let $A$ be the address of the current microinstruction.

The microoperation CS Load, if executed in the current microinstruction, can be interpreted as follows

CS Load $\approx$
Load the content of the CS Data Buffer into the bits indicated by LC of the Control Store Location pointed to by the CS address Buffer. In crement LC and then choose A+1 as the address of the next microinstruction.

## Example

Load the contents of WA1 - WA4 into the CS storage Location specified by the rightmost 12 bits of WAO

$$
\begin{aligned}
& ; \text { WAPC, OBD:=0, CA:=3. } \\
& ; S A:=S B, W A P+1
\end{aligned}
$$

LOAD: OB:=WA ; if OBSA then HERE+1 else HERE.
; OBA;
; CS Load; SA.
; WAP+1, CA-1, if CA then HERE +1 else LOAD.

### 2.21. Control Panel Switches $K A$ and $K B$

KA and KB are two switches on the control panel which can be set/reset by the operator and tested as any other condition in the microinstruction condition part.
2. 22. Internal Flags $K C$ and $K D$

KC and KD are two flip-flop's which can be loaded, reset and tested in the microoperation. Fig. 2..33. shows KC, KD not shown is identical.

Figure 2. 33.
Internal Flag KC


KC and KD can be tested as any other condition in the microinstruction condition part.

The microoperations associated with KC and KD are

Table 2. 28.
Microoperations for KC and KD

| KCC | clear KC |
| :---: | :---: |
| SET KC | set KC |
| $\mathrm{KC}=\mathrm{Sc}$ | load KC with selected condition |
| KDC | clear KD |
| SET KD | set KD |
| KD: $=$ SC | load KC with selected condition |

### 2.23. The Conditions and Condition Selector

There is the possibility of testing 128 conditions in the system. At this writing there have been 100 specified, leaving a reasonable amount of expandability in the system. The conditions and their symbolic notation are given in Table 2.29.

The conditions in this table are grouped according to the functional unit with which they are associated. For convenience, the units are listed in alphabetical order.

Table 2. 29.
Condition List

| Unit | Symbolic Notation | Condition |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| AL | AL <br> ALOV <br> AL(0) <br> AL(15) <br> TWOOV | all bits $A L(0: 15) \equiv 1$ <br> Al carry-out bit <br> bit 0 of AL input to bus selector <br> bit 15 of AL input to bus selector <br> 2 's complement overflow |
| AS | AS(0) <br> AS(V) <br> AS(15) | bit 0 of the AS the variable bit of the AS bit 15 of the AS |
| BP | BP | BUS parity, $\mathrm{BP}=1 \Rightarrow$ odd parity |
| BUS | Bus | BUS(0:15) $\equiv 0$ |
| CA | CA <br> CA(3) <br> CA(4) <br> CA(5) <br> CA(6) <br> CASPOV | is CA zero <br> bit 3 of $C A$ <br> bit 4 of $C A$ <br> bit 5 of $C A$ <br> bit 6 of $C A$ <br> CASP $\equiv 1111$ (CASP overflow) |
| CB | CB <br> CB(3) <br> CB(4) <br> CB(5) <br> CB(6) <br> CBSPOV | is CB zero <br> bit 3 of $C B$ <br> bit 4 of $C B$ <br> bit 5 of $C B]$ <br> bit 6 of $C B$ <br> CBSP $\equiv 1111$ (CBSP overflow) |
| cu | RAPOV <br> RAPUN <br> RBPOV <br> RBPUN <br> CUALOV | RAP $\neq 1111$ (RAP overflow) RAP $\equiv 0000$ (RAP underflow) RBP $\neq 111$ (RBP overflow) RBP $\equiv 0000$ (RBP underflow) CUAL overflow |


| UNIT | Symbolic Notation | Condition |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| DS | $\begin{aligned} & D S(j), j=0, \ldots, 15 \\ & D S(j), j=V, V+1 \end{aligned}$ | the indicated bit of the DS the variable bits of the $D S$ |
| 1/0 | IADA <br> IADM <br> IBDA <br> IBDM <br> OASA <br> OBSA <br> OCSA <br> ODSA | data available on IA mark bit IA <br> data available on IB mark bit IB <br> space available on OA <br> space available on $O B$ <br> space available on OC <br> space available on OD |
| KA | KA | KA button set |
| KB | KB | KB button set |
| KC | KC | KC flag set |
| KD | KD | KD flag set |
| LR | $\begin{aligned} & \operatorname{LR}(0) \\ & \operatorname{LR}(15) \end{aligned}$ | bit 0 of LR input to bus selector bit 15 of LR input to bus selector |
| SB | $\begin{aligned} & S B(0) \\ & S B(1) \\ & S B(14) \\ & S B(15) \end{aligned}$ | bit 0 of the shifted bus bit 1 of the shifted bus bit 14 of the shifted bus bit 15 of the shifted bus |
| System | TRUE FALSE | a binary one a binary zero |
| VS | $\begin{aligned} & V S(0) \\ & V S(V) \\ & V S(15) \end{aligned}$ | bit 0 of VS input to bus selector the variable bit of the VS bit 15 of the VS |
| WA | WA(0) <br> WA(15) <br> WAPOV <br> WAPSPOV | bit 0 of WA input to bus selector bit 15 of WA input to bus selector WAP $\equiv 11111111$ (WAP overflow) WASP $\equiv 11111111$ (WAPSP overflow |


| Unit | Symbolic <br> Notation | Condition |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| WB | WB(0) | bit 0 of WB input to bus selector |
| WB | WB(15) | bit 15 of WB input to bus selector |
|  | WBPOV | WBPSPOV |
|  | WBPSP $\equiv 11111111$ (WBP overfiow) |  |

All 128 conditions are input into a condition selector. There are 7 bits in each microinstruction, called the Condition Selection Bits, CSB, which select a particular condition. The selected condition is input into
a) The $A_{t}-A_{f}$ address selector (Section 2.20.1.),
b) The carry-in selector (Section 2.20.2.)

### 2.24. Short and Long Cycle

It is obviously important to know when one can test a condition. The system can execute microinstructions in two different cycle times: a "short" cycle time and a "long" cycle time. The difference in these two cycles as it relates to the testing of conditions can easily be stated:

## Long cycle

When the machine is operating in long cycle mode all conditions which arise as a result of bus transport and microoperation execution are testable in the same microinstruction in which they arise.

## short cycle

When the machine is operating in short cycle mode all conditions which arise as a result of bus transport and microoperation execution are testable in the next microinstruction to be executed.

Thus if we are in long cycle and we write

> WA:=WB; WAP + 1; if BUS then RA+1.
we are testing whether or not if the current bus transport (WA:=WB) is such that BUS $\equiv 0$. Whereas, in short cycle, this microinstruction would mean we are testing the previous bus transportls condition. In order to test $W A:=W B$ we would have to write 2 microinstructions,

$$
\begin{aligned}
W A=W B & ; W A P+1 \\
& ; \text { if } B U S \text { then } R A+1 .
\end{aligned}
$$

Thus, a microinstruction can be throught of being executed in the following sequential way:

## Short cycle:

a) Microinstruction fetch and saving of conditions
b) Bus-Transport
c) Execution of microoperations
d) Calculation of the address of next microinstruction based on saved conditions.

Long cycle:
a) Microinstruction fetch
b) Bus-transport
c) Execution of microoperations
d) Calculation of the address of next microinstruction based on the actual state of machine (new values of conditions).

The difference between short and long cycle is that step d) is delayed in long cycle to wait for conditions affected by b) and c).

The above mentioned steps may be considered as being executed sequentially, (this implies that one step is completely finished before the next is entered) similarily each of the steps may be broken up in a number of sequential steps (each of which is completed before the next is initiated), these will be described in section 3. 2.

NB! At the current version of RIKKE-1 it is not yet possible to switch between short and long cycle. The RIKKE-1 is meanwhile operating in short cycle.

### 2.25. The Real Time Clock

The RIKKE-1 will be supplied with a Real Time Clock, but this is not yet designed.

### 2.26. Auxiliary Facilities

The auxiliary facilities associated with the RIKKE-1 system as shown in Figure 2. 1. i.e., the system counters and main storage will now be discussed.

### 2.26.1. Counter B

The system has 2 counters associated with it: Counter A, CA, has been introduced in Section 2. 2., Counter B, $C B$, introduced here is shown in Figure 2. 34.

Figure 2. 34.
Counter B, CB


A comparison of this figure with Figure 2.3. which shows CA reveals that $C B$ is identical with $C A$ except that $C A$ can be loaded from the $O D$ register which is not the case with $C B$, i. e., we have
and

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \mathrm{CA}:=\mathrm{CM}|\mathrm{SB}| \mathrm{OD} \mid \mathrm{CAS} \\
& \mathrm{CB}:=\mathrm{CM}|\mathrm{SB}|^{*} \mid \mathrm{CBS} .
\end{aligned}
$$

[^3]The microoperations associated with CB, CBS, and CBSP are given in Table 2. 30. These are, of course, apart from the above difference, identical to those associated with CA and merely shown here for convenience.

Tabel 2. 30.
Microoperations for control of CB, CBS, and CBSP

| $C B:=C M\|S B\| * \mid C B S$ |
| :--- |
| $C B+1$ |
| $C B-1$ |
| $C B S$ |
| $C B S:=C B$ |
| $C B S P+1$ |
| $C B S P-1$ |
| $C B S P C$ |

I should be quite obvious that CA and CB are not connected in any way whatsoever and may be used independent of one another. One may count up in CA while counting down in CM, for example,

$$
; C A+1, C B-1
$$

### 2.26.2. Main Memory

The RIKKE 1 has a memory of up to 64 K 16 bits words called MS. The addressing is provided through a main storage pointer, MSA.

[^4]Figure 2. 35.
Main Storage Address


The reading of Main Memory is going to take place from Input Port A, (device indifferent), and writing through Output Port A, (device indifferent), although the assembler will recognize MSW as OAA and MSR as IAA.

The microoperations associated with MSA, MSASG and MSAP are given in table 2. 31.

Table 2. 31.

| $M S A:=C M\|O D\| S B \mid M S P S G$ |
| :--- |
| $M S A+1$ |
| $M S A-1$ |
| $M S A C$ |
| $M S A S G:=M S A$ |
| $M S A P:=C M\|O D\| S 1 \mid S 2$ |
| $M S A P+1$ |
| $M S A P C$ |
| $M S A S 2:=M S A P$ |
| $M S A S 1:=C M\|O D\| S 1 \mid S 2$ |
| $M S W$ |

The assembler recognizes these as synonyms for IAA and OAA

It is possible to check the content of MSA against the actual physical size of main storage. The condition MSAOR is a 1 if the content of MSA is greater than the actual size of main storage, else 0. Furthermore it is possible to test if MSA is busy (i. e. main store is using MSA), this condition is named MSAB.

## Example

Assume we want to store the contents of the WA-register pointed to by WAP in the main storage location pointed to by the AS. We can write this as

> ALF:=B $;$ if MSAB then HERE else HERE+1
> $A L \quad ; M S A:=S B$.
> $O A:=W A ; M S W$.

### 2.27. An Alternate View of the Working Registers

The description of WA which was given in Section 2.4. introduced WA as a 256 element RG. In Figure 2.5. the address pointer, WAP, was shown to be 8-bits wide so that the WA registers could be addressed as 256 contiguous registers. In fact, the address pointer actually consists of two 4-bit pointers which had been "coupled" together to give the 8-bit wide pointer described in Section. 2.4. Figure 2.36. shows WA with its two 4 -bit pointers called the Group and Unit pointer; WB, not shown, is identical.

Figure 2. 36.
Working Registers A, WA (Detailed)


When the microoperation CPL $A$ is executed, the Group and Unit pointers are connected together to give the 8-bit wide pointer, WAP. After the microoperation UNCPL $A$ is executed, the Group and Unit pointers function as independent pointers. The low order 4-bits of the 8-bit address required to specify a particular register are given by the WA Unit pointer, WAU; high order 4-bits of the address are
given by the WA Group pointer, WAG. Thus, WA can be considered to be 16 RG's, each RG having 16 registers.

The microoperations associated with the WAU and WAG pointers are given in Table 2. 32. (The similar microoperations for WB are also shown.)

Table 2. 32.
Microoperations for control of the WAU/WBU and WAG/WBG pointer

| WAU:=CM\|OD $\left\|\mathrm{SB}_{03}\right\|$ WAUS |  |
| :---: | :---: |
| $W A U+1$ | $W B U+1$ |
| WAU - 1 | WBU-1 |
| WAUC | WBUC |
| WAG: $=C M\left\|\mathrm{OD}_{4 \rightarrow 7}\right\| \mathrm{SB}_{4 \sim 7} \mid$ WAGS | WBG: $=C M\left\|O D_{1375}\right\| S B_{12-15} \mid$ WBGP |
| $W A G+1$ | $W B G+1$ |
| WAG - 1 | WBG-1 |
| WAGC | WBGC |

If we wanted to point to the 9 th unit of group 3 and then transfer its contents to the DS, we could write, assuming the pointers are uncoupled,

```
    ; WAG:=3, WAU:=9.
DS:=WA.
```

The microoperations associated with WAP in Table 2.4. can now be given their appropriate meaning in terms of the microoperations in Table 2.32.

```
WAP + 1::=WAU + 1
WAP - 1::=WAU - 1
WAPC ::=WAUC and WAGC
WAP :=CM|OD|SB|WAPS::=WAU:=CM|OD|SB|WAUS
and CM|OD|SB|WAGS.
```

Let us now turn our attention to the pointer save capability shown in Figure 2. 36. When WA is considered as 16 groups of 16 registers, the WAU and WAG pointers may be saved independent of one another. The microoperations associated with this facility are given in Table 2.33.

Table 2.33.
Microoperations for control of WAUS and WAGS

| WAUS: $=$ WAU |
| :--- |
| WAUSP +1 |
| WAUSP - 1 |
| WAUSPC |
| WAGS:=WAG |
| WAGSP + 1 |
| WAGSP - 1 |
| WAGSPC |

As an example, suppose we are in group 3 and wish to work in group 8.

Before working in group 8 we want to save the unit which we are pointing to in group 3. This is done by executing
; WAUS:=WAU, WAG:=8 .

The microoperations associated with WAPS in table 2.4. can now be given their appropriate meaning in terms of the microoperations in Table 2.33. Thus we have,

```
WAPS:=WAP::=WAUS:=WAU and WAGS:=WAG
WAPSP + \(1::=\) WAUSP +1 and WAGSP +1
WAPSP - \(1::=W A U S P-1\) and WAGSP - 1
WAPSPC \(::=W A U S P C\) and WAGSPC.
```

There are a few additional conditions which can now be added to Table 2.29.

Table 2.34.
Additional WA and WB Conditions

| Unit | Symbolic <br> Notation | Condition |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| WA | WAUOV | WAU $\equiv 1111$ (WAU overflow) |
|  | WAGOV |  |
|  | WAUSPOV | WAG $\equiv 1111$ (WAG overflow) |
|  | WAUSP $\equiv 1111$ (WAUSP overflow) |  |
|  | WACS | WAGSP $\equiv 1111$ (WAGSP overflow) |
|  | WACS $=1 \Rightarrow$ WAU and WAG are coupled |  |
|  | WBUOV | WBUS |
|  | WBUSPOV | WBG $\equiv 1111$ (WBU overflow) |
|  | WBGSPOV | WBUSP $\equiv 1111$ (WBUSP overflow) |
|  | WBCS | WBGSP $\equiv 1111$ (WBGSP overflow) |
|  |  | WBCS $=1 \Rightarrow$ WBU and WBG are coupled |

Thus we can deal with WA or WB as either 256 contiguous registers or 16 groups of 16 registers. We can switch back and forth between either interpretation in a relatively straightforward way.

### 2.28. An Alternate View of the Postshift Masks

The description of the Postshift Masks which was given in Section 2.7. was structured to make the Postshift Masks look as much like the Bus Masks as possible, to enchance the understanding of this unit. In fact, the output of the BS is masked during every bus transport by the mask which is specified to be

$$
P A \vee P B \vee P G
$$

where
$P A=$ an element of a 16 bit wide, 16 element RG called the Postshift Mask A registers

```
PB = an element of a 16-bit wide, 16 element RG called
        the Postshift Mask B registers
PG = the Postshift Mask Generator
V = logical "inclusive or".
```

In section 2.7. we had introduced the mask to be PAVPG; here we had merely assumed all elements of PB to contain all O's. The actual situation is shown more clearly in Figure 2. 37.

Figure 2. 37.
Postshift Masks, PA, PB, and PG


The most important thing to note from this diagram is that the PA/PB structure is indeed the same as the $M A / M B$ structure (see Figure 2.9.).

The microoperations associated with PB are then

Table 2. 35.
Microoperations for control of PB

| $P B:=B U S$ |
| :--- |
| $P B P:=C M\|O D\| S B \mid S G$ |
| $P B P+1$ |
| $P B P-1$ |
| $P B P C$ |

The name of the SG associated with the PA pointer and the PB pointer is the Postshift AB Pointer, PABP. The microoperations associated with this SG are given in Table 2.36.

Table 2. 36.
Microoperations for control of PABP

| PABP: $=S B$ |
| :--- |
| PABPP: $=\mathrm{CM}\|O D\| S 1 \mid S 2$ |
| $P A B P P+1$ |
| PABPP - 1 |
| PABPPC |
| PABPS $1:=C M\|O D\| S 1 \mid S 2$ |
| PABPS2:=PSBPP |

We will assume that all elements of $P B$ contain all $0^{\prime} s$ so that the effective mask is PA $\vee$ PG and all of out previous standardizations for the use of this facility are still valid.

## 3. 0. Microinstruction Specification and Execution

We will in this section discuss the microinstruction format, the manner in which the instruction is executed, and then give a comprehensive table of all microoperations.

### 3.1. Microinstruction Format

Microinstructions are 64-bits wide. There are 4 major fields in a microinstruction. These fields specify
(a) bus transport
(b) microoperations and data
(c) microinstruction sequencing
(d) control of AS, VS, and DS

These fields are shown below with their sub-fields named and their actual bit location in the microinstruction.
(a) bus transport (7 bits)

| BSE | BD | SOURCE |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 22 | $21 \quad 19$ | $18 \quad 16$ |
| 1 | 3 | 3 |

(b) microoperations and data (35 bits)

| mops | mops/data | mops/data | mops/data |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $63 \quad 57$ | 56 47 | 46 <br> 39 | $38 \quad 29$ |
| 7 | 10 | 8 | 10 |

[^5](c) microinstruction sequencing (16 bits)

(d) AS, VS, and DS control (6 bits)

| $\mathrm{AS}_{27}$ |  | $\mathrm{VS}_{25}$ |  | DS |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 2 | 2 | 2 |  |  |  |

Shift/Load Control for the Shifters

Let us discuss each of these in more detail.

## (A) The Bus Transport Field

Table 3.1. shows the correspondence between the symbolic notation for SOURCE s and BD s and their binary representations.

Table 3.1.
Symbolic and Binary Notation for SOURCE s and BD s

| SOURCE |  | BD |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Symbolic <br> Notation | Binary <br> Notation | Symbolic <br> Notation | Binary <br> Notation |
| LR | 000 | no <br> destination | 000 |
| AL | 001 | MA | 001 |
| VS | 010 | MB | 010 |
| DS | 011 | LR | 011 |
| WA | 100 | WA | 100 |
| WB | 101 | WB | 101 |
| IA $\approx$ | 110 | OA $\approx$ | 110 |
| IB | 111 | OB | 111 |

If the BS Enable bit = 0, no BS occurs; if the BS Enable bit $=1$ a BS Shift occurs. The control source for BS control is given in the microoperations and data field as in seen in (B) below. Thus the specification

| BSE | BD | SOURCE |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 0 | 101 | 011 |

is the binary representation of our bus transport specification
WB:=DS .

We will show this symbolically as

| BSE | BD | SOURCE |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 0 | $W B$ | $D S$ |

as we have no need of binary representations in this report.

## (B) The Microoperations and Data Field

The microoperations and data field can be considered to be made up of the following fields: $F_{1}, S_{1}, \frac{M}{D_{2}}, F_{2}, \frac{M}{D_{3}}, F_{3}, S_{2}, \frac{M}{D_{4}}, F_{4}$ as shown in Figure 3.1.

Figure 3.1.
Microoperation and Data Field


The following comments should assist in understanding this diagram.
B. 1) Field $F_{1}$ always specifies a microoperation (1 of 128 mops).
if $\frac{M}{D_{2}}=1$ then $F_{2}$ specifies a microoperation (1 of 128 mops). if $\frac{M}{D_{3}}=1$ then $F_{3}$ specifies a microoperation (1 of 128 mops).
if $\frac{M}{D_{4}}=1$ then $F_{4}$ specifies a microoperation (1 of 128 mops).
Therefore up to 4 microoperations may be specified in this field; for example,

```
; BSP + 1, WBP + 1,MBP + 1, CA - 1;
```

B. 2) We have seen that many microoperations concern the loading of a register from various sources, e.g.

$$
M A P:=C M|O D| S B \mid S G .
$$

Such a microoperation must be places either in field $F_{1}$ or $F_{3}$. If it is placed in $F_{1}$ then the 2 selection bits $S_{1}$ specify which source will be used. If the source specified is the $C M$ then $\frac{M}{D_{2}}$ is set to $D$ and $F_{2}$ is used as data (similarly $\frac{M}{D_{4}}$ and $F_{4}$ are used with $F_{3}$ ). For example
MAP:=7
could be symbolically represented

| $F_{1}$ | $S_{1}$ | $\frac{M}{D_{2}}$ | $F_{2}$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| MAP: $=$ | $C M$ | $D$ | 7 |

Thus one sees that there can be at most 2 microoperations of this type in a microinstruction.
B.3) Figure 3.1. also shows that if the $B S$ control data is to be taken from the $C M$ then $F_{3}$ is used as data. If the $B S$ has been enabled, the control source is selected via BSS. Thus the specification

$$
\text { WA: }=A L, B S \rightarrow 3
$$

could be symbolically represented

| $\frac{M}{D_{3}}$ | $F_{3}$ | $B S E$ | $B D$ | $S O U R C E$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $D$ | 3 | 1 | WA | $D S$ |

B.4) All of the possible microoperations are not available in each field $F_{1}, F_{2}, F_{3}$, and $F_{4}$. The microoperations which can be specified in each field are given in Section 3.3., the Comprehensive Tables of Microoperations for Individual Functional Units.

## C) The Microinstruction Sequencing Field

Table 3.2. shows the correspondence between the symbolic notation for $A_{t}$ and $A_{f}$ and their binary representations.

Table 3.2.
Symbolic and Binary Notations for $A_{t}$ and $A_{f}$

| $A_{t}$ and $A_{f}$ |  |
| :---: | :---: |
| Symbolic <br> Notation | Binary <br> Notation |
|  | 000 |
| AL | 001 |
| RB | 010 |
| RA | 011 |
| SA | 100 |
| A-1 | 101 |
| A+1 | 110 |
| A | 111 |

A similar table can be given for the symbolic and binary notations for the conditions but is not given here because of its length. Tables 2.23. and 2.24. present this information for the CISB (Carry-in selection bit) and BISB (B-input selection bits) respectively. We will give all of our examples symbolically.

## Example 1

if BUS $\equiv 0$ then HERE. could be represented

| BISB | CISB | Condition <br> Selection | $A_{f}$ | $A_{t}$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 0 |  | BUS | $A+1$ | $A$ |

## Example 2

If ALOV then RA +12 . could be represented

| BISB | CISB | Condition <br> Selection | $A_{f}$ | $A_{t}$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $\mathrm{t}_{\text {sign }^{\mathrm{t}}}$ |  | ALOV | $A+1$ | RA+B |

However, this is incomplete and immediately raises the question where do $T$ and $t$ come from? That is easily answered. $T$ is always the least significant 6 bits of $F_{3}$ and $t$ is always the least significant 6 bits of $F_{4}$. BISB tells us, of course, how we will combine $T$ and $t$ (i.e., $0, T t$, $\mathrm{t}_{\text {sign }}{ }^{\mathrm{t}}$, or TO, see Section 2.20.2). Thus, the complete specification would be

| $\frac{M}{D_{4}}$ | $F_{4}$ | BISB | CISB | Condition <br> Selection | $A_{f}$ | $A_{t}$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $D$ | 12 | $t_{s^{\prime} g^{t}}$ |  | ALOV | $A+1$ | $R A+B$ |

D) $A S, V S$, and DS Control Field

The dedicated bits for shifter control are interpreted as shown in Table 3. 3.

Table 3.3.
Shift/Load Control Bits

| Binary <br> Notation | Shift/Load Control |
| :---: | :--- |
| 00 | Do Nothing |
| 01 | Shift Right |
| 10 | Shift Left |
| 11 | Load |

Thus, the specification

$$
\mathrm{AS} \rightarrow, \mathrm{VS} \leftarrow, \mathrm{DS} \leftarrow
$$

could be represented symbolically as

| $A S$ | $V S$ | $D S$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $\rightarrow$ | $\leftarrow$ | $\leftarrow$ |

The binary representation

| $A S$ | $V S$ | $D S$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 01 | 10 | 10 |

does not interest us here. The specification
AS, LR:=AL; DS $\leftarrow$.
would be given by

|  | AS | VS | DS | 3SE | BD | SOURCE | BISB | CISB | Condition <br> Selection | $A_{f}$ | $A_{t}$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| anime | L |  | $\leftarrow$ |  | LR | AL | 0 |  | TRUE | $A+1$ | $A+1$ |

### 3.2. Microinstruction Execution

As introduced in Section 2.4 . and then explained in more detail in Section 2. 24. the machine has both a long cycle and a short cycle. The result of that discussion, which is repeated here for convenience is that microinstructions can be thought of being executed in the following sequential way:

## Short cycle:

a) Microinstruction fetch and saving of conditions
b) Bus-Transport
c) Execution of microoperations
d) Calculation of the address of next microinstruction based on saved conditions.

## Long cycle:

a) Microinstruction fetch
b) Bus-Transport
C) Execution of microoperations
d) Calculation of the address of next microinstruction based on the actual state of machine (new value of conditions).

The difference between short and long cycle is that step d) is delayed in long cycle to wait for conditions affected by b) and c).

The above mentioned steps may be considered as being executed sequentially, (this implies that one step is completely finished before the next is entered), similarily each of the steps may be broken up in a number of sequential steps (each of which is completed before the next is initiated).

## B) Bustransport

0) The SOURCE is selected.
1) The information of the SOURCE is masked by the BUSmasks and gated onto the BUS.
2) The BUS is shifted by the Bus-Shifter if this is enabled.
3) The output of BS is masked byt he Postshiftmask to yield the shifted Bus SB.
4) Loading of $S B$ into the selected destination.

## C) Execution of microoperations

0) Execute microoperations with $C_{p}=1$.
1) Execute load/shift operations in $A S, V S$ and $D S$.
2) Execute microoperations with $C_{p}=2$.

## D) Address calculation

0) Choose the selected condition and name it $c$ (in short cycle a saved value, in long cycle the new state).
1) Select the carry-in and B-input into the CUAL, and the $R A$ and RB adders.
2) Compute the result in the adders.
3) Select the next address using $A_{t}$ if $c=1$ or $A_{f}$ if $c=0$.
4) If RA and RB has been selected, then por the stach that was used
 Notice that conflicts can occur between actions that take place within the same of the above mentioned sequential steps, and of course especially in those cases where more than one action refers to the same unit (ex. : count and clear of the same register) in which case the result is undefined.

Another source of conflicts is the case where an action in one step influences the information which is being gated onto some datapath, and the information is used (e. g. loaded) in a later step. On the other hand if no actions refer to the source nor to the datapath itself, the information on the path can be assumed to be stable in all the following steps.

[^6]Although many conflicts are resolved by the sequential nature of the timing some will remain and will result in undefined situations some of which will be listed below:
a) WA:=WA and $W B:=W B$ gives an undefined result.
b) LR:=LR and LRIP=LROP gives an undefined result.
c) Loading of a mask (MA, MB, PA, PB) in a bustransport where the same mask is being applied.

### 3.2.1. Example of how to use Clock Pulse 1 and Clock Pulse 2

Recall that the RG is a basic building element used in the system. A very common operation is to load an RG and then change its pointer (e.g. this was done quite frequently in our examples). Often, one also wished to save the address of the current element pointed to before the pointer is changed. It was decided that this capability should be allowed in one microinstruction and, furthermore, every $R G$ in the system should be treated in the same uniform way.

## Example

The microinstruction

$$
\text { AS: =WA; WAPS:=WAP, WAP + } 1
$$

means: take the element of WA pointed to by WAP and store it in the AS; then store the WAP in the WAPS registers and then increment WAP by 1. It means this because the BD load and the microoperation bot occur before the microoperation $W A P+1$ in the above mentioned sequential scheme. Thus, every RG in the system can be looked at in the following way:
a) it can be loaded or used as a source.
b) its current pointer can be saved, if it has a save capability.
c) its pointer can be changed after a) and b).
all with one microinstruction.

## 3. 3. Comprehensive Tables of Microoperations for Individual Functional Units

The following tables (presented in alphabetical order based on the abbreviations associated with the functional unit) show which microoperations can appear in which fields and at which clock pulse these microoperations are initiated.

Some particular points perhaps should be recalled and emphasized here:
a) use of these tables will show what space and time conflicts arise in the construction of a microinstruction. The reader is encouraged to review some of the examples of the earlier sections by constructing symbolic microinstructions similar to those presented in Section 3. 1.
b) $\quad t$ comes from field $F_{4}$, so if it is being used, for example in absolute addressing, a microinstruction should not be specified in $F_{3}$.
c) $T$ comes from field $F_{3}$, so if $T$ is being used, for example in absolute addressing, a microinstruction should not be specified in $F_{3}$.
d) Data for the BS, if the $C M$ is the control source, comes from $F_{3}$.
e) Data for the PG, if the CM is the ocntrol source, comes from $F_{3}$.

MICDOOPEPATIONS FOR $A$


## MICROOPERATIONS FOR AS



MICROOPERATIONS FOR ES



## MICRJOPEPATIONS FOR BM



## MICROOPERATIONS FOR CA



## MICRJOPERATIONS FOR CB



MICRODPFRATIONS FOR DS


## MICROOPERATIONS FOR INPUT



MICROOPERATIONS FOR KC AND KD


## MICROOPERATIONS FOR LA



## MICROOPERATIONS FOR LB



MICROOPERATIONS FOR LR


## MICROOPERATIONS FOR MS



MICROOPERATIONS FOR OUTPUT


MICRDOPFRATIONS FOR PM


MICRJOPERATIONS FOR CON.STORE


MICRJOPERATIONS FOR WC


MICROOPFRATIONS FOR VS


MICRJOPERATIONS FOR WAU


MIGROOPERATIONS FOR WAG


## MICROOPERATIONS FOR WA COUPLED



MICROOPERATIONS FOR WRU


MICROOPFRATIONS FOR WRG


MICROOPERATIONS FOR WB COUPLED


MICROOPERATIONS FOR CUAL


MICFOOPPERATIONS FOR RA


MICROOPERATIONS FOR RB


Table of First Occurrance of Abbreviations and Symbols
(not including conditions or microoperations)

| Abbreviation | Interpretation | Page |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $A_{t}, A_{f}$ AL ALF ALP ALSG ALS1 ALS2 AS | Address Specifications <br> Arithmetical Logical Unit <br> AL Function and Carry-in Register <br> ALRG Pointer <br> AL Standard Group <br> ALSG Save1 Pointer <br> ALSG Save2 Pointer <br> Accumulator Shifter | 15 35 37 37 37 37 37 40 |
| BD <br> BISB <br> BM <br> BMP <br> BMPP <br> BMPS1 <br> BMPS2 <br> BS <br> BSP <br> BSSG <br> BSS <br> BSS1 <br> BSS2 <br> Bus | Bus Destination <br> B-Input Selection Bits <br> Bus Masks <br> Bus Mask Pointer Standard Group <br> BMP Pointer <br> BMP Save1 Register <br> BMP Save2 Register <br> Bus Shifter <br> BS Standard Group Pointer <br> Bus Shifter Standard Group <br> Bus Shifter Selection Register <br> BS Save1 Register <br> BS Save2 Register <br> the BUS | 11 76 24 27 28 28 28 10 21 20 20 21 22 10 |
| CA <br> CAS <br> CASP <br> CB <br> CBS <br> CBSP | Counter A <br> Counter A Save Registers <br> Counter A Save Register Pointer <br> Counter B <br> Counter B Save Regsiters <br> Counter B Save Register Pointer | 8 9 9 92 92 93 |


| Abbreviation | Interpretation | Page |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| CISB <br> CS <br> CSB <br> CSP <br> CSSG <br> CSS1 <br> CSS2 <br> Cu <br> CUAL <br> CUALF | Carry-in Selection Bit <br> Common Shifter <br> Condition Selection Bits <br> CSSG Pointer <br> Common Shifter Standard Group <br> CSSG Save1 Register <br> CSSG Save2 Register <br> Control Unit <br> Control Unit Arithmetical Logical Unit <br> CUAL Function Register | 74 54 89 55 54 55 55 70 72 73 |
| DESTINA- <br> TION <br> DS | Bus Destination, BD Double Shifter | $\begin{aligned} & 11 \\ & 48 \end{aligned}$ |
| IA IAD IB IBD | Input Port A IA Device Register Input Port B IB Device Register | $\begin{aligned} & 61 \\ & 61 \\ & 61 \\ & 62 \end{aligned}$ |
| $\begin{aligned} & K A \\ & K B \end{aligned}$ | Control Panel Switch KA Control Panel Switch KB | $\begin{aligned} & 84 \\ & 84 \end{aligned}$ |
| $\begin{aligned} & \mathrm{KC} \\ & \mathrm{KD} \end{aligned}$ | Internal Flag KC Internal Flag KD |  |
| LA <br> LAP <br> LAS1 <br> LAS2 <br> LB <br> LBP <br> LBS1 <br> LBS2 <br> LR | Loading Masks A <br> LA Pointer <br> LA Save1 Register <br> LA Save 2 Register <br> Loading Masks B <br> LB Pointer <br> LB Save1 Register <br> LB Save2 Register <br> Local Registers | 56 56 58 58 56 58 58 58 38 |


| Abbreviation | Interpretation | Page |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| LRIP <br> LROP <br> LRP | Local Registers Input Pointer Local Registers Output Pointer LRIP and LROP | 38 38 40 |
| MA <br> MAP <br> MB <br> MBP <br> MS <br> MSA <br> MSAP <br> MSASG <br> MSA S1 <br> MSA S2 | Mask A Registers <br> MA Pointer <br> Mask B Registers <br> MB Pointer <br> Main Store <br> Main Store Address <br> MSASG Pointer <br> Main Store Address Standard Group <br> MSASG Save1 Register <br> MSASG Save2 Register | 25 26 25 27 93 93 94 94 95 95 |
| OA OAD OB OBD OC OCD OD ODD | Output Port A OA Device Register Output Port B OB Device Register Output Port C OC Device Register Output Port D OD Device Register | 64 64 64 65 64 65 64 65 |
| PA <br> PABP <br> FAP <br> PB <br> PBP <br> PG <br> PGP <br> PGSG <br> PGS <br> PGS1 <br> PGS2 <br> PM | Postshift Mask A Registers <br> Postshift AB Pointer <br> PA Pointer <br> Postshift Mask B Registers <br> PB Pointer <br> Postshift Mask Generator <br> PGSG Pointer <br> Postshift Mask Generator Standard Group <br> Postshift Mask Generation Selection Reg. <br> PGSG Save1 Register <br> PGSG Save2 Register <br> Postshift Masks | 30 33 33 99 100 30 33 33 32 33 33 28 |


| Abbreviation | Interpretation | Page |
| :--- | :--- | ---: |
| RA | Return Jump Stack A | 77 |
| RAP | Return Jump Stack A Pointer | 78 |
| RB | Return Jump Stack B | 77 |
| RBP | Return Jump Stack B Pointer | 81 |
| RG | Register Group | 6 |
| RGP | Register Group Pointer | 6 |
| SA | Save Address Register | 70 |
| SB | Shifted Bus | 10 |
| SG | Standard Group | 22 |
| "Shifters" | AS, VS, and DS | 50 |
| SOURCE | the input to the BUS | 11 |
| V | The Variable Bit | 41 |
| VS | Variable Width Shifter | 46 |
| WA | Working Registers A | 10 |
| WAG | Working Registers A Group Pointer | 97 |
| WAGS | WAG Save Registers | 97 |
| WAP | WA Pointer | 12 |
| WAPS | WA Pointer Save Registers | 13 |
| WAPSP | WAPS Pointer | 14 |
| WAU | Working Registers A Unit Pointer | 97 |
| WAUS | WAU Save Registers | 97 |
| WB | Working Registers B | 10 |
| WBP | WB Pointer | 14 |
| WBPS | WB Pointer Save Registers | 14 |
| WBPSP | WBPS Pointer |  |

List of Figures

| Figure no. | Title | Page |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 2. 1. | RIKKE 1 System | 5 |
| 2. 2. | Typical Register Group | 6 |
| 2. 3. | Counter A, CA | 8 |
| 2. 4. | Sub-system of the Bus Structure | 11 |
| 2. 5. | Working Registers, A, WA | 13 |
| 2. 6. | Bus Shifter, BS | 19 |
| 2.7. | Typical Standard Group | 22 |
| 2.8. | Expanded Bus Structure | 24 |
| 2.9. | Bus Masks, MA and MB | 25 |
| 2. 10. | Expanded Bus Structure | 29 |
| 2. 11. | Postshift Masks, PA and PG | 30 |
| 2. 12. | Arithmetical Logical Unit, AL | 35 |
| 2. 13. | Local Registers, LR | 39 |
| 2. 14. | Accumulator Shifter, AS | 41 |
| 2. 15. | Expanded Bus Structure | 44 |
| 2. 16. | Variable Width Shifter, VS | 47 |
| 2. 17. | Double Shifter, DS | 49 |
| 2. 18. | Expanded Bus Structure | 50 |
| 2. 19. | Counting Loop for Counting Number of Bit set to 1 in a Word | 52 |
| 2. 20. | AS, VS, and DS Control | 54 |
| 2. 21. | Expanded Bus Structure | 57 |
| 2. 22. | Loading Mask Registers A, LA | 58 |
| 2. 23. | Input Port A, IA | 61 |
| 2. 24. | Expanded Bus Structure | 63 |
| 2. 25. | Output Port A, OA | 64 |
| 2. 26. | RIKKE 1 Bus Structure | 67 |
| 2. 27. | Microinstruction Address Bus (Preliminary) | 71 |
| 2. 28. | Control Unit Arithmetical Logical Unit | 73 |
| 2. 29. | Return Jump Stack A, RA | 78 |
| 2. 30. | The Save Address Register, SA | 80 |
| 2. 31. | Microinstruction Address Bus (Detailed) | 82 |
| 2. 32. | Control Store | 83 |

List of Figures
(Continued)

| Figure no. | Title | Page |
| :--- | :--- | ---: |
| 2.33. | Internal Flag KC | 85 |
| 2.34. | Counter B, CB | 92 |
| 2.35. | Main Storage Address | 94 |
| 2.36. | Working Registers A, WA (Detailed) | 96 |
| 2.37. | Postshift Masks, PA, PB and PG | 100 |
| 3.1. | Microoperation and Data Field | 105 |

List of Tables

| Table no. | Title | Page |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 2. 1. | Microoperations for the control of an RG | 7 |
| 2. 2. | Microoperations for the control of CA | 9 |
| 2.3. | Microoperations for control of CAS and CASP | 10 |
| 2. 4. | Microoperations for control of WA and WB | 14 |
| 2. 5. | Microoperations for control of BS | 23 |
| 2. 6. | Microoperations for control of the BM. | 28 |
| 2. 7. | Table representing the READ-ONLY-MEMORY containing the 32 Masks for the PG | 31 |
| 2. 8. | Source of Data for Postshift Mask Generation | 32 |
| 2.9. | Microoperations for the control of PM | 33 |
| 2. 10. | AL Functions | 36 |
| 2. 11. | Microoperations for control of the AL | 37 |
| 2. 12. | Microoperations for control of the LR | 40 |
| 2. 13. | Microoperations for control of the AS | 43 |
| 2. 14. | Microoperations for control of the VS | 47 |
| 2. 15. | Microoperations for control of the DS | 49 |
| 2. 16. | Microoperations for control of CS SG | 55 |
| 2. 17. | Parallel CS Microoperations | 55 |
| 2. 18. | Microoperations for control of LA and LB | 58 |
| 2. 19. | Microoperations for control of IA and IB | 62 |
| 2. 20. | Microoperations for control of OA and OC | 65 |
| 2. 21. | Microoperations for loading of OC and OD | 65 |
| 2. 22. | Microinstruction Address Sources | 70 |
| 2.23. | Carry-in Selection | 73 |
| 2. 24. | B data Selection | 76 |
| 2. 25. | Microoperations for control of RA | 78 |
| 2. 26. | Microoperations for control of SA | 80 |
| 2. 27. | Microoperations associated with the Control Unit | 81 |
| 2. 28. | Microoperations for KC and KD | 85 |
| 2. 29. | Condition List | 87 |
| 2. 30. | Microoperations for control of CB, CBS and CBSP | 93 |

List of Tables
(Continued)

| Table no. | Title | Page |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 2. 31. | Microoperations for MSA, MSASG, MSAP | 95 |
| 2. 32. | Microoperations for control of the WAU/WBU |  |
|  | and WAG/WBG Pointer | 97 |
| 2. 33. | Microoperations for control of WAUS |  |
|  | and WAGS | 98 |
| 2. 34. | Additional WA and WB Conditions | 99 |
| 2. 35. | Microoperations for control of PB | 101 |
| 2. 36. | Microoperations for control of PABP | 101 |
| 3. 1. | Symbolic and Binary Notation for SOURCE's |  |
|  | and BD's | 104 |
| 3. 2. | Symbolic and Binary Notations for $A_{t}$ and $A_{p}$ | 107 |
| 3. 3. | Shift/Load Control Bits | 109 |

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I. Title.


[^0]:    * The width of the registers depends on the particular selector involved.

[^1]:    *) At the moment undefined

[^2]:    *) The value of the fourth input is undefined

[^3]:    *) Undef.

[^4]:    *) Undefined.

[^5]:    mops $=$ microoperations

[^6]:    *) The microoperations are divided into two classes those with $C p=1$ and those with $\mathrm{Cp}=2$. This defines exactly when the microoperation is initiated.

