

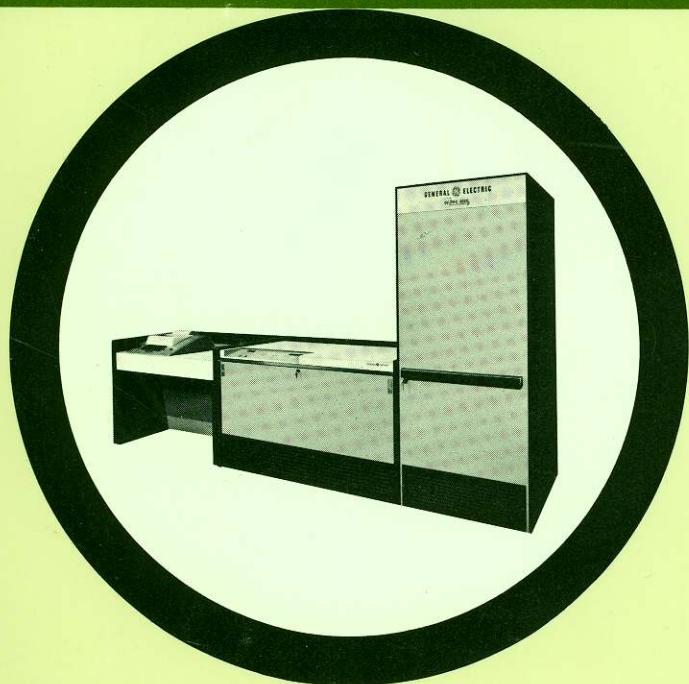
Box 4

GET-3471

# GE PAC\* 4020

COMPACT COMPUTER FOR PROCESS CONTROL

# PROGRAMMING MANUAL



GENERAL  ELECTRIC

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# INTRODUCTION

## SCOPE

This manual will familiarize the GE-PAC 4020 programmer with the registers, commands and techniques used to solve the computational and logical portions of typical process control computing problems.

All input/output functions in the GE-PAC 4020 computer are performed by the Real-Time Multi-programming Operating System (RTMOS). RTMOS does the actual code conversion, queuing, diagnosing, and machine-level I/O work. The philosophy and functions of RTMOS are described on page 5 of this manual. For the details of RTMOS, consult the GE-PAC 4020 RTMOS manual (YPG 53M). This and other manuals of interest to the GE-PAC 4020 programmer are described below:

1. The Instruction Reference Manual - YPG10M. This manual shows the detailed instruction formats, the octal operation codes, the timing, the effects on each register, and other details of each PAL instruction, arranged alphabetically.
2. The GE-PAC Process FORTRAN Manual - YPG14M. This publication presents a second language in which the GE-PAC 4020 computer may be programmed. It assumes a knowledge of basic off-line FORTRAN and concentrates on the added features and capabilities of GE-PAC Process FORTRAN.
3. The GE-PAC 4020 System Manual - GET-3460. This manual covers the characteristics, specifications and machine-level programming details of input/output subsystems and devices, as well as remote communications between GE-PAC remote scanners and other computers.

## FEATURES AND CHARACTERISTICS

The GE-PAC 4020 computer follows in the tradition of earlier GE-PAC 4000 series central processors (the 4040, 4050, and 4060) and extracts from them those elements proved by experience to be of most value in process control and general

computational work. Combining these features with the higher speeds, reduced size and simplified construction possible with monolithic integrated circuits, the GE-PAC 4020 computer offers an unequalled combination of speed, ease of programming, reliability, and attractive environmental and mechanical characteristics.

The GE-PAC 4020 computer offers the user GE-PAC Process FORTRAN as well as Process Assembler Language, called PAL. Where running time and memory requirements are not critical, the programmer can enjoy the ease of coding, documentation and program modification inherent in Process FORTRAN. Alternatively, the programmer can gain the advantages of assembly-level programming — maximum efficiency in running time and program size and maximum control of machine operations. The programmer may also mix PAL and Process FORTRAN on a statement-by-statement basis and take advantage of the best features of each language.

The GE-PAC 4020 computer's 24-bit word and extensive command repertoire help it perform any given function in less memory and less time than competitive short-word machines. The 24-bit word can directly address up to 16,384 core locations with one instruction, can hold two 12-bit process readings or limits, and provides precise single- or double-word floating-point arithmetic capability. Even fixed-point arithmetic is comparatively easy to program thanks to the simplicity of long-word scaling.

Related GE products compatible with the GE-PAC 4020 computer include the GE 100, 200, 400 and 600-series business (and scientific) computer systems, GE-MAC\* instruments, GE-TAC telemetering and remote supervisory equipment, Directo-Matic\* II wired program analog and digital control systems, Mark Century numerical control, X-ray emission gauges, and the full line of GE communication and microwave products. To meld these products into systems, several organizational components of General Electric such as the Industrial Process Control Division, the Internal Management Operation, and the Industrial Drive Systems Division have the application engineers and knowhow to provide working systems on schedule and within budget.

\*Reg. trademark of General Electric Co.



# INTERNAL ORGANIZATION OF THE CENTRAL PROCESSOR

GE-PAC 4020 computer systems are organized as shown in Figure 1. The following discussion examines each functional block in more detail.

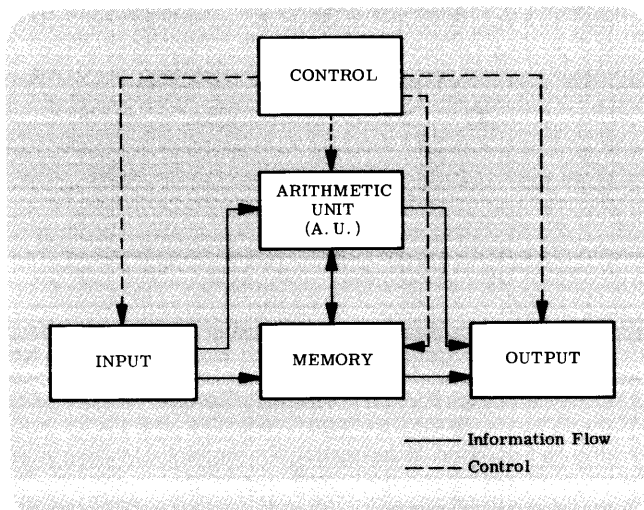


Figure 1

## CONTROL

The control function governs the operation of system hardware. Knowledge of its operation is seldom necessary to a programmer.

## MEMORY

The GE-PAC 4020 central processor includes a fast access (1.6  $\mu$ s) magnetic core memory, which is available in 8K, 12K, 16K, 24K or 32K sizes. Each word contains 24 bits of information, plus an additional odd-parity bit which is generated when the word is written in core and checked upon retrieval.

As an auxiliary to core memory, bulk storage devices are normally used to provide storage for large volumes of programs and data when they are not required in core. The following bulk storage devices are available with the GE-PAC 4020 computer system:

- **Magnetic Drum**  
 capacity - 16,384 to 262,144 words per controller  
 typical access time - 8.3 ms  
 maximum access time - 16.6 ms  
 transfer rate - 15,360 or 30,720 24-bit words per second

- **Magnetic Disc**  
 capacity - 1,048,576 to 8,388,608 words per controller  
 typical access time - 87 ms  
 maximum access time - 180 ms  
 transfer rate - 40,960 24-bit words per second

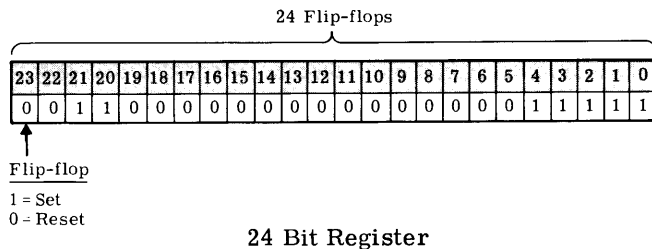
- **Magnetic Tape**  
 available in standard speeds and packing densities

All of these devices communicate directly with core memory. Odd parity is generated and checked by drum and magnetic tape controllers to insure reliable data transfer. The disc controller generates and verifies checksums of both addresses and data.

## ARITHMETIC UNIT

All arithmetic and logical data manipulation takes place within the arithmetic unit, which also performs medium-speed input and output.

To perform these functions, the programmer uses registers in the arithmetic unit. A register is a group of related flip-flops, each of which can hold either a one or a zero. If a flip-flop is set, it contains a one; if it is reset, it contains a zero.



This method of showing the contents of registers will be used throughout this manual — the shaded portion indicates the relative position of the flip-flop, or bit, within the word; the unshaded portion indicates the state of that bit (zero, or one).

Shown below is a simplified diagram of the principal registers in the arithmetic unit and an explanation of their purpose.

**B register** — a 24-bit (flip-flop) register which acts as a buffer between core memory and the arithmetic unit.

**A register** — also 24 bits long; the computer's primary data register. Most commands affect its contents.

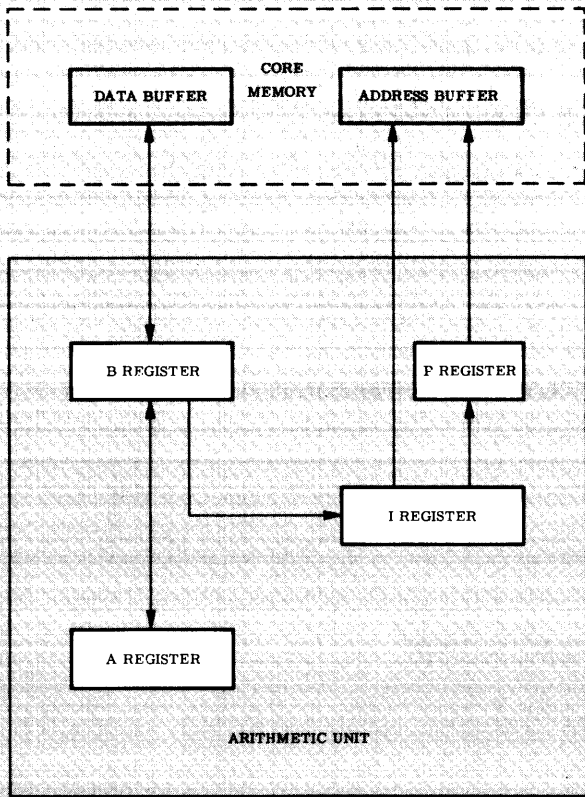


Figure 2

Q location (not shown) — a 24-bit memory location that acts as an extension of the A register.

I register — a 25-bit register; holds the instructions during their execution.

P register — a 15-bit register; holds the address of the next instruction to be executed.

Besides these arithmetic unit registers, there are also seven index, or X, locations, which are core locations one through seven. These aid in the execution of program loops.

## INPUT AND OUTPUT

The GE-PAC 4020 computer permits I/O from memory through two types of channels: direct memory access channels and medium-speed channels through the arithmetic unit. Direct memory access channels permit data transfer to and from core memory at a maximum speed of 625,000 words per second. Because these channels are so fast, they are normally used only for the transfer of data between core and bulk memory, and between core memory and the arithmetic unit.

Since direct memory access channels require complex controllers and are needed only for the efficient operation of high-speed peripherals and bulk storage devices, most I/O devices use medium-speed I/O channels through the arithmetic unit. These channels transfer information into or out of core memory through the B register of the arithmetic unit at maximum speeds of 29,000 or 56,000 words per second. These channels may be dedicated to a single, medium-speed device, or shared by several lower-speed devices through an I/O buffer as shown in Figure 3. This arithmetic unit I/O arrangement coupled with unique TIM/TOM (Table Input to Memory/Table Output from Memory) hardware enables the GE-PAC 4020 computer to drive the peripherals simultaneously at full-rated speed, while requiring a minimum of central processor time.

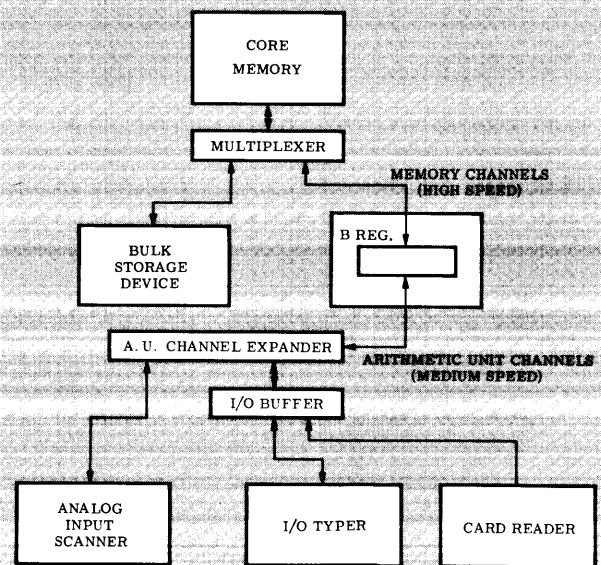


Figure 3

Process I/O subsystems or programmer peripherals can also communicate with the GE-PAC 4020 computer by means of its A register. This feature is used only for a few special functions and for situations where compatibility with the earlier GE-PAC 4040 machine is important, because it requires much more central processor time than the normal TIM/TOM operations.

# THE REAL-TIME MULTIPROGRAMMING OPERATING SYSTEM

There are two general types of software in a GE-PAC 4020 system — a process control system and an operating system. The process control system usually consists of many functional programs which perform the brainwork necessary to control a particular process. They typically examine inputs, perform computational and logical operations, and call for output. Functional programs vary in importance, some being more critical to system operation than others.

Operating systems vary significantly in scope and efficiency. They may only consist of a program to schedule the running of functional programs, or they may also perform a variety of other functions. The GE-PAC 4020 Real-Time Multiprogramming Operating System is the most complete process control operating system available today. RTMOS consists of a custom-tailored combination of standard program modules that correspond to the peripherals, subsystems, and functions of a particular system. A typical RTMOS schedules the running of programs, determines which programs should be in core at a given time, supervises process, peripheral, and bulk I/O, and performs a number of other useful functions to aid the programmer and increase the efficiency and reliability of the system. The philosophy and functions of the RTMOS are described briefly below. Consult the GE-PAC 4020 RTMOS manual (YPG53M) for further information.

## PHILOSOPHY AND FUNCTIONS OF RTMOS

In the RTMOS multiprogramming environment, each functional program is assigned a priority relative to all other programs. Programs generally reside on bulk memory (drum or disc) until brought into core to be run.

An on-line snapshot of the GE-PAC 4020 computer's core memory at a given instant would reveal an unpredictable combination of programs in various stages of completion. One would be using the arithmetic unit, one might be coming in from bulk memory, and the others would either be awaiting their turn or using peripherals or process input/output devices.

This mode of operation assures a high load factor on all system resources — central processor speed, core capacity, bulk transfer and I/O speeds — and also assures that the system is working on the most important combination of programs.

RTMOS decides what mixture of programs to have in core and which one to execute on the basis of time, events and program priorities. It reviews this

critical decision every time one of three things happens: 1/4 second passes; a bulk/core transfer is completed; or a functional program finishes.

The highest priority program that wants to run and is in core gets control of the central processor and keeps it until it calls for input/output, delays itself, shuts itself off, or until the RTMOS finds that another program has become more important.

In some cases, RTMOS may decide to overwrite low-priority programs and use their core area to run a higher-priority program. Before overwriting a program RTMOS will save selected registers and, if necessary, any intermediate data used by the program and store this on bulk memory. It does not waste time, however, by rewriting the entire program back onto bulk. After the high priority work is done, RTMOS reloads the overwritten programs from bulk memory, restores all registers and intermediate data, and continues where it left off.

Flexibility is the hallmark of RTMOS. The programmer can decide — statically or dynamically — the relative priority of his program, whether he wants to permit it to be interrupted or overwritten, how much temporary storage he wants to save, and whether or not it should be executed from a fixed core area. By adjusting all these and other parameters, the programmer can optimize system performance.

RTMOS takes care of these input/output functions: data or new program input from cards or paper tape; process instrument readings; analog and contact process control inputs and outputs; printed and punched outputs; and functions of GE-PAC Remote Scanners.

RTMOS also permits running programs to delay themselves, shut themselves off, share data areas, and run large bulk-resident subroutines.

The GE-PAC 4020 programmer instructs RTMOS to perform these functions by inserting special calling sequences at appropriate points in his program, saving himself time, work and confusion while assuring high overall system efficiency and performance.

An on-line operator package is also available with the RTMOS. This allows on-line access to memory through an input/output typewriter. It permits on-line core dumps, loading, and, with its on-line memory change capability, allows the operator to turn programs on or off and make other system modifications.





# GE-PAC PROGRAMMING LANGUAGES

A program is a group of instructions describing a task to be performed by a computer. Since the computer cannot interpret words and sentences, instructions must be presented to it in the form of binary numbers. Since it would be a formidable exercise to write programs in binary, assembly languages like PAL exist to make programming easier.

PAL is one step removed from binary code. It is a symbolic language meaningful to the programmer and, with some decoding, to the computer. The decoding is done by a computer program called an assembler which translates PAL coding into binary instructions and constants for the computer.

To make programming even easier, compiler languages like Process FORTRAN have been developed. Process FORTRAN allows programmers to write in a simple English/engineering language. GE-PAC Process FORTRAN includes powerful bit test and bit manipulation instructions. It is possible to mix PAL and Process FORTRAN statements to take advantage of the best features of each language.

Process FORTRAN programs are translated into PAL by a program called a compiler. The resulting PAL program is then translated into binary machine code by the assembler. Since this manual deals with programming in PAL, consult the GE-PAC FORTRAN Reference Manual for detailed Process FORTRAN information.

The GE-PAC 4020 computer uses binary machine code, PAL, and Process FORTRAN. The sequence in which these languages are decoded is shown in Figure 4. System programs are written in PAL, Process FORTRAN, or a combination of the two. The following sections describe the PAL instruction repertoire and some of its uses.

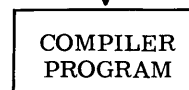
Before beginning these sections it may be helpful to review flow-charting and computer number systems since they will be referred to throughout the manual. The Special Discussion section in the back of the manual provides adequate review material.

Problem:  $Y = (A \cdot B + C \cdot D) / E$

Process FORTRAN statement . . .

$Y = (A * B + C * D) / E$

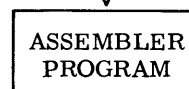
is translated by the compiler into . . .



a group of PAL statements . . .

LDA A  
FMP B  
STA J  
LDA C  
FMP D  
FAD J  
FDV E  
STA Y

which are translated by the assembler into . . .



000 000 000 001 111 000 110 100  
111 010 000 010 110 010 001 100

binary numbers . . .

⋮  
⋮  
⋮  
011 010 000 000 110 111 010 101

which can then be used by the computer.

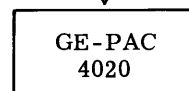


Figure 4. Simplified Compilation and Assembly Procedure



# PROGRAMMING IN PAL

## GENERAL RULES

PAL programs are written on the GE-PAC Language Statement Coding Form shown in Figure 5. One instruction is written on each line of this form. Once a program is written, it is keypunched onto data processing cards and processed by the GE-PAC 4020 PAL assembler program. The output of this program is a list of binary-coded instructions and data which are executed when the program is run.

Uses of the various fields of the coding form are described below.

**LOCATION FIELD (Columns 1-6)** - The location field associates a name with the address of the instruction or data written on that line. Names used in the location field may consist of up to six alphanumeric characters starting in column one. The first character must be alphabetic. Numbers, letters, and decimal points are the only characters normally used in a location name. A name may be defined only once in the location field of each program.

An asterisk (\*) in column one of the coding form indicates that the rest of the line is a comment by the programmer and will not be interpreted by the assembler.

Example:

```
*   SCANNER VALIDITY CHECK
C 3 1 7
PT 0 4
```

**LOCATION CLASSIFICATION (Column 7)** - If this column is blank, the name in the location field is assigned a relative value; if Column 7 contains a minus sign (-), the name is assigned a specific, absolute value.

If an asterisk (\*) appears in column seven, the name in the location field is assigned an absolute value, and the name is added to the common system symbol table.

GENERAL ELECTRIC PROCESS COMPUTER BUSINESS SECTION PHOENIX, ARIZONA		GE/PAC LANGUAGE STATEMENT CODING FORM		Project Name		PROCESSOR KEYS					
				Program Name		0-DELETE					
				Page	of	Date	6-PAL				
				Programmer		7-FORTRAN					
LOCATION	* OP CODE	OPERAND						KEY	Proj. #	Prog. #	Sequence #
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24
25	26	27	28	29	30	31	32	33	34	35	36
37	38	39	40	41	42	43	44	45	46	47	48
49	50	51	52	53	54	55	56	57	58	59	60
61	62	63	64	65	66	67	68	69	70	71	72
73	74	75	76	77	78	79	80				
0											
1											
2											
3											
4											
5											
6											
7											
0											
1											
2											
3											
4											
5											
6											
7											

PC 511 (4-68) \*REG. TRADEMARK OF THE GENERAL ELECTRIC COMPANY

Figure 5. GE-PAC Coding Form

OP CODE FIELD (Columns 8 - 10) - This field contains the two or three character instruction code which identifies the operation to be performed.

Example:

```
LDA
AKA
SUB
```

OPERAND FIELD (Columns 12 - 69) - The operand field contains the information required by the instruction in the OP CODE field. The operand field may contain any of the following types of parameters:

- LABEL - Same as permitted in location field
- DECIMAL - A decimal integer value
- OCTAL - An octal integer value, preceded by a slash (/).

EXPRESSIONS - An operand may be composed of one or a combination of the parameters described above. These are combined using the following operators: + add, \* multiply, - subtract, / divide. Expressions are evaluated by the PAL assembly program.

The meaning of asterisk or slash depends upon its relationship to the other parameters. For example, an asterisk represents multiplication only if it is connecting two parameters. Otherwise, it indicates the address of the instruction in which it appears, for use in relative addressing. The slash indicates an octal value when it precedes a numeric parameter; otherwise it is a division sign.

The first blank space in the operand field terminates the assembly of the instruction. Characters appearing after the first blank space are treated as comments.

Example:

```
TEMP 1      } LABELS
PTØ ZZ     }
999        } DECIMAL
0          } DECIMAL
           } INTEGERS
/77776     } OCTAL
/24        } OCTAL
           } INTEGERS
PØINT+10   } EXPRESSIONS
NEXT-1/2   }
VALUE+1    }
```

KEY (Language Identification - Column 70) - must contain a seven if the statement is written in GE-PAC Process FORTRAN; a six if it is a PAL statement.

PROJ. #, PROG. #, SEQUENCE # - may be used for identification or left blank.

```
6 or 7 → 04 LBJ    10
        → 04 LBJ    20
        → 04 LBJ    30
```

# PAL PSEUDO-INSTRUCTIONS

Before a PAL program is run it must be translated into binary machine language by the assembler. It is frequently necessary to tell the assembler to define constants, build storage areas, etc. This is done with pseudo-instructions. Pseudo-instructions are executed only when the program is assembled.

The following pseudo-instructions are commonly used.

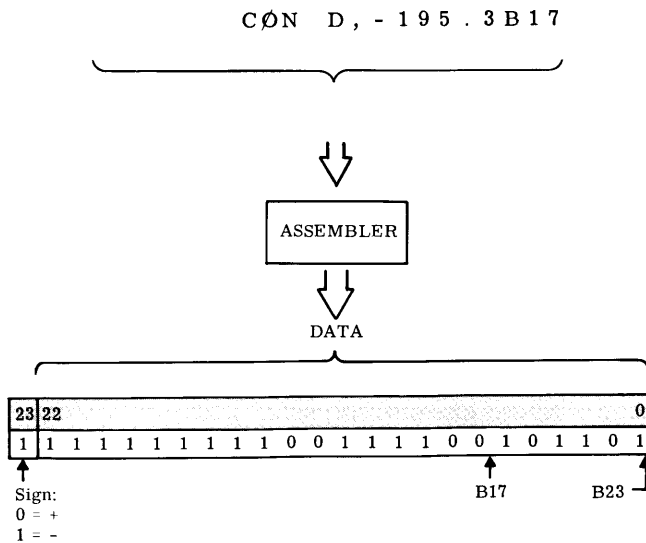
## SINGLE-WORD CONSTANTS

Single-word decimal constants are created in a program with the following pseudo-instruction.

CON D, (decimal number) (scale factor)

**FIXED POINT DECIMAL CONSTANT** - The number specified in this statement is converted by the assembler into a binary fixed point number in the word format shown below. The CON D pseudo-instruction is removed from the program after the conversion has been made. The resulting data are stored in its place. Negative numbers are represented in two's complement form.

Example:



The B factor, or scale factor\*, indicates where the data are to be positioned within the word. If B is not specified it is assumed to be B23.

This conversion is done only once, when the assembler executes a CON D pseudo-instruction. The constant generated by the instruction is the only thing used by the computer when it runs the program.

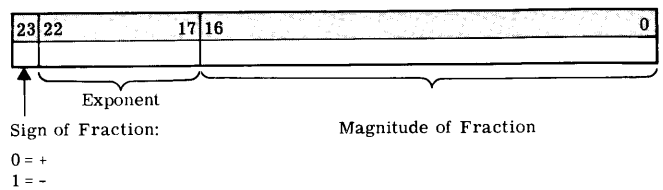
\*See page 22 for discussion of scaling.

Examples:

```
CON D, 3 9 7 5
CON D, 3 5 . 0 4 B 1 7
```

CON F, (decimal number)

**FLOATING CONSTANT** - The number specified is converted to a binary floating-point number and placed in a format as shown below.



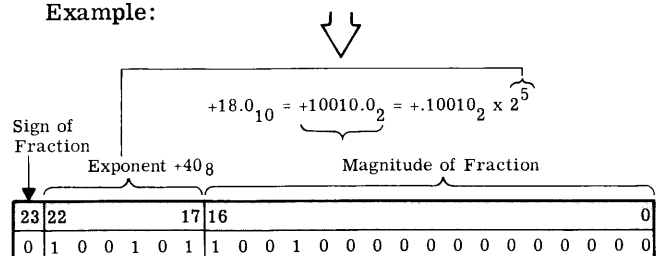
The fraction field contains the normalized (left justified) fraction in binary form.

The exponent field contains the binary exponent of the fraction. Since this field has no sign bit, 40<sub>8</sub> is considered to be an exponent of zero; 41<sub>8</sub> through 77<sub>8</sub> represent positive exponents; and 0<sub>8</sub> through 37<sub>8</sub> represent negative exponents. This is illustrated in the table below. Zero in floating point is represented by all zeroes.

EXPONENT	VALUE IN EXPONENT FIELD
2	42 <sub>8</sub>
1	41 <sub>8</sub>
0	40 <sub>8</sub>
-1	37 <sub>8</sub>
-2	36 <sub>8</sub>
.	

CON F, 18

Example:



Since most decimal/binary conversion is performed by the assembler and RTMOS, the programmer uses it only in those few instances when he must examine numbers at the binary level.

**Examples:**

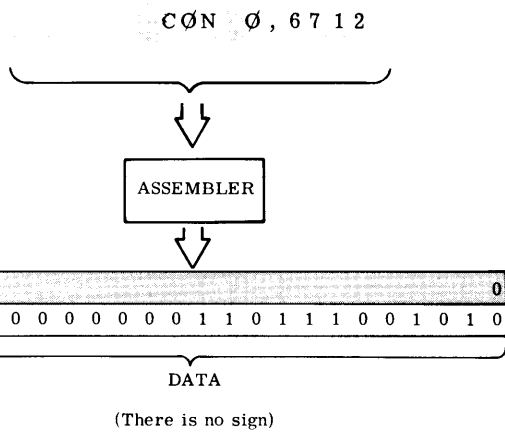
```

CØN F, . 1 2 E 5    (.12E5 = .12 x 10+5)
CØN F, 9
CØN F, - 8 . 1 4 E - 2
  
```

The following pseudo-instruction is frequently used to set up a desired bit pattern in a word.

**CON O, (octal number)**

**OCTAL CONSTANT** - The octal number specified is converted to binary by the assembler and placed in the format shown below. Octal constants must be unsigned octal integers. A maximum of eight octal digits (one 24-bit word) may be defined by a single CON O.



**Examples:**

```

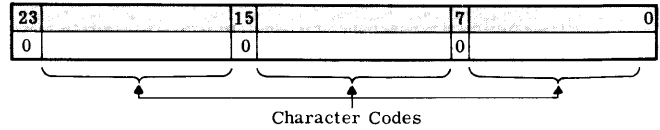
CØN O, 6
CØN O, 3 1
CØN O, 7 7 7 7 7 7
  
```

It is often necessary to insert alphanumeric constants into your program to explain information output from the computer. To have the computer type out 92.3 is meaningless. It needs to be explained with a statement. When the computer types out "TEMPERATURE OUTSIDE IS 92.3 DEGREES" the number becomes meaningful. These explanatory statements are supplied with alphanumeric constants by the pseudo-instruction described below. The use of this pseudo-instruction is explained in the RTMOS manual.

**CON A,(no. of characters),(characters)**

**ALPHANUMERIC CONSTANT** - The assembler translates these characters into the American Standard Code for Information Interchange (ASCII) and packs them three per 24-bit word.

The format for packing characters is shown below.



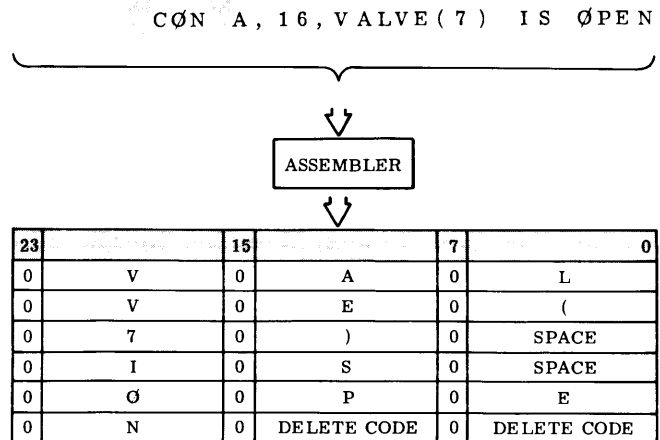
Since a maximum of three characters may be packed into a single word, a single CON A may generate several words of information. Always specify the number of characters to be represented. A maximum of 51 characters is allowed in a single CON A statement. However, several CON A statements may be strung together to form longer messages.

**Example:**

CON A, 16, VALVE(7) IS OPEN

Number of characters
Alphanumeric characters  
(including spaces)

To accommodate this statement the computer generates six sequential words of data as shown below. Incomplete words are filled out with delete codes.



**EQUIVALENCE**

Since many programmers find it easier to remember symbolic names than numbers, PAL includes the following pseudo-instruction to assign a value to a symbol without having to define it as an instruction label.

(symbol) EQL (integer number)

**ASSIGN A SYMBOLIC EQUIVALENCE** - Whenever the assembler finds that symbol in the program, it uses the numeric value assigned to it in place of the symbol. A symbol may be equated to another symbol as long as the symbol on the right is pre-defined in the program.

Examples:

```
START EQL 20
A EQL /732
POINT EQL /6320
```

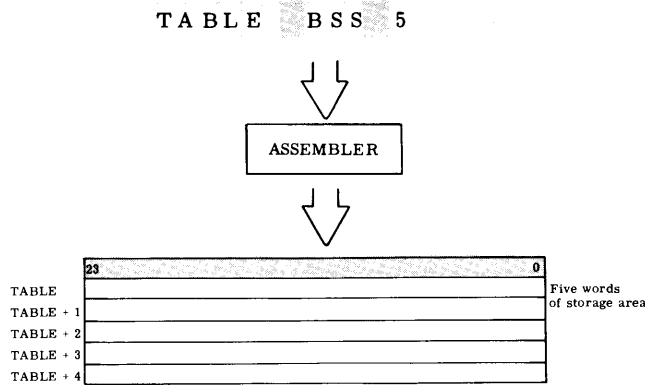
## GENERATING BLOCK STORAGE

Programs frequently generate data which must be stored somewhere. The following pseudo-instruction instructs the assembler to generate this storage area.

BSS K

**BLOCK STORAGE RESERVATION** - This pseudo-instruction causes the assembler to reserve K words of storage area beginning at the location of the BSS word.

Example:



## SPECIFYING PROGRAM STARTING ADDRESSES

GE-PAC 4020 programs may be immediately preceded by a pseudo-instruction indicating where

the program is initially to be placed. All-core systems use the ORG pseudo-instruction to do this. On systems with a drum or disc the DCW pseudo-instruction is normally used. These are explained below.

ORG (starting address)

**PROGRAM STARTING ADDRESS** - This pseudo-instruction causes the assembler to specify for the loader program the starting core address of the program.

DCW (bulk address), 0

**PROGRAM STARTING ADDRESS** - In a bulk/core system programs are usually loaded onto the drum or disc and brought into core just before they are run. This pseudo-instruction causes the assembler to specify for the loader program the beginning drum or disc address where the program is to be stored.

## ENDING PAL PROGRAMS

END

**END OF PROGRAM** - Tells the assembler to stop. There must be an END statement after the last word of a PAL program, in columns 8 - 10 of the coding form.

## OTHER PSEUDO-INSTRUCTIONS

The following pseudo-instructions are described in the Appendix.

DCN

**DOUBLE WORD CONSTANT** - Generates double word decimal, octal, or floating-point constants. The GENERAL constant is also discussed.

SLW

**SLEW PRINTER PAGE** - Shifts printer to next page when the assembly listing is printed.

DEF

DEFINE - Used to define new operations.

GEN

**GENERATE DUPLICATES** - Generates duplicate PAL instructions to save repetitive coding.





# PAL FUNCTIONAL INSTRUCTIONS

## LOADING AND STORING

Most PAL instructions operate on data located in the A register and/or the Q location. A and Q also hold the results of these operations. The following instructions are used to transfer information from core memory to A and/or Q before an operation, and to store the results back into core afterward.

LDA Y

LOAD A WITH C(Y) — The contents of core location Y, C(Y), are copied into the A register. The C(Y) are not changed.

STA Y

STORE C(A) IN Y — The contents of the A register are copied into core location Y. The C(A) are not changed.

LDQ Y

LOAD Q WITH C(Y) — The contents of core location Y are copied into location Q. The C(Y) are not changed.

STQ Y

STORE C(Q) IN Y — The contents of location Q are copied into location Y. The C(Q) are not changed.

Greater precision in arithmetic operations may be obtained using double-word operations. In these cases both the A and Q are combined to make up a 47-bit double-word. The following two instructions are used for the transfer of double-words to and from core memory.

DLD Y

DOUBLE LENGTH LOAD — The contents of core locations Y and Y+1 are copied into A and Q respectively. The C(Y) and the C(Y+1) do not change.

DST Y

DOUBLE LENGTH STORE — The contents of A and Q are copied into core locations Y and Y+1. The C(A) and the C(Q) do not change.

## MEMORY ADDRESSING TECHNIQUES

Each 24-bit word in core memory has a unique address. In order to bring a word into a register to operate upon its contents it is necessary to specify its address. For example, if 'Y' specifies the exact address of a word in core memory, we may bring that word into the A Register with the following instruction:

LDA Y

This technique is called direct, or absolute, addressing. It is used primarily for communication with RTMOS, and other areas of permanent core memory. Besides direct addressing there are three other methods of addressing core: relative addressing, which is used within functional programs; automatic index modification, which is used to access elements of a table; and indirect addressing, which is rarely used.

## Direct Addressing

In direct addressing of core memory, the number, symbol or expression in the operand field of a PAL statement refers directly to the address of the desired 24-bit word.

It is possible to directly address the first 16,384 words of core memory. Since the RTMOS resides at fixed locations in this area, all communications with it use direct addressing. Direct addressing is also used in program intercommunication, described on page 55.

Examples:

```
LDA / 1 4 3 7 2      C (/14372) → A Register
LDA VALVE - 1      } C (/1000) → A Register
VALVE EQL / 1 0 0 1 }
```

## Relative Addressing

In relative addressing, the number, symbol, or expression in the operand field specifies a core location relative to the address of the instruction being executed.

Relative addressing permits the addressing of 8191 locations above and 8192 locations below the point in core memory at which the instruction using it is located. It may be explicitly called for by placing an asterisk in the operand field of an instruction (normally in column 12). In this case, the number, symbol, or expression in the operand field is added at execution time to the address of the instruction, so that the result specifies the desired core address.

Examples:

```
LDA * + 2      — This operand references .
-----
-----
-----
-----
-----
LDA * - 2      — This operand references .
```

← The word at this location

← this location ←

Most functional programs use relative addressing for addresses within themselves, so that they may run correctly from any area of core memory. This capability is integral to the power of the RTMOS.

To maximize the use of relative addressing, the PAL assembler program generates relative addresses whenever possible.

Example:

The assembler will interpret this coding . . .

```
      LDA ITEM
      ---
ITEM  CONF, 6
```

as if we had written this . . .

```
      LDA * + 2
      ---
      CONF, 6
```

### Automatic Address Modification

The GE-PAC 4020 Computer uses seven index locations called "X" locations which are core locations one through seven. The first two are used for special purposes; the other five are available for general use.

In automatic address modification, the content of an X location, specified at the end of the statement, is added to the location specified by the number, symbol, or expression in the operand field. The sum of these specify the address of the desired word. Only one X location may be specified in a single statement.

Examples: Where  $C(4) = /10$ , and the LDA instruction is at core address /10000

```
      LDA /20000, 4      C(/20010)→A Register
      LDA /16700, 4      C(/16710)→A Register
      LDA * + 2, 4       C(/10012)→A Register
```

A list of instructions that may use automatic address modification is included in the GE-PAC 4000 Instruction Reference Manual.

The primary use for automatic address modification is in looping through tables of data. This is discussed on page 43. There are also many other uses for indexed addressing and X locations that will become apparent later on.

The following instructions may be used to load and store the contents of X locations.

**LDX Y, X**

**LOAD INDEX LOCATION X WITH THE C(Y)** — The contents of core location Y are copied into the index location specified by X. The C(Y) are unchanged.

**STX Y, X**

**STORE C(X) INTO Y** — The contents of the index location specified are copied into core location Y. The C(X) are unchanged.

## Indirect Addressing

Indirect addressing is seldom necessary in programming the GE-PAC 4020 computer because of its extensive direct and relative addressing capabilities. When indirect addressing is desirable, the following two instructions are used.

### LDI Y

LOAD A INDIRECTLY — The rightmost 15-bits of the word in core location Y refer to a core memory location Z. The contents of core location Z are copied into the A register. The C(Y) and C(Z) are unchanged. Indexing and relative addressing, if used in the LDI instruction, are completed prior to fetching C(Y). If bit 18 of the word at location Y is set to one, the address specified within Y is relative to location Y.

### STI Y

STORE A INDIRECTLY — The first 15-bits of the word in core location Y refer to a core location Z. The contents of this core location are replaced by the contents of the A register. The C(Y) and C(A) are unchanged. Indexing and relative addressing, when used in the LDI instruction, are completed prior to fetching Y. If bit 18 of the word at location Y is set to one, the address specified within Y is relative to location Y.

Indirect addressing is usually used to access areas of core memory above 16K. To do this the programmer specifies the location he wants in one core location and then addresses it indirectly. Since other addressing techniques are as powerful and more simply applied, indirect addressing is seldom used.

## ARITHMETIC OPERATIONS

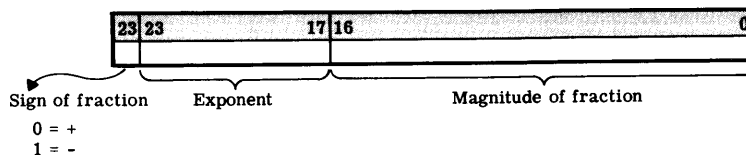
Add, subtract, multiply, and divide are the four arithmetic instructions used by the GE-PAC 4020 computer. They may be performed in either floating-point or fixed-point arithmetic. Because it is the simplest to use, floating-point is discussed first.

### Floating-Point (Single-Word Precision)

Floating-point numbers are expressed as fractions raised to a power of ten, as opposed to fixed-point numbers which are expressed as decimals or integers.

<u>Fixed Point</u>	=	<u>Floating Point</u>
+18346	=	+ .18346 X 10 <sup>+5</sup>
+18.346	=	+ .18346 x 10 <sup>+2</sup>
-.0018346	=	-.18346 x 10 <sup>-2</sup>

At assembly time, decimal floating-point numbers are converted to binary floating-point form and stored in the format shown below.



A detailed explanation of this format is shown on page 11. However, since most decimal/binary conversion is done by the assembler and RTMOS, knowledge of formats is necessary only in those few instances when the programmer must examine numbers at the binary level.

Single-word floating-point arithmetic allows expression of numbers in a range of  $\pm 2.15 \times 10^{\pm 9}$  with five decimal place precision.

The following instructions are used in floating-point arithmetic calculations. All numbers used in floating-point calculations must be in floating-point form.

**FAD Y**

**FLOATING ADD** — The contents of location Y are added to the contents of the A register. The result is placed in the A register. The C(Y) are not changed.

**FSU Y**

**FLOATING SUBTRACT** — The contents of location Y are subtracted from the contents of the A register. The result is placed in the A register. The C(Y) are not changed.

**FMP Y**

**FLOATING MULTIPLY** — The contents of location Y are multiplied by the contents of the A register. The result is placed in the A register. The C(Y) are not changed.

**FDV Y**

**FLOATING DIVIDE** — The contents of the A register are divided by the contents of location Y. The result is placed in the A register. The C(Y) are not changed.

Example:

LDA FC 5	5 → A reg	
FSU FC 3	5 - 3 = 2 → A reg	
FAD FC 8	2 + 8 = 10 → A reg	
FMP FC 6	10 * 6 = 60 → A reg	
FDV FC 3	60 / 3 = 20 → A reg	
STA TEMP	C (A reg) → TEMP	

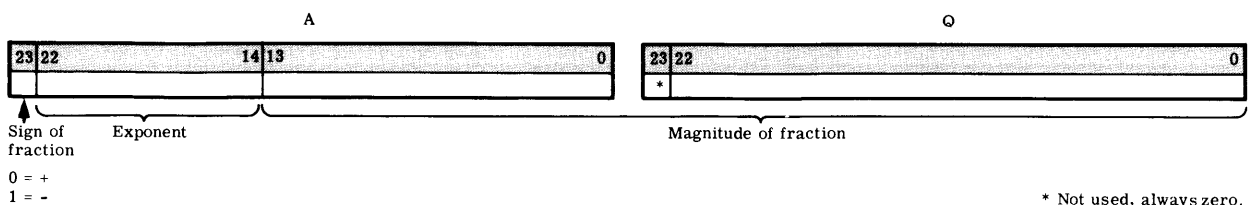
  

FC 5	CØN F, 5	} DEFINITION OF CONSTANTS AND STORAGE
FC 3	CØN F, 3	
FC 8	CØN F, 8	
FC 6	CØN F, 6	
TEMP	BSS 1	

Floating-Point (Double-Word Precision)

Greater arithmetic precision may be obtained using double-word floating-point operations. Double-word operations permit expression of numbers over a range of  $\pm 5.8 \times 10^{\pm 76}$ , with eleven decimal place precision.

Double-word computations use the same operation code as single-word. Selecting the mode (single- or double-precision) of floating-point arithmetic operations is discussed on page 20. To provide double-word precision the Q location is used as an auxiliary to the A register. The binary format for double-word instructions is shown below. Remember that all data used in double-word floating-point computations must be in double-word floating-point form.



The following describes the execution of the floating-point instructions in the double-precision mode.

#### FAD Y

FLOATING ADD — The double-word expressed in the 47 bits of core locations Y and Y + 1 is added to the double-word expressed by the combination of A and Q. The result is placed in A and Q.

---

#### FSU Y

FLOATING SUBTRACT — The double-word expressed in the 47 bits of core locations Y and Y + 1 is subtracted from the double-word expressed by the combination of A and Q. The resulting double-word is placed in A and Q.

---

#### FMP Y

FLOATING MULTIPLY — The double-word expressed in the 47 bits of core locations Y and Y + 1 is multiplied by the double-word expressed by the combination of A and Q. The result is placed in A and Q.

---

#### FDV Y

FLOATING DIVIDE — The double-word expressed in A and Q is divided by the double-word expressed in core locations Y and Y + 1. The result is placed in A and Q.

---

### Shifting Between Single- and Double-Precision Operations

Since the same instructions are used to perform single and double precision floating-point operations, the following instructions indicate which mode is to be used when executing a floating-point instruction.

#### FMS 1

FLOATING MODE SHIFT TO SINGLE-PRECISION — All floating-point instructions following this instruction will be performed in single-word precision.

---

#### FMS 2

FLOATING MODE SHIFT TO DOUBLE-PRECISION — All floating-point instructions following this instruction will be performed in double-word precision. Any even number in the operand field causes a shift to double-word precision.

Example:

```

:
FMS 1
LDA RDNG 1
FAD CNST ← Executed in single-word precision
STA VALVE 1
:
FMS 2
DLD RDNG 2
FMP DBLCØN ← Executed in double-word precision
DST VALVE 2
:
```

It makes no difference where the floating mode shift instruction is used. Floating-point instructions will be performed in the mode last specified. Be sure that the data used agrees with the mode specified. It is good practice to set the desired floating mode at the beginning of each program using floating-point instructions

### Overflow

An occasional source of grief to the programmer is a condition called "arithmetic overflow." This occurs when the result of an arithmetic operation is too large to fit in the data portion of the A register, and a carry is propagated into the sign bit.

For example, the maximum number that can be stored in a single floating-point word is  $2.15 \times 10^9$ . If we multiply  $2.0 \times 10^5$  by  $2.0 \times 10^5$  we will obtain  $4.0 \times 10^{10}$  which is too large to be held in the A register. Overflow will occur. If we were working in double-word precision  $2.0 \times 10^{40}$  by  $2.0 \times 10^{37}$  would also give us an overflow. The GE-PAC 4020 computer detects overflow with an overflow flip-flop, named "OVRF." If overflow occurs OVRF is set to one. If no overflow occurs OVRF is unchanged. The following instruction will test the state of OVRF.

### JNO

**JUMP IF NO OVERFLOW** — JNO tests the condition of the overflow flip-flop, OVRF. If it is set (overflow occurred), the next instruction in the program is executed and OVRF is reset. If OVRF is reset (no overflow) the computer jumps to the second sequential location.

Example:

```

LDA  RDNG
FMP  CØNST 1
FAD  Y
FDV  CØNST 2
JNO
BRU  OVR ERR ← Executed next if OVRF set
STA  Z ← Executed next if OVRF reset

```

**If Overflow Occurred** — The instruction that immediately follows JNO is executed. Any instruction may be used here, but typically it is a branch to some program to correct, or at least note, the error.

**If No Overflow** — The computer skips over the first sequential instruction and continues on in the program from the second.

Overflow conditions are detected after the execution of FAD, FSU, FMP, FDV, ADD, SUB, MPY, DVD, AKA, SKA, FIX, FLO, SLA, and DLA instructions. These are the only instructions that may cause arithmetic overflow.

The JNO instruction is most helpful in debugging programs. To perform spot checks for possible overflow simply insert a JNO after each section of questionable arithmetic operations. Once any errors have been corrected, the JNO's may be removed. To check for overflow in debugged and running programs, reset OVRF at the beginning of the program and insert a single JNO at the end.

The procedure for resetting OVRF follows:

```

JNO
NOP ← No Operation - Indicates that no instruction
      is to be executed. Computer moves to next
      instruction.

```

Overflow problems can be a headache unless they are caught in the debugging stage. Although there is no standard treatment for overflow, taking the following action during the debugging stages will eliminate most occurrences.

- Rearrange arithmetic instructions and rescale the data.
- Check to be sure the data source (analog scanner, etc.) is giving correct data. Data reasonability checks should be built into programs to help spot bad devices while a program is running.

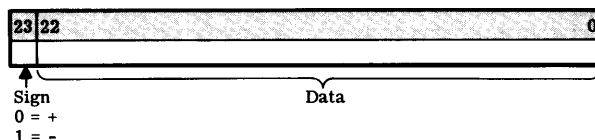
This should cure most overflow problems. If overflow still occurs occasionally, take one or both of the following actions:

- Print a message identifying the error and where it occurred.
- Recalculate, using the last valid data obtained.

Another, but less bothersome, problem is arithmetic underflow. This occurs when the result of an arithmetic operation is too small to be represented in a 24-bit register. To test for underflow, test the accumulator register for all zeroes (see page 39).

### Fixed Point (Single-Word Precision)

Fixed-point numbers do not use exponents to indicate their magnitude. The following format is used to represent a fixed-point number in a GE-PAC 24-bit word. If a number is negative, the number is represented in two's complement form and bit 23 will be a one.



Decimal numbers are converted to binary within the computer and are stored in the data portion of the word. The exact position of the data within the word is determined by the B factor, or binary scale factor, which is specified by the programmer.

Fixed-point arithmetic offers two advantages over floating point. First, it is faster (see Figure 6).

<u>Operation</u>	<u>Floating Point</u>	<u>Fixed Point</u>
ADD	203.0 $\mu$ s	3.2 $\mu$ s
SUBTRACT	208.0 $\mu$ s	3.2 $\mu$ s
MULTIPLY	151.0 $\mu$ s	8.9 - 12.1 $\mu$ s
DIVIDE	182.0 $\mu$ s	13.7 $\mu$ s

Figure 6. Comparison of Execution Times

Second, it provides an extra 6 bits of precision — 17 bits for floating point vs. 23 for fixed point.

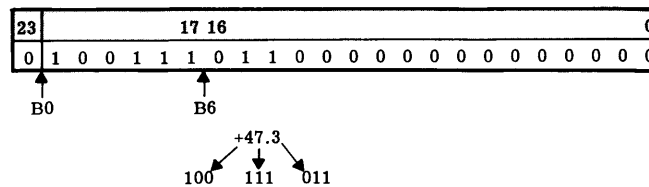
There are two drawbacks to using fixed-point arithmetic. First, it does not easily permit double-precision multiply and divide. Second, it is difficult to use. Because of this, programmers normally use it only when computer time is critical.

Fixed-point arithmetic requires that the programmer keep track of the decimal point, just as he must when using an adding machine, desk calculator, or paper and pencil.

Fixed-point quantities are represented in a GE-PAC computer by a sign bit and 23 bits of data. Positioning this data within a word is called "scaling." The number of bit positions between a number's binary point and the machine's binary point is called its scale factor, abbreviated to "B". The machine's binary point (B0) is located between the sign bit and the adjacent data bit.



Shown below is what  $47.3_8$  would look like if it were represented in a GE-PAC register at a scale factor (B) of 6:



It happens that B6 is the smallest scale factor that could be used, since putting this same number at B5 would have changed the sign bit to a one, erroneously suggesting a negative number. The maximum scale factor would be B20 in this case, and anywhere between B6 and B20 would be acceptable. Choice of the best scale factor for a number depends upon its possible range, and the calculations it will be subjected to. If a number is positioned at the minimum scale factor at which it is correctly represented, it is said to be left justified.

To add or subtract two fixed-point numbers, they each must have the same scale factor, or B. If they are different, one or the other must be shifted to put both at the same scale factor. The arithmetic shift commands which are explained later on will do this.

In multiplying, the B of the product is the sum of the B's of the factors; in dividing, the B of the quotient is the difference of the B's of the dividend and the divisor.

To preserve maximum precision, it is desirable to keep numbers as far to the left as possible without pushing data into the sign bit and causing overflow.

Negative B's occur when representing fractions with one or more significant zeroes. A negative B represents the distance to the left between B0 and the binary point of the fraction.

Positive (or negative) B's greater than 23 are also possible. Positive B's above 23 indicate use of only the 23 most significant data bits of the number (or less, if the number is not left justified).

Scale factors are not represented within the computer; there is no binary point or any other indication of their existence. The B factor simply describes how a binary number should be positioned within a word. The programmer must keep track of this positioning by associating a B with every fixed-point number. By comparing the B factors and the range of the numbers he can determine whether or not the result of an arithmetic operation will cause overflow. The computer will tell him if an operation does cause overflow, but the programmer himself must correct for it.

The following operation instructions are used to perform single precision fixed-point operations.

#### ADD Y

FIXED-POINT ADD — The contents of core location Y are added to the contents of the A register. The C(Y) are not changed. The scale factors of both numbers must be the same.

---

#### SUB Y

FIXED-POINT SUBTRACT — The contents of core location Y are subtracted from the contents of the A register. The C(Y) are not changed. The scale factors of both numbers must be the same.

---

#### MPY Y

FIXED-POINT MULTIPLY — The contents of core location Y are multiplied by the contents of the Q location. The result is placed in A and Q with the most significant half in A. The C(Y) are not changed. The scale factor of the result is the sum of the scale factors of the numbers being multiplied. Bit 23 of Q is not used and is always set to zero.

NOTE: As a part of the fixed-point multiply instruction the original contents of A are algebraically added to Q. Therefore, the program should normally load zeroes into the A register before multiplying. While this feature can be useful in computing equations such as  $ab+c$ , it is omitted from the example for clarity.

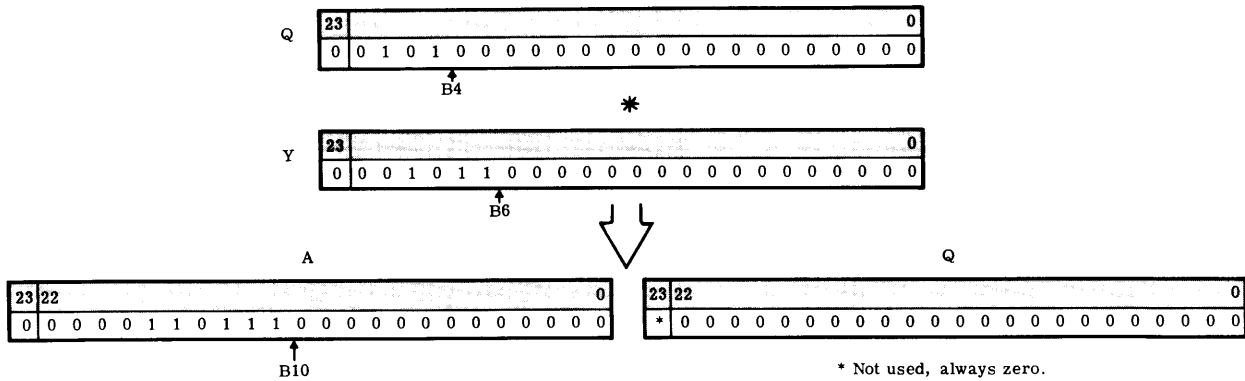
Example:

$$5 * 11$$

5 = /5 and resides in Q @ B4

11 = /13 and resides in Y @ B6

C(A Reg) = 0



The answer is /67 or 55, which appears in A and Q @ B10.

### DVD Y

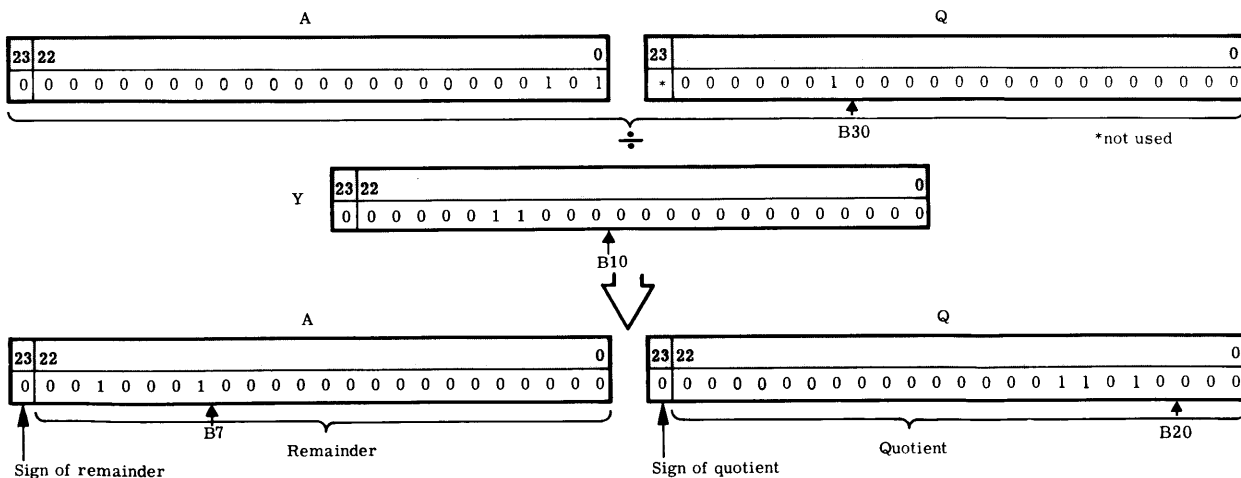
FIXED-POINT DIVIDE — The contents of the A and Q are taken as a single number and divided by the contents of core location Y. The quotient is placed in Q; the remainder in A. The binary scale factor of the quotient is equal to the scale factor of C(A and Q) minus the scale factor of the C(Y). The remainder carries the same scale factor as the dividend less 23. Its sign is the same as that of the divisor.

Example:

$$641 \div 24$$

641 = /1201 and resides in A and Q @ B30

24 = /30 and resides in Y @ B10



The answer is /32 with a remainder of /21, or 26 with a remainder of 17.

## Use of Fixed Point Instructions

Example:

Compute:  $PRSRE = C1 * RDNG + C2$

where:  $0 \leq RDNG \leq 4000 @ B17$

also determine B for C1 and C2

where:  $C1 = 2 \quad B?$

Working backward we first determine the B necessary to hold the result by computing:

$C2 = 43 \quad B?$

$$PRSRE_{max} = 2 * 4000 + 43 = 8043_{10}$$

$8043_{10} = 17553_8$  which requires B13. C1 may be scaled at B2. To add C2 to the results of C1\*RDNG it must be at B19.

Assume RDNG is placed in the program @ B17 by some other program.

Example:

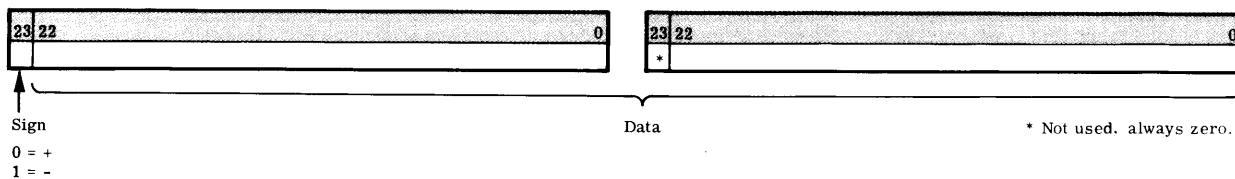
```

LDA ZERO      ZEROES → A reg
LDQ RDNG      RDNG → Q reg @B17
MPY C1        C1 * RDNG → A & Q @B19
ADD C2        @B19
STA PRSRE     C1 * RDNG + C2 → PRSRE @B19
:
ZERØ         CØN D, 0
C1           CØN D, 2B2
C2           CØN D, 43B19
PRSRE       BSS 1
RDNG        BSS 1
:

```

## Fixed-Point (Double-Word Precision)

Fixed-point double-precision arithmetic uses A and Q together to form a single word 47 bits long. This allows expression of numbers ranging between plus and minus  $70,368,744,177,663_{10}$ . The format for representing a double-word fixed-point number is as follows:



The double word add and subtract instructions are explained below. There are no double-word fixed-point multiply and divide instructions in PAL.

DAD Y

DOUBLE-LENGTH ADD — The contents of core locations Y and Y+1 are algebraically added to A and Q together. The result is placed in A and Q. The C(Y) and C(Y+1) are not changed.

DSU Y

DOUBLE-LENGTH SUBTRACT — The contents of core locations Y and Y+1 are algebraically subtracted from A and Q. The results are stored in A and Q. The C(Y) and C(Y+1) are not changed.

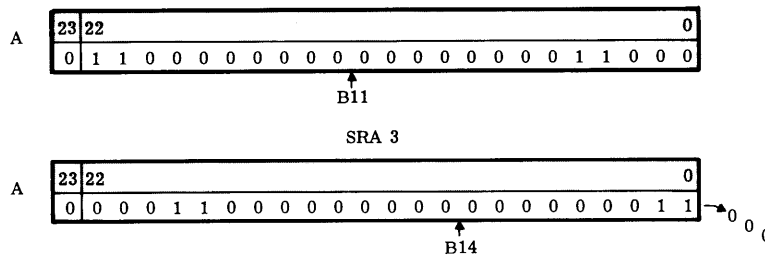
### Scale Modification By Arithmetic Shifts

Since fixed-point arithmetic requires the continual juggling of scale factors, it is helpful to have a means of shifting data one way or the other within a register. The following instructions shift data in the A register, or A and Q together.

#### SRA K

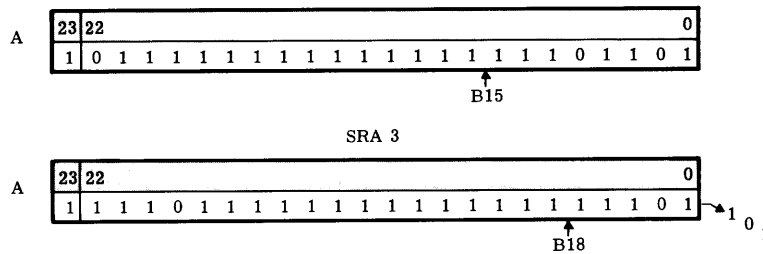
**SINGLE RIGHT ARITHMETIC** — The contents of the A register, with the exception of the sign bit are shifted right K places. If the sign is positive (0), zeroes are inserted into the vacated positions. If the sign is negative (1), ones are inserted into the vacated positions. Bits shifted out of the right end are lost.

Example:



Sign (0) is propagated to the right. Bits are lost out of the right side of A. There is no overflow indication.

Example:

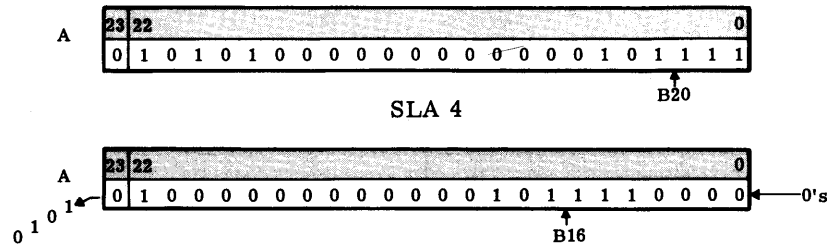


Sign (1) is propagated to the right. Notice that the propagation of ones when shifting a negative number does not affect its value.

#### SLA K

**SINGLE LEFT ARITHMETIC** — The contents of the A register are shifted left K places. Vacated positions are filled with zeroes. If the original sign of A was positive (0) and a one is shifted into bit 23, OVRF will be set. If the original sign of A was negative (1) and a zero is shifted into bit 23, OVRF will also be set.

Example:

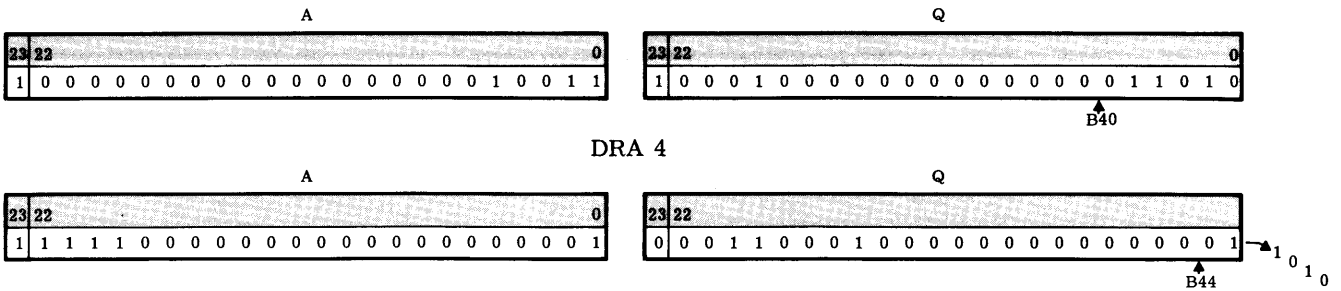


Bits are lost out of the left side of A. OVRF is set, since original sign was positive (0) and ones were shifted through bit 23.

### DRA K

DOUBLE RIGHT ARITHMETIC – The contents of A and Q with the exception of their sign bits, are shifted K places to the right. Bits shifted out of A are loaded into Q beginning at bit 22. Bits shifted out of Q are lost. The sign of A is propagated into the vacated positions. The sign of Q is set to zero. A single DRA instruction may shift up to 31 positions.

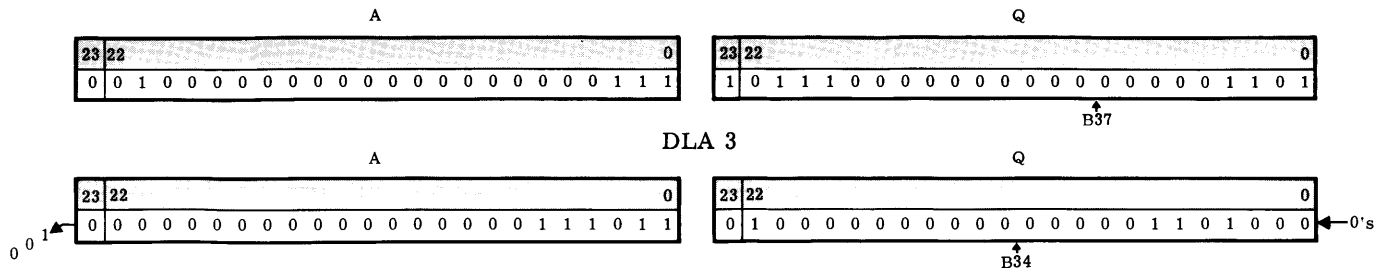
Example:



### DLA K

DOUBLE LEFT ARITHMETIC – The contents of A and Q with the exception of the sign of Q are shifted left K places. Bits shifted out of the left end of Q go into the right end of A. Bits shifted out of A are lost. Zeroes are shifted into the right end of Q. If the sign of A was positive (0) and ones are shifted into that position, OVRF will be set. If the sign of A was negative (1) and zeroes are shifted into that position, the OVRF will be set. Bit 23 of Q is always reset to zero. A single DLA instruction may shift up to 31 positions.

Example:



Since a one shifted through bit 23 of A and bit 23 was originally zero, OVRF is set.

Shifting to adjust scale factors is the most common use for arithmetic shift instructions — either to make scale factors equal before an add or subtract instruction, or to prevent possible overflow while obtaining maximum precision in calculations.

Example:  $Y = X + ZU$  Where constants are defined as shown:

```

:
LDA ZERO
LDQ Z      Z → Q@B6
MPY U      U * Z → A and Q@B12
STA Y      RESULT → Y@B12
LDA X      X → A@B11
SRA 1      B11 → B12
ADD Y      X + Y → A@B12
STA Y      RESULT → Y@B12
:
Y BSS 1
X CON D, 1000B11
Z CON D, 50B6
U CON D, 52B6
ZERO CON D, 0
:

```

Why not SLA 1 to B11 instead? Overflow would occur.

Example:  $Y = C + D$  Where constants are defined as shown:

```

:
LDA D      D → A reg
SRA 4      B6 → B10
ADD C      C + D → A reg@B11
STA Y      RESULT → Y@B11
:
D CON D, 1000B10 } CONSTANTS
C CON D, 50B6    }
Y BSS 1          VARIABLE STORAGE
:

```

### Other Fixed-Point Instructions

Besides the basic add, subtract, multiply, and divide instructions used in fixed-point arithmetic, the following instructions provide an added degree of computational flexibility and efficiency.

AKA K

ADD K TO A — The integer K is added to the contents of the A register. OVRF will be set if overflow occurs.

SKA K

SUBTRACT K FROM A — The integer K is subtracted from the contents of the A register. OVRF will be set if overflow occurs.

LDK K

LOAD A WITH K — The integer K replaces the contents of the A register.

Example:  $Y = 5 + 7 - 2$

```

LDK 5      5 → A reg
AKA 7      5+7=12 → A reg
SKA 2      12-2=10 → A reg

```

K is always loaded, added, or subtracted at B23.

### General Utility Instructions

The following instruction is particularly prior to performing a fixed-point multiply. It shifts the contents of the A register to Q, thus setting up registers for a multiply instruction, and then loads zeroes into A.

#### MAQ

MOVE A TO Q — The contents of the A register replace the contents of Q. Zeroes are loaded into A.

Example:  $Y = 10 * \text{PICØN}$

```

:
:
LDK 10      10 → A reg
MAQ        C(A reg) → Q, ZEROES → A reg
MPY PICØN  10 * PICØN → A and Q @ B28
STQ Y      RESULTS → Y @ B5
:
:
PICØN CØN D, 3.1416B5
Y     BSS 1
:
:

```

When a program is first written, it is helpful to occasionally insert dummy instructions to make future addition of instructions easier. It is also helpful to have dummy instructions to insert in place of instructions that must be removed. The following instruction is used as a dummy.

#### NOP

NO OPERATION — No operation is performed, program control moves to the next instruction.

Occasionally, when available core area is scarce, but computer time is plentiful, the following instruction may be useful.

#### OOM Y.

OPERATE ON MEMORY — Core location Y serves as the A register for the first instruction following OOM. The C(Q) are destroyed.

Example: Add one to C(CNTVAL). Would look like this if coded conventionally . . .

```

STA TEMP      SAVE A reg
LDA CNTVAL
ADD ØNE      } PERFORM OPERATION
STA CNTVAL
LDA TEMP      RESTORE A reg
:
:
ØNE CØN D, 1
:
:

```

Required core locations - 5 words, execution time - 16  $\mu$ s

or like this, using OOM:

```

      :
      : OOM CNTVAL
      : ADD ONE
      :
      : OPERATION PERFORMED
      : WITHOUT DISTURBING A
ONE   :
      : CON D, - 1
      :

```

Required core locations - 2 words, execution time - 65.2μ

The use of OOM increases execution time but saves core. Consult the Instruction Reference Manual for instructions that may be OOM'ed.

### Changing Arithmetic Modes

Fixed-point operations may be performed only with fixed-point numbers. Floating-point operations may be performed only with floating-point numbers. For example, we cannot add fixed point 12.4 to floating point  $.5 \times 10^2$ . To work with these numbers we must either convert  $.5 \times 10^2$  into a fixed-point number and ADD it to 12.4, or convert 12.4 into a floating-point number and FAD it to  $.5 \times 10^2$ .

To convert numbers from one mode to another use the following instructions.

FIX K

FIX A FLOATING POINT NUMBER — The contents of the A register are converted from a floating-point number to a fixed-point number with a scale factor of K.

FLO K

FLOAT A FIXED POINT NUMBER — The contents of the A register are converted from a fixed-point number with a scale factor of K to a normalized floating-point number.

NOTE: The instructions above describe the operation as it occurs in single-word precision (FMS 1). In double-word precision (FMS 2) these instructions will act upon the double word expressed in A and Q.

Example:  $Y = D + F$

D = fixed point number @ B17

F = floating-point number

Performing the operation in floating point;

```

      :
      : LDA D
      : FLØ 17
      : FAD F
      : STA Y
      :
      : D → A reg
      : D CONVERTED TO FLOATING POINT
      : D + F → A reg
      : RESULTS → Y
      :
D     : CON D, 50.0B17
F     : CON F, .25E2
Y     : BSS 1
      :

```



or, in fixed point;

```
      :
      LDA F           F → A reg
      FIX 17         F CONVERTED TO FIXED POINT@B17
      ADD D          F+D → A reg
      STA Y          RESULTS → Y
      :
D     CØN D, 50.0B17
F     CØN F, .25E2
Y     BSS 1
      :
```

In conjunction with the FMS instruction, FIX and FLØ may also be used for the conversion of double-word numbers to single-word and vice-versa.

Example: FXNØ = double-word fixed-point number @ B17

FLØNØ = single-word floating-point number that could be represented in fixed point @ B12

Convert: FXNØ to a single-word floating-point number

FLØNØ to a double-word fixed-point number @ B12

```
      :
      DLD FXNØ       FXNØ → A, FXNØ+1 → Q
      FMS 1          SHIFT TO SINGLE-WORD PRECISION
      FLØ 17         FLOAT C(A reg)@B17
      STA FXNØ       RESULTS → FXNØ
      LDZ           ZEROES → A reg
      MAQ           ZEROES → Q
      LDA FLØNØ     FLØNØ → A reg
      FMS 2          SHIFT TO DOUBLE-WORD PRECISION
      FIX 12        FIX C(A reg)@B12
      DST FLØNØ     RESULTS → FLØNØ and FLØNØ+1
      :
```

## LOGICAL OPERATIONS

A major feature of the GE-PAC 4020 computer is the number and variety of its logical operations. The following sections cover the PAL repertoire of bit manipulation, word logical, masking, logical shifting, and bit counting instructions.

### Bit Manipulation Instructions

Instructions that manipulate individual bits of a 24-bit word are often useful. With them it is possible to dictate the sequencing of a series of process operations, set bit flags for inter/intra-program communication, or create any desired bit pattern within a word. These instructions are explained below.

---

SBK K

SET BIT K — Bit K of the word in the A register is set to one. All other bits are unchanged.

---

RBK K

RESET BIT K — Bit K of the word in the A register is reset to zero. All other bits are unchanged.

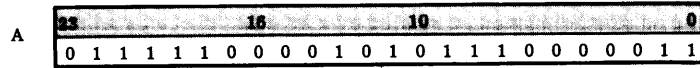
---

### CBK K

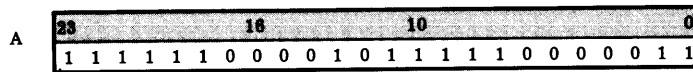
CHANGE BIT K — If Bit K was set to one, it is then reset to zero. If it was reset to zero, it is then set to one. All other bits are unchanged.

---

Examples of SBK, RBK and CBK:



SBK 23  
RBK 16  
CBK 10



### IBK K

ISOLATE BIT K — Bit K of the word in the A register is unchanged. All other bits are reset to zero.

---

### LBM K

LOAD BIT MASK — Bit K of the word in the A register is reset to zero. All other bits are set to one.

---

### LDO K

LOAD ONE INTO BIT K OF A — Bit K of the A register is set to one. All other bits are reset to zero.

---

### ADO K

ADD ONE TO BIT K OF A — Plus one is algebraically added to the number represented by bits 23-K of the A register. This instruction will not affect OVRF.

### Register Manipulation

These instructions set the A register to all zeroes, all ones, or take the one's or the two's complement of its contents.

### LDZ

LOAD A WITH ZEROES — All bits of the A register are reset to zero.

---

### LMO

LOAD A WITH MINUS ONE — All bits of the A register are set to one.

## CPL

ONE'S COMPLEMENT OF C(A) — Each bit of the A register is inverted. Ones are replaced by zeroes; zeroes by ones.

---

## NEG

NEGATE C(A) — Each bit of the A register is inverted and one is added to bit position zero, thus forming the two's complement (negative value) of the original number.

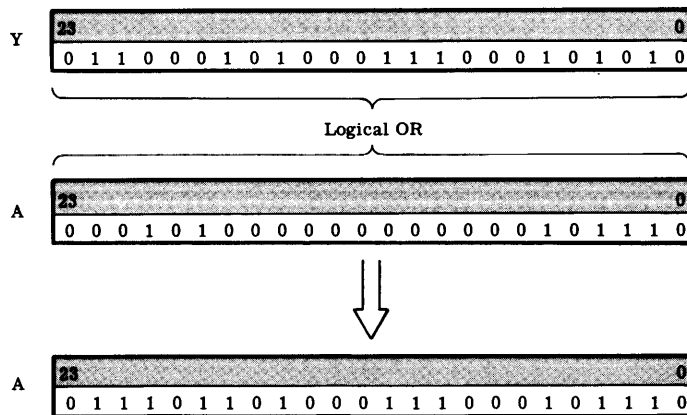
## Word Logical Operations

In process control programming it is frequently helpful to look at particular parts of a word that contain information concerning particular areas of your process. Word logical masking techniques make this possible.

## ORA Y

OR C(Y) WITH C(A) — Each bit of the contents of core location Y is compared with the corresponding bit of the A register. If either or both contain a one, that bit of A is set to one. Otherwise, it is reset to zero. The C(Y) are unchanged.

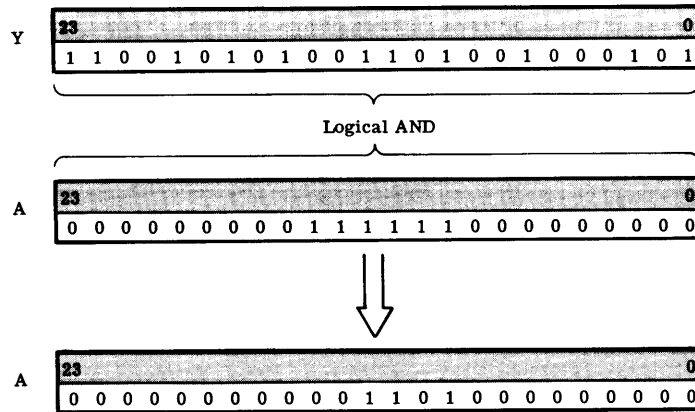
Example:



## ANA Y

AND C(Y) WITH C(A) — The corresponding bits of core location Y and the contents of the A register are compared. If corresponding bits in A and Y are ones, that bit of the A register is set. If either or both of the corresponding bits are reset to zero, that bit of the A register is reset. The C(Y) are unchanged.

Example:

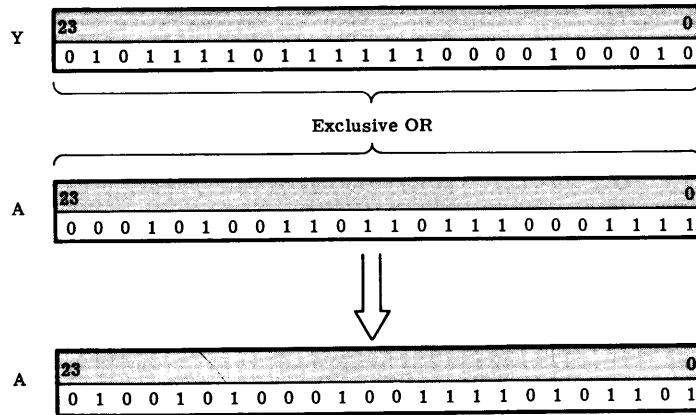


Notice that by setting certain bits in A it is possible to determine which segment of Y will be copied into A.

ERA Y

EXCLUSIVE OR OF C(Y) WITH C(A REG) – If corresponding bits of Y and the A register are alike, a zero is placed in that position in the A register. If they are unlike, that position is set to one. The C(Y) are unchanged.

Example:



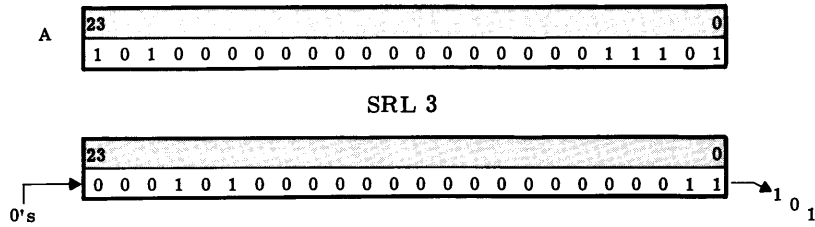
### Logical Shifting

Logical shifts differ from arithmetic shifts in that they make no effort to preserve the sign bit or set OVRF when overflow occurs. Logical shift instructions are described below.

SRL K

SINGLE RIGHT LOGICAL – The contents of the A register are shifted K places to the right. Zeroes are shifted into A; the bits shifted out are lost. A single SRL instruction may shift up to 23 places.

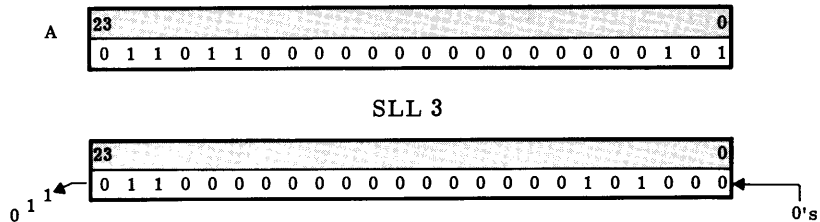
Example:



SLL K

SINGLE LEFT LOGICAL — The contents of the A register are shifted K places to the left. Zeroes are shifted into A; the bits shifted out are lost. A single SLL instruction may shift up to 23 places.

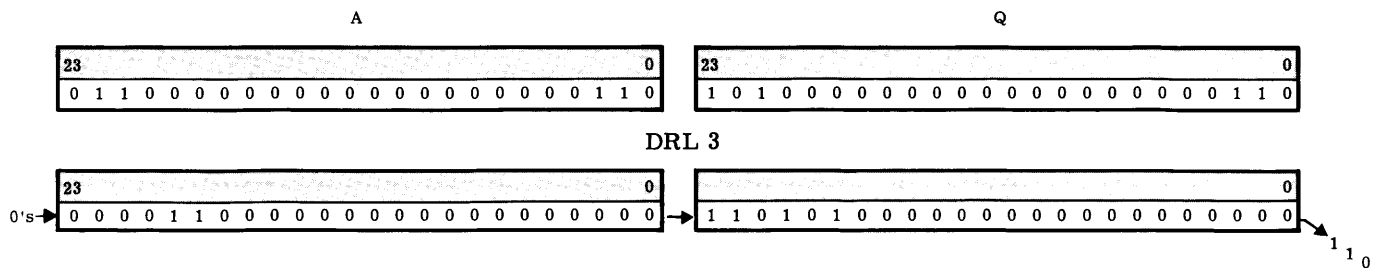
Example:



DRL K

DOUBLE RIGHT LOGICAL — The contents of A and Q together are shifted K places to the right. The bits shifted out of A are loaded into Q. The bits shifted out of Q are lost. Zeroes are loaded into A. A single DRL instruction may shift up to 31 places.

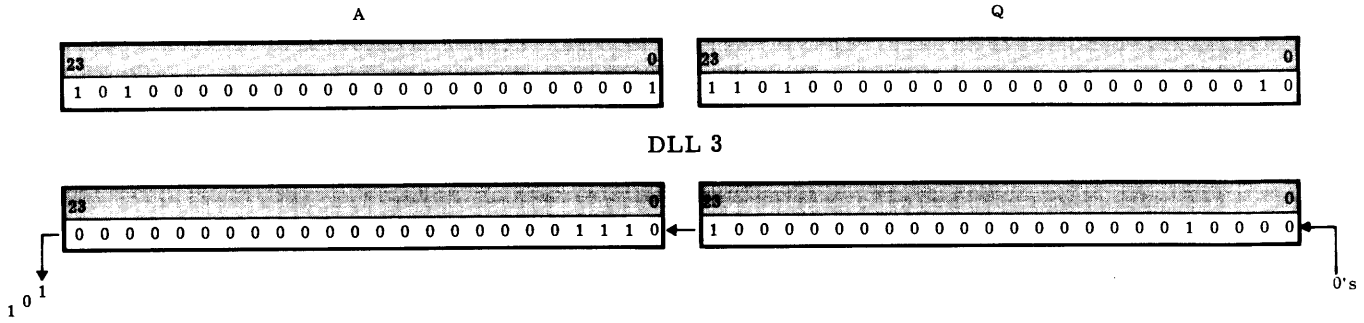
Example:



DLL K

DOUBLE LEFT LOGICAL — The contents of A and Q are shifted K places to the left. The bits shifted out of Q are loaded into A. The bits shifted out of A are lost. Zeroes are loaded into Q. A single DLL shift may shift up to 31 places.

Example:



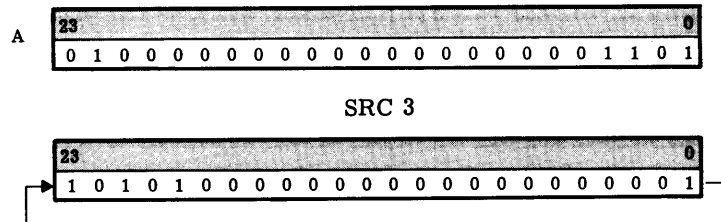
Circular Shifting

Circular shifts allow repositioning data without losing any of it. They are frequently used for packing input data and unpacking data for output. Circular shift instructions are described below.

SRC K

SHIFT RIGHT CIRCULAR — The contents of the A register are shifted right K places. The bits leaving the right end of the register are loaded back into the left end.

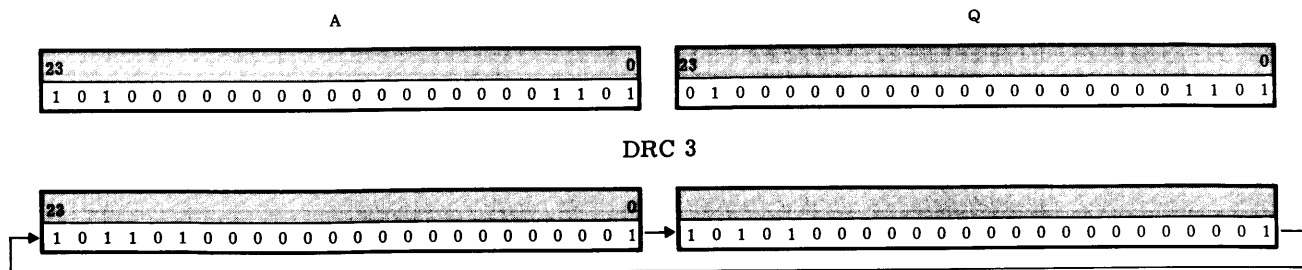
Example:



DRC K

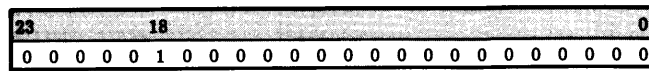
DOUBLE RIGHT CIRCULAR — The contents of A and Q are shifted together K places to the right. Bits shifted out of A are loaded into Q. Those shifted out of Q are loaded into the left end of A. A single DRC instruction may shift up to 31 places.

Example:



## Bit Counting

Process alarm conditions are often represented by the condition of a particular bit in a data word. The diagram below shows a typical alarm word. Each bit in the word that is set to one represents the alarm



Alarm Data Word

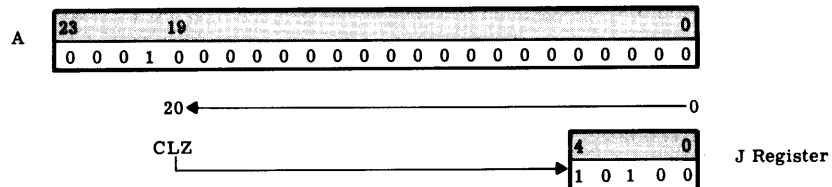
condition of a particular device. If bit 18 is set when a certain temperature is out of limits, we may use the following bit counting instructions to isolate that alarm condition (see example on page 42).

Bit counting instructions accumulate their total count in a five-bit register called the J register. After executing a counting instruction, the J register is interrogated to find the total count.

### CLZ

**COUNT LEAST SIGNIFICANT ZEROES** — The number of least significant zeroes in the A register is placed in the J register.

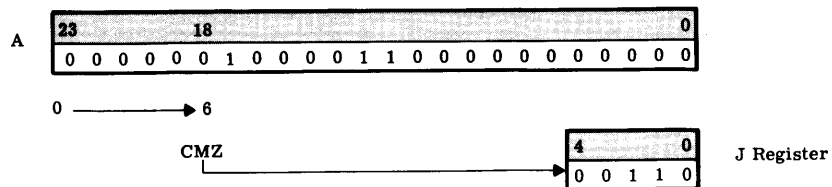
Example:



### CMZ

**COUNT MOST SIGNIFICANT ZEROES** — The number of most significant zeroes in the A register is placed in the J register.

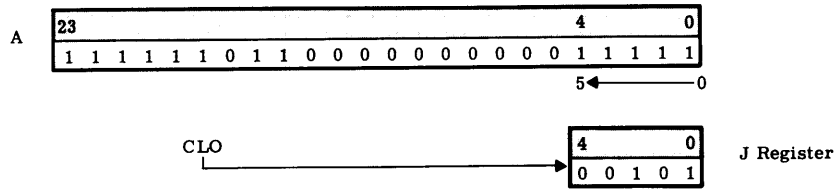
Example:



### CLO

**COUNT LEAST SIGNIFICANT ONES** — The number of least significant ones in the A register is placed in the J register.

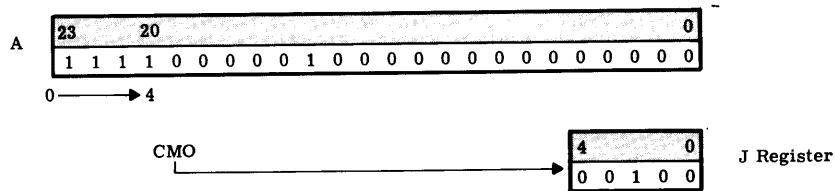
Example:



### CMO

COUNT MOST SIGNIFICANT ONES — The number of most significant ones in the A register is placed in the J register.

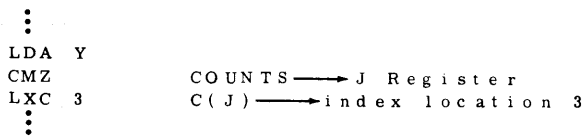
Example:



### LXC X

LOAD X REGISTER WITH C(J) — The contents of the J register are placed in the rightmost five bits of the index location specified. The other 19 bits of that index location are reset to zero. An LXC should immediately follow any count instruction, to avoid loss of the count.

Example:



## TEST INSTRUCTIONS

Every process computer program does a great deal of testing — testing for alarm conditions, testing to determine the size of numbers, testing to determine the number of times an event has occurred or a program loop has been completed, testing to determine what a previous program did or a future program should do, and testing for a myriad of other reasons. To fill these needs, the GE-PAC 4020 computer has an unparalleled group of word and bit test instructions.



The result of a test instruction may be thought of as either a true, or a false condition. A test flip-flop named TSTF records the result of a test. If the result of a test is true, TSTF is set to one; if false TSTF is reset to zero. There are also tests that affect TSTF for one condition but leave it unchanged for the other. These and other test instructions are explained below.

#### Setting and Resetting the TSTF Directly

These instructions are used to set TSTF to a known condition.

---

##### SET

SET TSTF — The test flip-flop, TSTF, is set.

---

##### RST

RESET TSTF — The test flip-flop, TSTF, is reset.

---

#### Word Tests

These tests operate on the entire A register.

---

##### TZE

TEST A EQUAL ZERO — TSTF is set if all bits in the A register are zero. TSTF is reset if any bit is a one.

---

##### TNZ

TEST A NOT ZERO — TSTF is set if any bit in the A register is a one. TSTF is reset if all bits are zero.

---

##### RNZ

RESET IF A NOT ZERO — TSTF is reset if any bit in the A register is a one. TSTF is unchanged if all bits are zero.

---

##### SNZ

SET IF A NOT ZERO — TSTF is set if any bit in the A register is a one. TSTF is unchanged if all bits are zero.

---

##### TNM

TEST A NOT MINUS ONE — TSTF is set if any bit in the A register is a zero. TSTF is reset if all bits in A register are ones (minus one).

---

##### TZC

TEST A ZERO AND COMPLEMENT — TSTF is set if all bits in the A register are zeroes. If any bit is a one TSTF is reset and the contents of the A register are replaced by its one's complement (all bits are inverted).

---

##### TSC K

SHIFT RIGHT CIRCULAR AND TEST FOR K ZEROES — The contents of the A register are shifted right circular K places. Bits shifted out of the right end of A are loaded back into the left end. If all K bits shifted out of A are zeroes TSTF is set. If any of the K bits is a one, TSTF is reset.

---

## Bit Tests

The following tests are performed on a specific bit in the A register.

---

### TEV K

TEST BIT K EVEN — TSTF is set if bit K of the A register is a zero. TSTF is reset if it is a one.

---

### TOD K

TEST BIT K ODD — TSTF is set if bit K of the A register is a one. TSTF is reset if it is a zero.

---

### SEV K

SET TSTF IF BIT K EVEN — TSTF is set if bit K of the A register is a zero. If it is a one, TSTF remains unchanged.

---

### REV K

RESET TSTF IF BIT K EVEN — TSTF is reset if bit K of the A register is a zero. If it is a one, TSTF remains unchanged.

---

### SOD K

SET TSTF IF BIT K ODD — TSTF is set if bit K of the A register is a one. If it is a zero, TSTF remains unchanged.

---

### ROD K

RESET TSTF IF BIT K ODD — TSTF is reset if bit K of the A register is a one. If it is a zero, TSTF remains unchanged.

---

### TES K

TEST EVEN AND SET BIT K — If bit K of the A register is a one, TSTF is reset. If bit K is a zero TSTF is set and bit K is set to one.

---

### TER K

TEST EVEN AND RESET BIT K — If bit K of the A register is a zero, TSTF is set. If it is a one, TSTF is reset and bit K is changed to a zero.

---

### TOS K

TEST ODD AND SET BIT K — If bit K of the A register is a zero, TSTF is reset and bit K is changed to a one. If it is a one, TSTF is set.

---

### TOR K

TEST ODD AND RESET BIT K — If bit K of the A register is a one, TSTF is set and bit K is changed to a zero. If it is a zero, TSTF is reset.

---

## BRANCH INSTRUCTIONS

After executing a test instruction it is usually necessary to do one thing if TSTF is set, and another if it is reset. The conditional branch instructions described below will jump to another part of a program for a given condition of TSTF. The unconditional branch instruction described always transfers program control when executed. Program control is the logic that determines which instruction will be executed next.

### BTS Y

BRANCH IF TSTF SET — If TSTF is set, program control will branch and begin executing instructions starting at location Y. If reset, it will execute the instruction immediately following the BTS. TSTF is unchanged.

### BTR Y

BRANCH IF TSTF RESET — If TSTF is reset, program control will branch and begin executing instructions starting at location Y. If set, it will execute the instruction immediately following the BTR. TSTF is unchanged.

### BRU Y

UNCONDITIONAL BRANCH — Program control will always branch and begin executing instructions starting at location Y.

### Examples:

It is necessary to know if an analog scanner reading is within limits. The high limit is contained in core location HILIM, the low limit is at LOLIM, the scanner reading is at SCANRD. These limits are in floating point. The reading is in fixed point at B17. If the reading is high branch to HIROAD, if low branch to LOROAD, if within limits branch to OKROAD.

LDA	SCANRD	
FLO	17	FLOAT SCANRD
STA	TEMP	
FSU	HILIM	TEST HIGH
TEV	23	
BTS	HIROAD	IF HIGH BRANCH
LDA	TEMP	
FSU	LOLIM	IF NO TEST LOW
TOD	23	
BTS	LOROAD	IF LOW BRANCH
BRU	OK	SCANRD IS WITHIN LIMITS

Assume that one step in a startup procedure consists of determining that one and only one of two pumps is on, that its valve is open, and a main valve is open. The condition of these motors and valves are held in five bits of a word at location GROUP 1. If a bit is set to one the on, or open condition, exists. Bit assignments are shown below.

- Bit 1 — Motor for pump #1
- Bit 2 — Valve for pump #1
- Bit 3 — Motor for pump #2
- Bit 4 — Valve for pump #2
- Bit 5 — Main valve

Write a routine to check that the system is ready for startup. If it isn't ready, branch to ALARM.

```

:
LDA GROUP1
TOD BITA
BTR ** + 5
REV BITB
RØD BITC
RØD BITD
BRU ** + 5
SET
RØD BITB
REV BITC
REV BITD
REV BITE
BTS ØK
BRU ALARM
:
:
:
BITA EQL 1
BITB EQL 2
BITC EQL 3
BITD EQL 4
BITE EQL 5
:
:
:

```

PUMP #1 MOTOR ON?  
IF NO, BRANCH  
} If any of these  
} conditions are not met TSTF  
} is reset, indicating alarm  
BRANCH TO TEST E  
SET TSTF  
} If any of these conditions are not  
} met, TSTF is reset  
} indicating alarm  
If TSTF still set — everything OK  
If not, an alarm exists

---

A scan and limit check program finds alarms and indicates them in a word at location ALM. Each of the 24 bits indicate a unique alarm condition when set. Write the coding to isolate any alarm conditions.

```

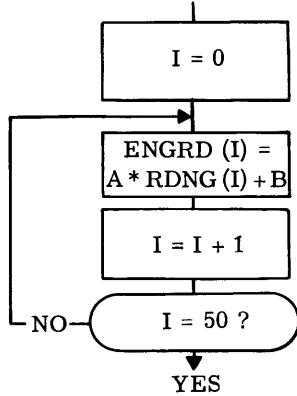
:
NEXT LDA ALM
CLZ
LXC 3
TXH 24, 3
BTS NØALM
RBK 0, 3
STA ALM
:
ALM → A reg
COUNTS → J reg
C(J) → 3
ANY ALARMS?
NO
YES, Reset bit
and service
alarm condition.

```

After an alarm is serviced the program may go back to NEXT and determine if more alarms exist.

## LOOPING

If a table of fifty values must be converted to engineering units with the equation,  $ENGRD = A * RDNG + B$ , we certainly wouldn't want to write or provide storage for fifty programs to solve the equation. Looping permits writing the program once and cycling through it fifty times. In flow chart form the procedure would look like this:



Where A and B are constants, ENGRD and RDNG are fifty word tables, and I is an index to indicate which reading is being converted.

The following additional instructions are used in writing loops in PAL.

LXK K,X

LOAD INDEX LOCATION X WITH K — The constant K replaces the contents of the index location specified.

INX K,X

INCREMENT C(X) BY K — The constant K is added to the contents of the index location specified.

TXH K,X

TEST C(X) HIGH OR EQUAL TO K — If the contents of bits zero through 13 of index location X are equal to or greater than K TSTF is set. If not, it is reset. The C(X) are not changed. Note: K is always represented in its two's complement (negative) form within the computer.

DMT Y

DECREMENT MEMORY AND TEST — One is subtracted from the contents of memory location Y. If the original value was zero, TSTF is reset. If the original value was non-zero, TSTF is set. When a DMT is the first instruction following an automatic program interrupt, TSTF is not affected.

There are two methods of looping in PAL; incrementing, which begins with the first of a group of numbers and loops through to the last; and decrementing, which begins with the last number and works back to the first.

Example:

Fifty scanner readings in a table beginning at core location 17000g must be converted to engineering units by the equation  $(80 * RDNG) / 4000$  and stored in a table beginning at core location 17500g. The scanner readings are in fixed-point form at B17. Perform the calculations in floating point.



By incrementing:

```

FMS 1
LXX 0, 5      Initialize Loop
LDA RDNG, 5
FLØ 17       } Convert and store
FMP A
FDV B
STA ENGRD, 5 }
INX 1, 5     Count readings processed
TXH 50, 5    Have all Readings been Processed?
BTR *-7      If no, go back; if yes, continue
:
A   CØN F, 80   } Constants
B   CØN F, 4000
RDNG EQL /17000
ENGRD EQL /17500
:

```

By decrementing

```

:
FMS 1
LXX 49.5     Initialize Loop
LDA RDNG, 5
FLØ 17       } Convert & Store
FMP A
FDV B
STA ENGRD.5 }
DMT 5        Decrement; If C (5) = -1 TSTF is Reset
BTS *-6      If TSTF Set go back, If Reset continue
:
A   CØN F, 80   } Constants
B   CØN F, 4000
RDNG EQL /17000
ENGRD EQL /17500
:

```

# AUTOMATIC PROGRAM INTERRUPTS

Within the GE-PAC 4020 computer there are a group of flip-flops called automatic program interrupts, or API's. There may be up to 128 API's in a system. These make the GE-PAC 4020 system responsive to process disturbances, permit timekeeping, and monitor the operation of peripherals.

There are two types of interrupts; inhibitable, and non-inhibitable. Non-inhibitable interrupts usually indicate relatively high-priority demands. Lower-priority demands are indicated by the occurrence of inhibitable interrupts.

These interrupts set a flag for RTMOS, causing it to perform whatever function that interrupt requires. In the case of non-inhibitable interrupts this is usually the execution of a single instruction, such as a DMT. After the interrupt has been serviced RTMOS usually continues running the program that was interrupted.

Inhibitable interrupts frequently require more extensive service such as the running of another program. In this case, RTMOS may run the program required by the interrupt and finish the interrupted program later on. Usually this is acceptable, since information critical to the interrupted program is saved and the program will be completed a few seconds later. However, there are times, in critical programs, or in critical steps of a program, when interruption is undesirable. In these cases the servicing of inhibitable API's may be regulated by manipulating the Permit Automatic Interrupt flip-flop, called PAIF.

The PAIF may be set to a one or reset to zero. If reset, inhibitable interrupts will not be serviced until PAIF is set.

Programs may permit or inhibit inhibitable API's with the following two instructions.

## PAI

PERMIT AUTOMATIC INTERRUPT — PAIF is set to one, permitting interruption by either an inhibitable or non-inhibitable interrupt. Programs are normally run with interrupts permitted.

## IAI

INHIBIT AUTOMATIC INTERRUPTS — PAIF is reset to zero, permitting interruption only by non-inhibitable interrupts. Inhibitable interrupts will be recorded, but not serviced until the PAIF is set to one.

There is also an instruction, IAI2, that will inhibit both inhibitable and non-inhibitable interrupts. It is used in RTMOS I/O routines.





# SUBROUTINES

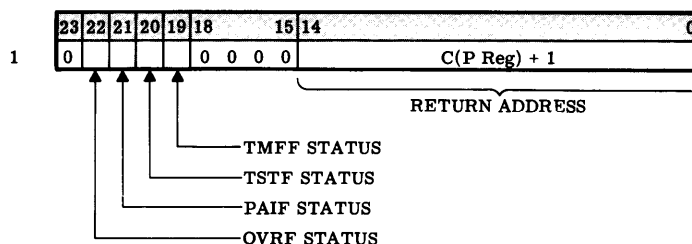
Various process control programs require that the same function be performed several times at different points within a program. In such cases repetitive coding may be avoided by writing the function as a subroutine for the program. Besides serving one program, a subroutine may also be shared by several different programs.

The following instructions are used in writing subroutines:

---

## SPB Y

**SAVE PLACE AND BRANCH** — Inhibit interrupts and branch to a subroutine located at Y. Before branching to the subroutine, the following information is stored in index location one.



**OVRF STATUS** — If OVRF is set when the branch occurs a one is placed in bit 22.

**PAIF STATUS** — If automatic program interrupts are permitted while the main program is running, PAIF is set to one. The condition of this flip-flop at the time the branch occurs is recorded in bit 21.

**TSTF STATUS** — If TSTF is set when the branch occurs a one is placed in bit 20.

**TMFF STATUS** — TMFF is the name of the Trapping Mode flip-flop. If a program is running under Quadrirect memory protection, TMFF will be set to one; otherwise it is reset to zero.

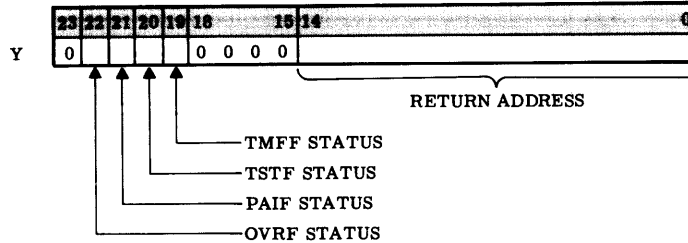
**RETURN ADDRESS** — The return address is usually the contents of the P register plus one. If an SPB occurs as the result of an automatic program interrupt one is not added to the C(P).

The SPB instruction always inhibits API's by resetting PAIF before the branch takes place.

---

## LPR Y

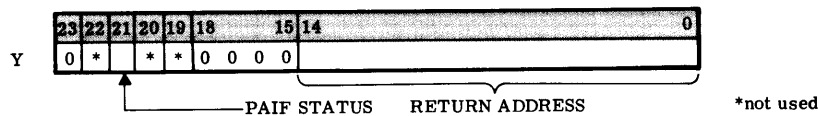
**LOAD PLACE AND RESTORE** — This instruction is normally used to return to the main program from a subroutine. Usually Y refers to the address of the word built when the SPB instruction was executed.



Program control will go to the address specified in bits 0 - 14 and restore the various flip-flops to the status indicated. The return address and the status of the flip-flops may be modified within the subroutine.

## LDP Y

**LOAD PLACE** — This is an alternate to LDR. The conditions of OVRF, TMFF and TSTF are not restored. Program control will go to the address specified and set PAIF as specified in the word at location Y. Usually this word is the same one built when the SPB instruction was executed.



## XEC Y

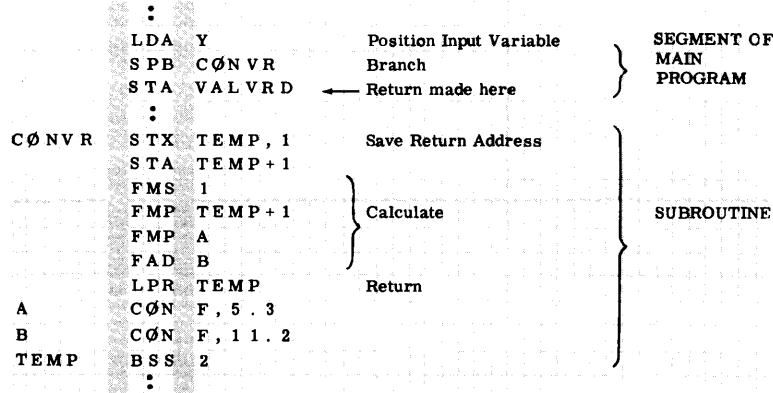
**EXECUTE** — The instruction at core location Y is executed. Program control does not change unless the XEC'd instruction is a branch.

General procedure for writing PAL subroutines:

- a. Locate necessary input variables where the subroutine expects to find them.
- b. SPB to subroutine.
- c. Inside the subroutine immediately:
  1. Save index location 1 which contains the return address.
  2. Save the contents of A, Q, and any index locations used in the subroutine which contain information critical to the main program.
- d. Write the subroutine, bringing in the input variables as required.
- e. Locate output variables where the main program expects to find them.
- f. Restore all the registers saved in step c. 2.
- g. Return to main program via LPR or LDP instruction.

Example:

Since a conversion equation,  $VALVRD = A*Y*Y + B$  must be solved several times at different places in a program it is desirable to write it as a subroutine. The subroutine will look for the input variable, Y, in the A Register. It will also return the result in the A register. All data are in floating point form.



NOTE: Saving and restoring the contents of Q and index locations 3-7 was not necessary since they were not used.



# CIRCULAR LISTS

Circular lists are used for output queues and for transferring data between programs.

Shown below is a diagram of a typical circular list.

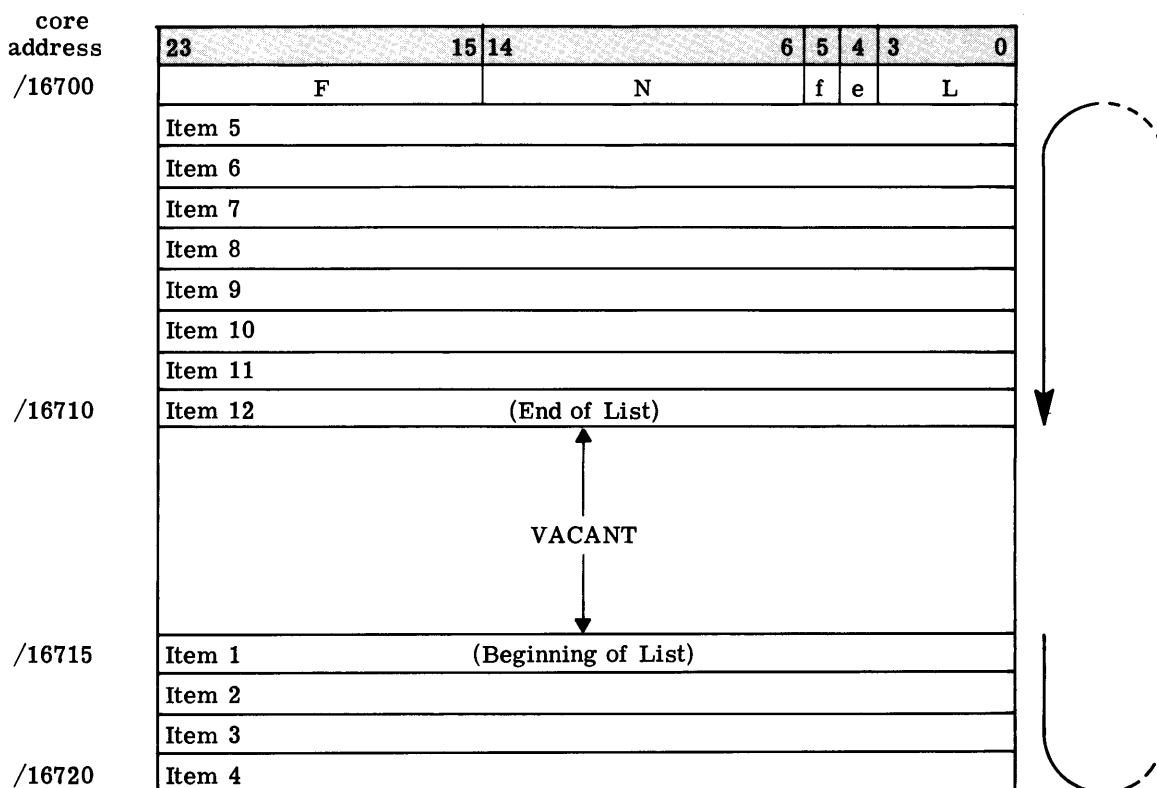


Figure 7. Circular List

The first word of a circular list is the list control word. It specifies the length of the list, the number of items currently in it, the address of the next beginning item, and whether or not the list is full or empty. The description below tells how this information is stored within the word.

L — The length of the list is  $2^L$ . L may vary from one through eight. Therefore, the list may vary in length from two to 256 words. In the above example L is four.

F — This field specifies the location of the next beginning item in the list relative to the first word following the list control word. In the above example F is /13.

N — This field contains the number of items in the list. If the list is either full or empty N is zero. In the above example N is /14.

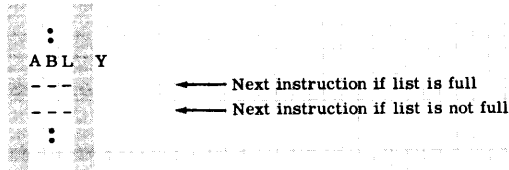
e — This bit is set to one if the list is empty; zero if it is not.

f — This bit is set to one if the list is full; zero if it is not.

The following instructions are used with circular lists.

## ABL Y

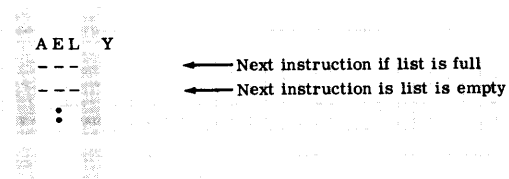
**APPEND ITEM TO BEGINNING OF LIST** – The list control word at core location Y is checked. If the list is not full (f=0) the contents of the A register are appended to the beginning of the list (Figure 8), the list control word is updated, and program control advances to the second sequential location. The C(A) becomes the new beginning item of the list. If the list is full the instruction is ignored and program control advances to the first sequential location.



---

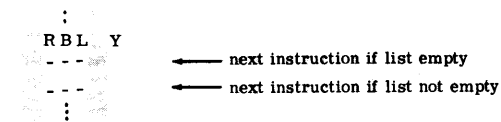
## AEL Y

**APPEND ITEM TO END OF LIST** – The list control word at core location Y is checked. If the list is not full (f=0) the contents of the A Register are appended to the end of the list (Figure 8), the list control word is updated, and program control advances to the second sequential location. The C(A) becomes the new ending item of the list. If the list is full the instruction is ignored and program control advances to the first sequential location.



## RBL Y

**REMOVE BEGINNING ITEM FROM LIST** – The list control word at core location Y is checked. If the list is not empty (e=0) the beginning item of the list is extracted (Figure 8) and replaces the contents of the A register. The list control word is then updated, and program control advances to the second sequential location. If the list is empty the instruction is ignored and program control advances to the first sequential location.



## REL Y

**REMOVE ENDING ITEM FROM LIST** — The list control word at core location Y is checked. If the list is not empty (e=0) the ending item of the list is extracted (Figure 8) and replaces the contents of the A register. The list control word is then updated, and program control advances to the second sequential location. If the list is empty the instruction is ignored and program control advances to the first sequential location.

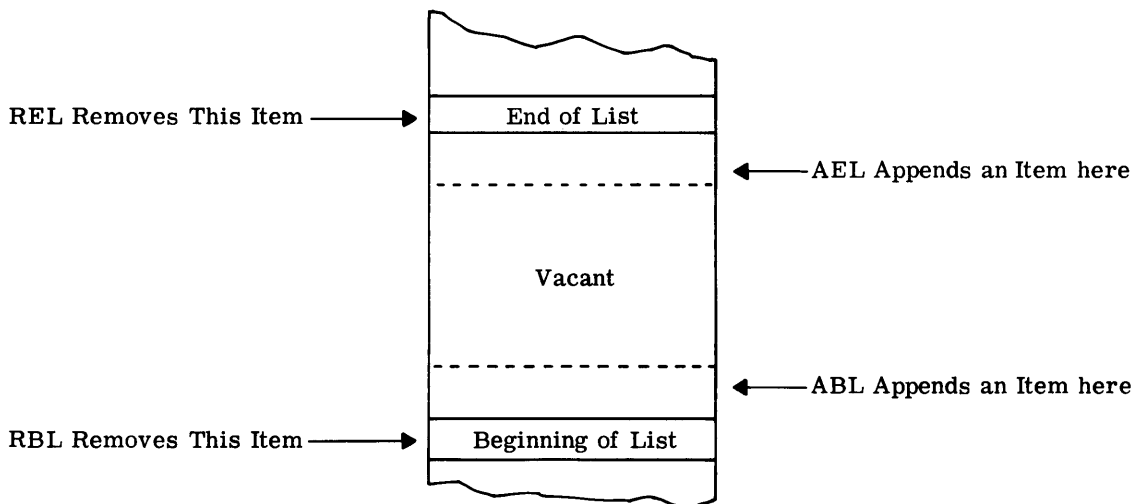
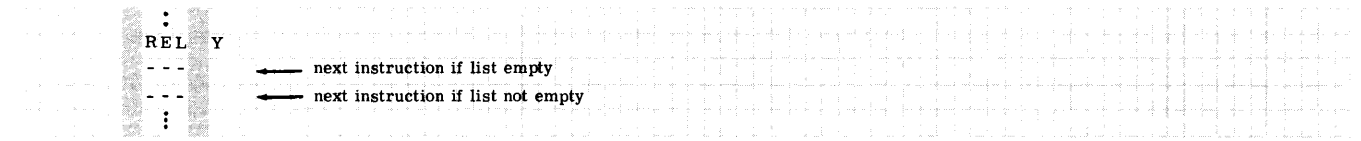


Figure 8. List Instructions

Example:

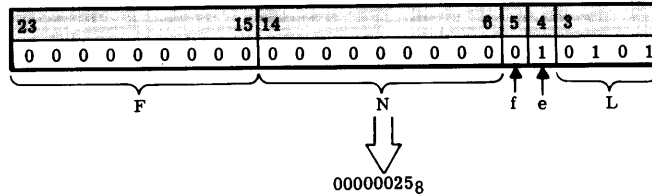
LISTA is the address of a sixty-four word list that is full. It is necessary to transfer its contents to two, empty, thirty-two word lists at locations LISTB and LISTC.

<pre> : NEXWRD RBL LISTA BRU EXIT AEL LISTB BRU * + 2 BRU NEXWRD AEL LISTC NOP BRU NEXWRD : </pre>	<pre> Beginning item → A Branch out when transfer complete C(A) → End of LISTB When List B full fill LISTC Fetch next item from LISTA C(A) → End of LISTC Will never be executed Fetch next item from LISTA </pre>
--	--

**BUILDING A LIST** — To build a list requires definition of a list control word and reservation of an appropriate area to hold its contents. To build a list control word determine the contents of each field in binary, convert the resulting word to octal, and define it in the program with a CON O pseudo-instruction. Reserve space with a BSS pseudo-instruction.

Example:

Define an empty list thirty-two words long. Develop the list control word;



and then place it in the program with adequate block storage.

```

LISTWD CON 0, 25
      BSS 32

```

When filling the list simply refer to LISTWD. With some further manipulation of the list control word and the addition of constants following it, a list may be partially or entirely filled at the time it is defined.

One of the benefits of the DEF pseudo-instruction described in the Appendix is that it can be used to define an operation which will set up list control words.



# PROGRAM INTERCOMMUNICATION

GE-PAC 4020 core memory is divided into two parts; working core and permanent core. Working core is used to run functional programs which are moved into core as required. Permanent core includes the RTMOS and an area called common core.

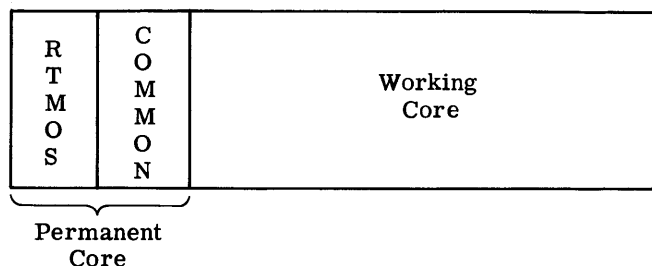


Figure 9. Division of Core Memory

Common core contains data, subroutines, etc. that are frequently used by two or more system programs.

The filling of common core is normally begun during the earlier stages of programming a process control system and continued throughout the project. It contains constants, variables, and the like which are labeled and appended to a common system symbol (equals) table. Each label is written on the coding form with an asterisk (\*) in column 7. The assembler program will equate each label with an absolute address, and add that label and its address to its common symbol table. Thereafter, programs that are assembled against the common symbol table may reference any common system symbol by simply calling its name.

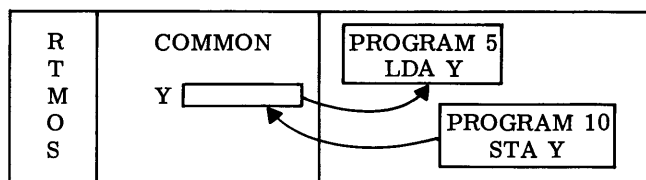


Fig. 10. Communicating variables through common core

Constants, subroutines, circular lists and tables of data that are frequently used by several system programs should be stored in common core.

Single variables, tables of variables, and logical data that must be passed between programs should also be stored in common core.

Bulk storage is organized in much the same way as core memory. There is an area for RTMOS, common data storage, and functional program storage. Constants, variables, subroutines, circular lists, and tables that are infrequently used by several programs should be stored in the common area of bulk

storage. When a running program requires information resident only in common bulk storage it will request the RTMOS to transfer that information into core.

Example: Build a common core area between /10000 and /10100. The following information is to be loaded into this common area:

CONST =  $5 \times 10^5$  (Floating Point)

PI = 3.1416 (Fixed Point)

X = Table of 30 variables to be filled later

SCANRD = To be determined later

DOUT = Table of 20 variables to be filled later

AOUT = Table of 10 variables to be filled later

The program written to do the job might look like this:

```

          ØRG / 1 0 0 0 0
CØNST *CØN F, 5 E 5
PI      *CØN D, 3 . 1 4 1 6
X       *BSS 3 0
SCANRD *BSS 1
DØUT   *BSS 2 0
AØUT   *BSS 1 0

```

The asterisk (\*) in column 7 designates those labels as common system symbols which may be used by any system program. An asterisk does not automatically cause the data to be placed in common core, however. To be placed in common core, data must be loaded into that area.

The remaining locations of common in this example are spares. After this program is assembled the resulting information will be fed into the computer, and loaded directly into CORE memory. For backup protection an additional copy of this data may also be placed on bulk. Future programs that use these common system symbols must be assembled with an 'equals table' that specifies the location of each common system symbol.

All input to and output from the GE-PAC 4020 computer is normally handled by the Real-Time Multi-programming Operating System. Complete instructions for its use are in the RTMOS manual.



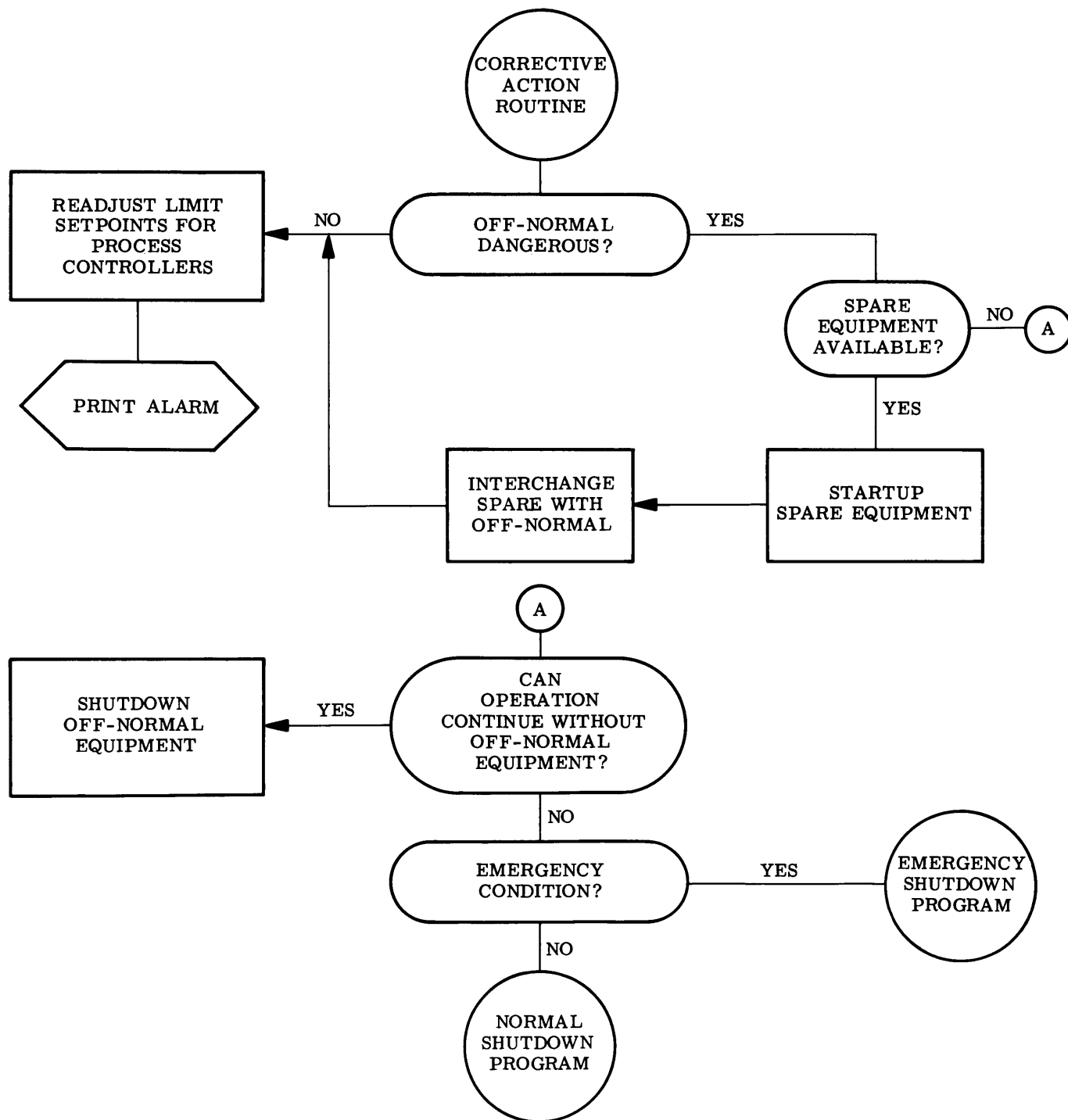
# SPECIAL DISCUSSIONS

## FLOW CHARTING

Before writing a program, organize the task using a flow chart. A flow chart logically describes

a series of operations to be performed, and permits finding major logic flaws before wasting any programming effort. An example of a flow chart is shown below.

Example: Flow chart for a corrective action routine.


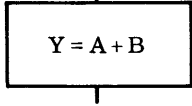

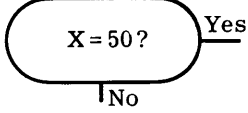


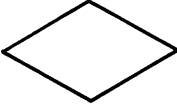
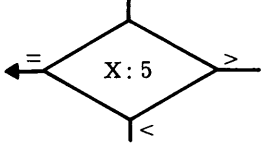
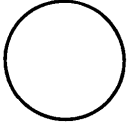
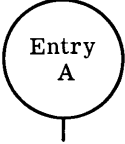
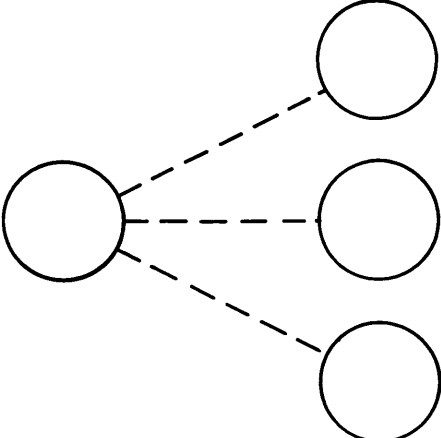
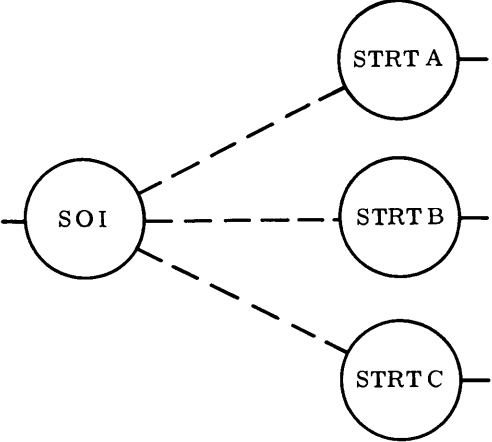


The general rules governing the use of flow charts are:

1. Always flow chart a program before writing it.

2. Flow charts should contain only a general description of the operations to be performed.

The following symbols are typically used in flowcharting problems for the GE-PAC 4020 process computer system.

<u>Symbol</u>	<u>Meaning</u>	<u>Example</u>
	Operation	
	Decision (2 way)	
	Subroutine	
	Comparison	
	Connector	
	Multiple Switch	

## BINARY ARITHMETIC

Probably because he has ten fingers, man has grown accustomed to a decimal (base ten) number system. Similarly, because a computer's logical components such as transistors and relays have two modes of operation, on or off, digital computers can easily use a binary number system. Since it is difficult to remember and recognize binary numbers, a third number system, octal, is used as an aid to interpretation.

The following table shows how to count in binary numbers. Where  $1_2$  means "one to the base two" or one represented in binary numbers, and

<u>BINARY</u>	=	<u>DECIMAL EQUIVALENT</u>
$0_2$	=	$0_{10}$
$1_2$	=	$1_{10}$
$10_2$	=	$2_{10}$
$11_2$	=	$3_{10}$
$100_2$	=	$4_{10}$
$101_2$	=	$5_{10}$
$110_2$	=	$6_{10}$
$111_2$	=	$7_{10}$
$1000_2$	=	$8_{10}$
$1001_2$	=	$9_{10}$
$1010_2$	=	$10_{10}$

$1_{10}$  means "one to the base 10" or one represented in decimal numbers.

The difference between the two is that in the decimal system a carry does not occur until we pass nine, whereas in a binary system a carry occurs when we pass one.

Binary numbers are difficult to read. Since it is alien to think in a system of ones and zeroes, we naturally look at a binary number and try to convert it to decimal in our head to more easily comprehend its meaning. However, the job of converting from binary directly to decimal is extremely difficult for most people.

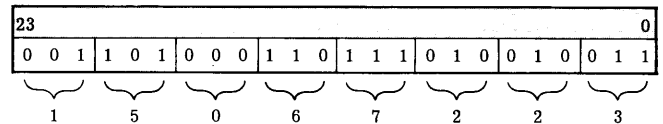
Realizing this problem someone developed a simple method of interpretation, the use of a base eight, or octal number system. Octal numbers are very well adapted to representing binary numbers and are close enough to the decimal system to be easily comprehensible. The example below shows the relationship between binary and octal numbers.

Notice that in the last step both systems had a carry.

<u>BINARY</u>	=	<u>OCTAL</u>
$0_2$	=	$0_8$
$1_2$	=	$1_8$
$10_2$	=	$2_8$
$11_2$	=	$3_8$
$100_2$	=	$4_8$
$101_2$	=	$5_8$
$110_2$	=	$6_8$
$111_2$	=	$7_8$
$1000_2$	=	$10_8$

We can see the significance of this now when we try to interpret the contents of a 24-bit GE-PAC word. Now we find that we can simply interpret the word three bits or binary numbers at a time. The result gives us a much easier method of representing 24 bits of information.

Example:



The general rule is to start at the binary point and interpret in groups of three to the left to find the whole number. Interpret to the right to find the fraction.

Example:

Binary Point								
10	101	100	001	000.	110	111	01	Binary Number
2	5	4	1	0.	6	7	2	Octal Equivalent

Assume that leading and trailing digits are zeroes when not shown. Remember that a binary number and its octal representation both represent the same numeric value.

Binary/octal translation is used in stepping through a program at the computer console to find an error. Through its console the computer will display patterns of lights on (ones) and off (zeroes) representing binary instruction codes, data, and core addresses, which are normally converted into octal numbers to work with.

Fortunately it is seldom necessary to make this conversion. When dealing with quantities, as distinguished from arbitrary codes and addresses, the computer nearly always performs the translation automatically.

Octal/Decimal Conversion

It is occasionally necessary to convert octal numbers to decimal numbers, and vice versa. The easiest way to do this is to refer to the tables listed in the Appendix. However, for reasons of size or desired accuracy it may be necessary to convert numbers not listed in the table. To do this we recommend the two methods described below.

- DECIMAL TO OCTAL -

To convert from decimal integers to octal integers, successively divide the remaining integer portions of any decimal integer by eight. The remainders, in inverse order, are the digits of the octal equivalent.

Example: Convert  $7631_{10}$  to its octal equivalent.

1. Set up the following diagram.

7631	

2. Divide 7631 by 8. Put the remainder on the right side of the line as shown below.

953	7
7631	

3. Divide 953 by 8

119	1
953	7
7631	

4. Divide 119 by 8

14	7
119	1
953	7
7631	

5. Divide 14 by 8

1	6
14	7
119	1
953	7
7631	

6. Divide 1 by 8

0	1
1	6
14	7
119	1
953	7
7631	

When there is a zero on the left side of the vertical line the conversion is complete.

The equivalent octal number is the string of remainders, read from top to bottom:

$$7631_{10} = 16717_8$$

To convert decimal fractions to octal fractions, successively multiply the fractional parts of the successive products by eight. Now the digits coming into the integer column, in descending order, form the digits of the equivalent octal fraction.

Example: Convert  $0.7296_{10}$  to octal

	7296	
5	8368	← $\times 8 \Rightarrow$
6	6944	← $\times 8 \Rightarrow$
5	5552	← $\times 8 \Rightarrow$
4	4416	← $\times 8 \Rightarrow$
	.	
	.	
	.	

The conversion can be continued as long as it is practical.

The most significant digits are placed in the integer column. They are not used in the next multiplication. These digits, read from top to bottom, form the octal fraction. Thus:  $0.7296_{10} = 0.5654_8$

The laws of significant digits and the rough similarity of the sizes of the bases suggest that the conversion stop when you have generated the same number of digits you were given.

- OCTAL TO DECIMAL -

Just as successive digits in a decimal number represent coefficients of successive powers of ten, so do successive octal digits represent coefficients of successive powers of eight. Thus the decimal equivalent of  $16717_8$  equals the sum of these terms:

$$\begin{array}{r}
 1 \times 8^4 = 4096_{10} \\
 +6 \times 8^3 = 3072_{10} \\
 +7 \times 8^2 = 448_{10} \\
 +1 \times 8^1 = 8_{10} \\
 +7 \times 8^0 = 7_{10} \\
 \hline
 7631_{10}
 \end{array}$$

Using the same principle we can convert octal fractions to decimal fractions. For example the decimal equivalent of  $0.5654_8$  equals the sums of these terms:

$$\begin{array}{r}
 5 \times 8^{-1} = .6250_{10} \\
 +6 \times 8^{-2} = .0936_{10} \\
 +5 \times 8^{-3} = .0100_{10} \\
 +4 \times 8^{-4} = .0010_{10} \\
 \hline
 .7296_{10}
 \end{array}$$

The powers of eight may be obtained from the powers of two table in the Appendix.

In summary, to convert from decimal to octal use the formula shown in the following example and read off the octals in descending order.

Example:

$\div 8$	0	7				
	7	5				
	61	2				
	490	7				
	3927	03610				
0	28880					
2	31040					
2	48320					
3	86560					
6	92480					
	.					

Thus:  $3927.03610_{10} = 7527.02236_8$

To convert from octal to decimal use a power of eight table as shown in the example below:

Example:

$$\begin{array}{r}
 1 \times 8^4 = 4096_{10} \\
 +6 \times 8^3 = 3072_{10} \\
 +7 \times 8^2 = 448_{10} \\
 +1 \times 8^1 = 8_{10} \\
 +7 \times 8^0 = 7_{10} \\
 +5 \times 8^{-1} = .6250_{10} \\
 +6 \times 8^{-2} = .0936_{10} \\
 +5 \times 8^{-3} = .0100_{10} \\
 +4 \times 8^{-4} = .0010_{10} \\
 \hline
 7631.7296_{10}
 \end{array}$$

### Negative Binary Numbers (Fixed Point)

All fixed-point negative numbers are represented in their two's complement form. The two's complement form of a given number is obtained by changing all zeroes to ones and all ones to zeroes and adding one as shown below.

Sign bit	0	010	111	011	100.	= 2734. <sub>8</sub>	
0 = +	1	101	000	100	011.	Reversing all digits	
1 = -						Add one	
					+1.		
		1	101	000	100	100.	= -2734. <sub>8</sub>

The one in the sign bit indicates that the data is negative and is represented in two's complement form. It turns out that by adding the two's complement of a number to given quantity you effectively subtract from that quantity.

Example:

0001101011111	+ 1537 <sub>8</sub>
+	
1111010100001	- 537 <sub>8</sub>
0001000000000	+ 1000 <sub>8</sub>
+ 1 0 0 0 <sub>8</sub>	

lost  
 (1) ←

Occasionally you may be faced with either expressing a negative number in two's complement form, or interpreting a number that is written in two's complement. When converting either way follow these two steps.

1. Change all zeroes to ones and ones to zeroes.
2. Add one to the least significant digit.



# APPENDIX I

## MIXED PROGRAMS

It is possible to freely mix PAL and Process FORTRAN statements in a GE-PAC 4020 program. Also, Process FORTRAN library subroutines may be used by PAL programs.

### Using the Coding Sheet

PAL and Process FORTRAN statements may be written together on the standard coding sheet. Use of the fields vary somewhat as shown below.

#### Writing statements in Process FORTRAN:



- A - Statement Number (C in column 1 indicates a comment; any non-zero character in column 6 indicates that the line is a continuation of the previous line.)
- B - Process FORTRAN Statement.
- C - Column 70 must contain a 7.
- D - May be used for program identification.

#### Writing in PAL:



- A - Location name.
- B - Location classification.
- C - Instruction name.
- D - Not used.
- E - Operand.
- F - Column 70 must contain a 6.
- G - May be used for program identification.

### Sharing Variables

Variables shared between the PAL and Process FORTRAN portions of a mixed program must be defined only once; either in PAL or in Process FORTRAN. The programmer defines variables in PAL by allocating storage areas for them either within the program, or in common core.

The compiler defines variables in Process FORTRAN by automatically allocating storage areas for them within the program. Therefore, if a variable is defined in PAL and later used in a Process FORTRAN statement, the programmer must tell the compiler not to re-define it. This is done with the Process FORTRAN DEFINE Statement described below.

```
DEFINE Fv1(Pv1), Fv2(Pv2),...
```

where: Fv<sub>1</sub>, Fv<sub>2</sub>, ... are the names of the Process FORTRAN variables

Pv<sub>1</sub>, Pv<sub>2</sub>, ... are the names of the corresponding PAL variables

When a Process FORTRAN variable is named in a DEFINE statement the compiler will not allocate storage area for it. Instead the compiler will use the storage area generated by the programmer for the PAL variable named within the parentheses.

The names of the Process FORTRAN variable and the PAL variable may be the same. If a number is used in place of a PAL name, the Process FORTRAN variable will use the core location referenced by that number as its storage area. The DEFINE statement should be placed just prior to the program's END statement.

Follow these general rules for treatment of variables in a mixed program:

1. If a variable is used only in the PAL portion of the program, allocate storage for it with a PAL pseudo-instruction.
2. If a variable is used only in the Process FORTRAN portion of the program, the compiler will automatically generate the necessary storage area.
3. If a variable which has been defined as a common system symbol is to be shared between the PAL and Process FORTRAN portions of a program, the PAL and Process FORTRAN names for the variable must be mentioned in a DEFINE statement.
4. If the variable which will be defined within the program is to be used both in PAL and Process FORTRAN either:
  - a. Allocate storage for it in PAL and mention it in a DEFINE statement, or,
  - b. Let the compiler allocate the required storage area.

### Referencing Statements

PAL and Process FORTRAN statements may be freely interspersed. However, the following rules should be followed when a PAL statement is referred to by a Process FORTRAN statement and vice versa.

To reference a PAL statement from a FORTRAN control statement, place an appropriately numbered CONTINUE statement immediately ahead of the PAL statement.

To reference a FORTRAN statement from a PAL branch instruction, place an appropriately labeled "BSS O" instruction immediately ahead of the FORTRAN statement.

Examples: Referencing Process FORTRAN from PAL:

```

:
:
:   BTS   CALC
:
CALC   BSS   0
:   GØØDRD = ( Z * Z ) + R * 2
:
:

```

Referencing PAL from Process FORTRAN:

```

:
:   IF ( B - 1 0 0 0 ) 1 , 2 , 2
1   TR 2 = A + TR 2 * B
:
:
:
2   CONTINUE
:   SPB   A LARM
:
:

```

### Saving Registers

When transferring from PAL into Process FORTRAN store the contents of A, Q, and index locations if they contain information that must be preserved. Process FORTRAN uses all of these registers and makes no effort to save and restore their contents.

# APPENDIX II

## OTHER PSEUDO-INSTRUCTIONS

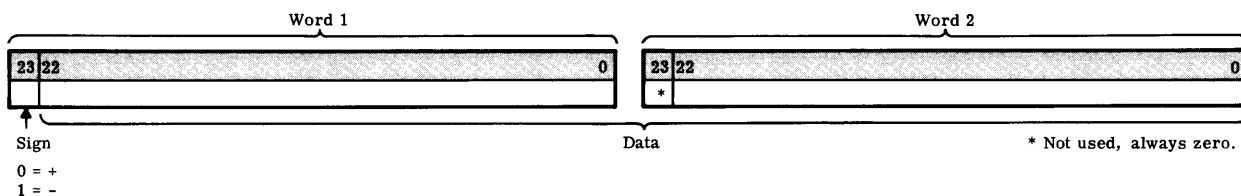
The pseudo-instructions described below are extensions of the ones described in chapter 6.

### Double-Word Constants

If, for reasons of greater precision, it is necessary to define decimal, floating point, or octal constants that cannot be expressed adequately in a single GE-PAC 4020 word, the pseudo-instructions described below may be used. The rules for their usage are essentially the same as those used to define their single-word counterparts.

DCN D, (Decimal Number)(Scale Factor)

**DOUBLE-WORD FIXED-POINT DECIMAL CONSTANT** – The decimal number specified is converted by the assembler into a binary number and stored in the double-word format shown below. The binary point is relative to the sign bit of the first word. The sign bit of the second word is set to zero and not used.



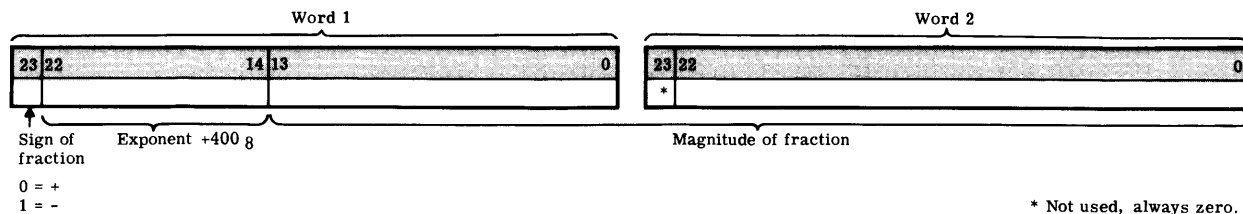
Since Bit 23 of word two is not used, Bit 22 of word two and Bit zero of word one are contiguous. Therefore, B23 is between Bit zero of word one and Bit 22 of word two. If B is not specified, B46 is assumed.

Example:

```
DCN D, 224 13 . 796 B30
DCN D, 491 872 4
```

DCN F, (Decimal Number)

**DOUBLE-WORD FLOATING-POINT CONSTANT** – The number specified is converted to binary by the assembler and stored in the format shown below.



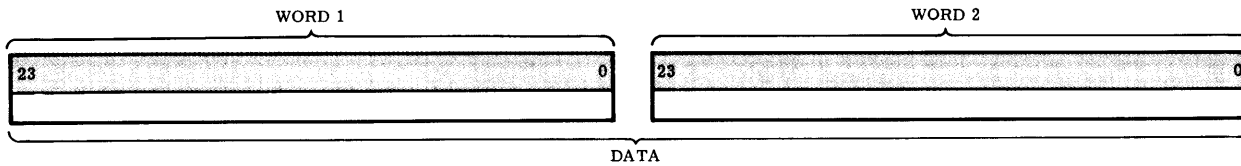
A binary exponent of zero is represented as 400g. Numbers below 400g represent negative exponents; numbers above represent positive ones.

**Examples:**

```
DCN F, -232764.5
DCN F, 49712.341E4
```

**DCN O, (Octal Integer)**

**DOUBLE-WORD OCTAL CONSTANT** – The octal integer specified is converted to binary and entered, right justified, into the double-word format shown below. All 48 bits of the two words are used for data, there is no sign.



**Examples:**

```
DCN O, 7777777774
DCN O, 324017521
```

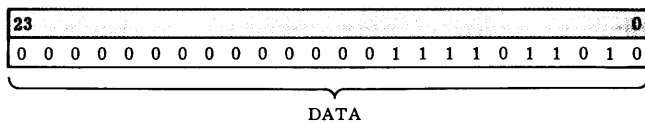
General Constant

**CON G, (Label or Integer)**

**GENERAL CONSTANT** – If a label is specified it must be defined as an integer value either in the program where the CON G is used or in the common system symbol table. The CON G causes the assembler to insert the integer or label value, right justified, into the program in place of the pseudo-instruction.

**Example:**

```
CON G, WORDA Where WORDA = /1732
```

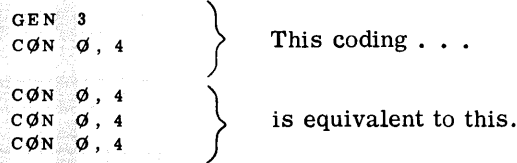


Generating Duplicate Instructions

GEN K

GENERATE DUPLICATES — Specifies to the assembler that the next instruction must appear K times. Symbols must be predefined.

Example:



NOTE: The GEN instruction cannot be used to duplicate any of the following PAL instructions:

ORG	CON A	DEF	LIB
BSS	GEN	SLW	IDN
DCW	EQL	END	

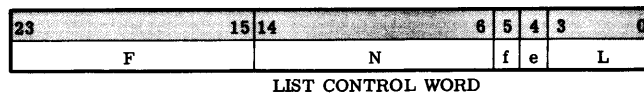
Page Positioning

SLW

SLEW PRINTER PAGE — Causes the assembler to position the listing at the top of the next page.

Defining a New Operation

Using the CON O pseudo-instruction it is possible to set up a fixed bit pattern within a word. Occasionally, however, it would be convenient to be able to build a word with fixed fields but still be able to insert variable data within those fields. For example, this capability would be handy in setting up list control words for circular lists. The format for a list control word is always the same as shown below it contains five operand fields, each with a unique position and a fixed length. The data within the word, however, may change as we specify different lists.



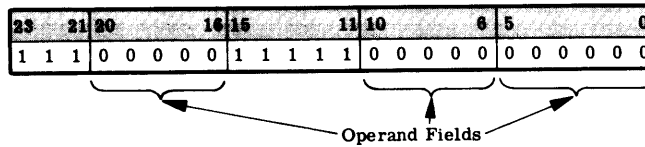
The DEF pseudo-instruction permits us to define an operation that will insert data into specific operand fields within a word. The following procedure is used to define a new operation:

- A. Set up the base octal.
- B. Assign audit codes to operand fields.
- C. Define the new operation.

This procedure is described in detail below.

- A. Set up the base octal.

The base octal for an operation is normally determined by defining the contents of the word which are not specified as operand fields. The contents of the operand fields themselves are usually set to zero. For example, we wish to define a new operation which will construct words with three operands as shown below; the bits not specified in operands must be set to one.



The resulting base octal for this word would be 70174000. In the case of defining an operation to set up a list control word the base octal would be 00000000, since all 24 bits of the word are included in operand fields.

**B. Assign audit codes to operand fields.**

Audit codes are used by the assembler program to determine operand field width and position within a word. There are 64 audit codes numbered from zero to sixty-three – the first 51 of these plus audit code 63 are already defined for use by the assembler and the RTMOS; the rest may be used by the programmer to define new operations.

In defining a new operation, each operand field width and its position must be assigned an audit code in the following manner.

(AUDIT CODE) DEF (OPERAND FIELD WIDTH), (ANCHOR BIT)

- (AUDIT CODE) - any decimal number from 51 up to and including 62.
- DEF - pseudo-instruction which assigns a field width and anchor bit to an audit code.
- (OPERAND FIELD WIDTH) - specifies the maximum width of an operand field within the word. This width is expressed as the largest octal number the field can contain; i.e., a five-bit operand width is indicated by 37, a two-bit operand width is indicated by 3.
- (ANCHOR BIT) - specifies the placement of the operand within the word. It is the number of the right-most bit in that operand field.

**Example:** In the process of defining an operation to set up list control words, the following audit code assignment is necessary.

62	DEF / 777, 15	← specifies the 'F' operand field
61	DEF / 777, 6	← specifies the 'N' operand field
60	DEF / 1, 5	← specifies the 'f' operand field
59	DEF / 1, 4	← specifies the 'e' operand field
58	DEF / 17, 0	← specifies the 'L' operand field

**C. Define the new operation.**

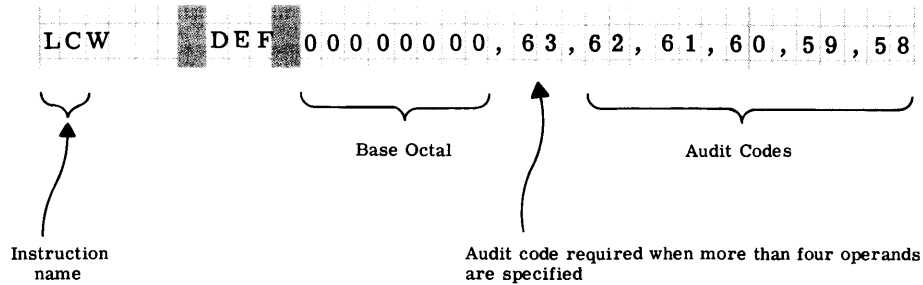
To do this we use the following general form.

(OPERATION NAME) DEF (BASE OCTAL), (FIRST AUDIT CODE), (SECOND AUDIT CODE), ETC.

The operation name may be any three letter combination not already used for a PAL instruction or pseudo-instruction.

If more than four audit codes are specified, they must be preceded by audit code No. 63. A maximum of 12 operand fields are permissible.

**Example:** With the information previously determined in steps one and two, the operation to build list control words may be defined. Assume that the name of the new operation will be LCW.



After this new operation has been defined it may be used to build any list control word.

**Example:** The new operation to build list control words has been previously defined and it is necessary to define an empty list thirty-two words long. The following parameters for the word are necessary.

- F = 0 since beginning item is at list location zero.
- N = 0 since there are no items currently in the list.
- f = 0 since list is not full.
- e = 1 since list is empty.
- L = 5 since list size is 32.

With these parameters, the list control word may be specified.

```
LISTA LCW 0, 0, 0, 1, 5
```

When this is read by the assembler it will generate the appropriate octal word (00000025) and insert it in the place of LCW, and associate the name LISTA with that word.

We have used the definition of list control words as an example to show how an operation is defined. New operations may also be defined for many other purposes — specifying scanner control words, packed tables, and even defining instructions to be executed when the program is run.

The following general rules should be observed when defining new operations.

1. DEF may not be used to substitute new definitions for standard PAL instructions or pseudo-instructions.
2. Operands of the DEF instruction itself may be written in decimal, octal, or symbolic. However, all symbols must be previously defined. All operands are considered absolute.
3. Operands for newly defined op codes follow the usual rules for translation as absolute or relative symbolics.
4. Audit codes must be numeric.
5. Audit codes 51-62 may be defined. It is recommended that the programmer start with 62 and number in reverse.
6. Audit codes and op codes not reserved for PAL may be redefined within a program as often as the programmer desires.
7. New op codes, audit codes, and their audit code definitions are made a part of the common system symbol table which may be preserved for subsequent assemblies.

**Error conditions** — When an illegal attempt is made to define an op code or audit code the assembler will ignore the attempt and print a location error flag (L) on the listing.





# APPENDIX III

## INSTRUCTION FORMATS

Instructions, like data, must be represented in standard formats. It is helpful to know the formats for these instructions when machine level decoding is necessary. The formats and instruction codes for specific instructions are described in detail in the Instruction Reference Manual. There are four general types of hardware instructions in the GE-PAC 4020 computer; full operand, GEN 1, GEN 2, and GEN 3.

### Full Operand Instructions

Full operand instructions are used to perform arithmetic operations, data transfers, bit counting, masking, etc.

23	18	17	15	14	13				0
Op Code		X	*	K or Y					

OP - Operation code for the instruction

X - Index location number, if used

\* - If set, relative addressing occurs

K or Y - Operand

### GEN 1 Instructions

GEN 1 instructions are used for bit manipulation of the A register; shifting right, bit counting, masking, etc.

23	18	17	15	14		5	4		0
Op Code		X	G			K			

OP - Operation code for all GEN 1 instructions is  $05_8$

X - Index location number, if used

G - Micro-coding designating the function of the command

K - Operand

### GEN 2 Instructions

GEN 2 instructions are used for certain forms of input and output.

23	18	17	15	14	12	11			0
Op Code		X	G		D				

OP - Operation code for all GEN 2 instructions is  $25_8$

X - Index location number, if used

G - Subcommand to the computer or the I/O device

D - I/O device address

### GEN 3 Instructions

GEN 3 instructions are used for shifting A and Q in either direction or shifting A to the left.

23	18	17	15	14	5	4	0
Op Code		X	G			K	

OP - Operation code for all GEN 3 instructions is  $45_8$

X - Index location number, if used

G - Microcoding designating the function of the command

K - Operand

Examples: Where Y = /500

<u>INSTRUCTION</u>	<u>OCTAL REPRESENTATION</u>
LDA Y	0 0 0 0 0 5 0 0
STA Y + 1	3 2 0 0 0 5 0 1
STA Y+1, 3	3 2 3 0 0 5 0 1
BRU *+2	1 4 0 4 0 0 0 2
LDA *Y+1, 5	0 0 5 4 0 5 0 1
RBK 5	0 5 0 4 5 0 0 5
SRA 7, 3	0 5 3 1 4 0 4 7
SOD 14	0 5 0 0 4 5 1 6
SLA 10, 5	4 5 5 0 2 0 5 2
MAQ	4 5 0 0 4 3 3 0

### Quasi Instructions

A feature of the GE-PAC 4020 computer is its ability to use quasi instructions. Most instructions are executed by hardware. Quasi's are implemented by software; instead of a hardware operation, they call for the execution of a subroutine to perform their function. The Instruction Reference Manual points out the various quasi's implemented on the GE-PAC 4020 computer.

# APPENDIX IV

## ASSEMBLER ERROR FLAGS

The PAL assembler performs validity tests on each instruction. When errors or suspected errors are detected, one of the following indicators will appear on the output listing.

FLAG	DEFINITION	CAUSE
L	Location Field Error	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. First character of the label is not alphabetic.</li> <li>2. Using the DEF pseudo-instruction when:               <ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>a. The operation name assigned is a GE-PAC machine operation.</li> <li>b. Requesting "extra operands" definition when operation name has been previously defined as a machine operation.</li> <li>c. There is an illegal audit code number.</li> </ol> </li> <li>3. Location field is blank when a symbol is required.</li> <li>4. Location field contains a symbol when not allowed.</li> <li>5. Label not found in the table, probably due to overflow of the table on the first pass.</li> </ol>
O	Operation Field Error	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. The op code not part of the language or was not added to the table through the DEF pseudo-instruction. This often occurs when definition was attempted but was illegal. Consequently, it was not added to the operation table.</li> <li>2. This op code cannot be GENERATED.</li> </ol>
I	Illegal Operand	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Blank operand when an operand is required.</li> <li>2. Operand not blank when it should have been.</li> <li>3. One or more required operands missing.</li> <li>4. Too many operands.</li> <li>5. Operand value too large.</li> <li>6. Negative operand value in an instruction that will not accept one.</li> <li>7. Illegal constant.</li> </ol>
X	Index Word Error	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Index word 1 or 2 specified.</li> <li>2. Required index missing.</li> <li>3. Specified index word is greater than seven.</li> </ol>

### ASSEMBLY ERROR FLAGS (CONT.)

FLAG	DEFINITION	CAUSE
U	Undefined Symbol	Occurs only when a symbol appears in the operand field and: <ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. It never appeared in the location field or on the common symbol tape.</li> <li>2. It appeared in the location field, but the symbol table was full at the time.</li> </ol>
C	Illegal Character	An illegal character was found in the location, op code, or operand field.
M	Multiply-defined Symbol	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. A symbol in location field was flagged because:               <ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>a. It has appeared in the location field of a previous statement.</li> <li>b. It appeared on the requested EQL tape with a value unequal to the one being assigned.</li> <li>c. It was saved from a previous assembly with a value unequal to the one being assigned.</li> </ol> </li> <li>2. Any record which references a multiply-defined symbol in the operand field will also be flagged.</li> </ol>
2	Second Pass Definition of Symbol Different from First Pass	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Symbol was not defined prior to use in operand of a BSS, EQL, or GEN pseudo-instruction.</li> <li>2. Occasionally the result of a Multiply-defined Symbol.</li> </ol>
R	Relative Operand Error	Operand value was relative and should normally be absolute for this operation.
F	Tables Full	Assembler has room to store a fixed number of symbols. This flag occurs when a program, symbols exceed the capacity of the assembler.

# APPENDIX V

## OCTAL/DECIMAL CONVERSION TABLE

There are two tables in this section, one for integers, and one for fractions. To convert a number from octal to decimal, or vice versa:

1. Obtain the integer portion from the integer table.
2. Obtain the fractional portion from the fraction table.

Example:

Find the octal equivalent of  $1794.3613_{10}$

From the integer table on page 77.

Octal	0	1	2	3
3400	1792	1793	1794	
3410	1800	1801		

$$1794_{10} = 3400_8 + 2_8 = 3402_8$$

From the fraction table on page 82.

Octal	Decimal
.270	.359375
.271	.361328
.272	.363281
.273	.365234

$$.361_{10} = .271_8$$

The accuracy of the conversion could be improved by interpolation. Putting the integer and fractional portions together:

$$1794.361_{10} = 3402.271_8$$

When converting numbers greater than  $4095_{10}$  or  $7777_8$  use the block at the top of integer tables to break out the largest portion of the number. Evaluate the rest using the integer tables.

Example: Find the decimal equivalent of  $40741_8$

Octal	10000	20000	30000	40000
Decimal	4096	8192	12288	16384

$$\begin{array}{r}
 40000_8 = 16384_{10} \\
 \quad 741_8 = \quad 481_{10} \\
 \hline
 40741_8 = 16865_{10}
 \end{array}$$











## Octal-Decimal Fraction Conversion Table

OCTAL	DECIMAL	OCTAL	DECIMAL	OCTAL	DECIMAL	OCTAL	DECIMAL
.000000	.000000	.000100	.000244	.000200	.000488	.000300	.000732
.000001	.000003	.000101	.000247	.000201	.000492	.000301	.000736
.000002	.000007	.000102	.000251	.000202	.000495	.000302	.000740
.000003	.000011	.000103	.000255	.000203	.000499	.000303	.000743
.000004	.000015	.000104	.000259	.000204	.000503	.000304	.000747
.000005	.000019	.000105	.000263	.000205	.000507	.000305	.000751
.000006	.000022	.000106	.000267	.000206	.000511	.000306	.000755
.000007	.000026	.000107	.000270	.000207	.000514	.000307	.000759
.000010	.000030	.000110	.000274	.000210	.000518	.000310	.000762
.000011	.000034	.000111	.000278	.000211	.000522	.000311	.000766
.000012	.000038	.000112	.000282	.000212	.000526	.000312	.000770
.000013	.000041	.000113	.000286	.000213	.000530	.000313	.000774
.000014	.000045	.000114	.000289	.000214	.000534	.000314	.000778
.000015	.000049	.000115	.000293	.000215	.000537	.000315	.000782
.000016	.000053	.000116	.000297	.000216	.000541	.000316	.000785
.000017	.000057	.000117	.000301	.000217	.000545	.000317	.000789
.000020	.000061	.000120	.000305	.000220	.000549	.000320	.000793
.000021	.000064	.000121	.000308	.000221	.000553	.000321	.000797
.000022	.000068	.000122	.000312	.000222	.000556	.000322	.000801
.000023	.000072	.000123	.000316	.000223	.000560	.000323	.000805
.000024	.000076	.000124	.000320	.000224	.000564	.000324	.000808
.000025	.000080	.000125	.000324	.000225	.000568	.000325	.000812
.000026	.000083	.000126	.000328	.000226	.000572	.000326	.000816
.000027	.000087	.000127	.000331	.000227	.000576	.000327	.000820
.000030	.000091	.000130	.000335	.000230	.000579	.000330	.000823
.000031	.000095	.000131	.000339	.000231	.000583	.000331	.000827
.000032	.000099	.000132	.000343	.000232	.000587	.000332	.000831
.000033	.000102	.000133	.000347	.000233	.000591	.000333	.000835
.000034	.000106	.000134	.000350	.000234	.000595	.000334	.000839
.000035	.000110	.000135	.000354	.000235	.000598	.000335	.000843
.000036	.000114	.000136	.000358	.000236	.000602	.000336	.000846
.000037	.000118	.000137	.000362	.000237	.000606	.000337	.000850
.000040	.000122	.000140	.000366	.000240	.000610	.000340	.000854
.000041	.000125	.000141	.000370	.000241	.000614	.000341	.000858
.000042	.000129	.000142	.000373	.000242	.000617	.000342	.000862
.000043	.000133	.000143	.000377	.000243	.000621	.000343	.000865
.000044	.000137	.000144	.000381	.000244	.000625	.000344	.000869
.000045	.000141	.000145	.000385	.000245	.000629	.000345	.000873
.000046	.000144	.000146	.000389	.000246	.000633	.000346	.000877
.000047	.000148	.000147	.000392	.000247	.000637	.000347	.000881
.000050	.000152	.000150	.000396	.000250	.000640	.000350	.000885
.000051	.000156	.000151	.000400	.000251	.000644	.000351	.000888
.000052	.000160	.000152	.000404	.000252	.000648	.000352	.000892
.000053	.000164	.000153	.000408	.000253	.000652	.000353	.000896
.000054	.000167	.000154	.000411	.000254	.000656	.000354	.000900
.000055	.000171	.000155	.000415	.000255	.000659	.000355	.000904
.000056	.000175	.000156	.000419	.000256	.000663	.000356	.000907
.000057	.000179	.000157	.000423	.000257	.000667	.000357	.000911
.000060	.000183	.000160	.000427	.000260	.000671	.000360	.000915
.000061	.000186	.000161	.000431	.000261	.000675	.000361	.000919
.000062	.000190	.000162	.000434	.000262	.000679	.000362	.000923
.000063	.000194	.000163	.000438	.000263	.000682	.000363	.000926
.000064	.000198	.000164	.000442	.000264	.000686	.000364	.000930
.000065	.000202	.000165	.000446	.000265	.000690	.000365	.000934
.000066	.000205	.000166	.000450	.000266	.000694	.000366	.000938
.000067	.000209	.000167	.000453	.000267	.000698	.000367	.000942
.000070	.000213	.000170	.000457	.000270	.000701	.000370	.000946
.000071	.000217	.000171	.000461	.000271	.000705	.000371	.000949
.000072	.000221	.000172	.000465	.000272	.000709	.000372	.000953
.000073	.000225	.000173	.000469	.000273	.000713	.000373	.000957
.000074	.000228	.000174	.000473	.000274	.000717	.000374	.000961
.000075	.000232	.000175	.000476	.000275	.000720	.000375	.000965
.000076	.000236	.000176	.000480	.000276	.000724	.000376	.000968
.000077	.000240	.000177	.000484	.000277	.000728	.000377	.000972

## Octal-Decimal Fraction Conversion Table

OCTAL	DECIMAL	OCTAL	DECIMAL	OCTAL	DECIMAL	OCTAL	DECIMAL
.000400	.000976	.000500	.001220	.000600	.001464	.000700	.001708
.000401	.000980	.000501	.001224	.000601	.001468	.000701	.001712
.000402	.000984	.000502	.001228	.000602	.001472	.000702	.001716
.000403	.000988	.000503	.001232	.000603	.001476	.000703	.001720
.000404	.000991	.000504	.001235	.000604	.001480	.000704	.001724
.000405	.000995	.000505	.001239	.000605	.001483	.000705	.001728
.000406	.000999	.000506	.001243	.000606	.001487	.000706	.001731
.000407	.001003	.000507	.001247	.000607	.001491	.000707	.001735
.000410	.001007	.000510	.001251	.000610	.001495	.000710	.001739
.000411	.001010	.000511	.001255	.000611	.001499	.000711	.001743
.000412	.001014	.000512	.001258	.000612	.001502	.000712	.001747
.000413	.001018	.000513	.001262	.000613	.001506	.000713	.001750
.000414	.001022	.000514	.001266	.000614	.001510	.000714	.001754
.000415	.001026	.000515	.001270	.000615	.001514	.000715	.001758
.000416	.001029	.000516	.001274	.000616	.001518	.000716	.001762
.000417	.001033	.000517	.001277	.000617	.001522	.000717	.001766
.000420	.001037	.000520	.001281	.000620	.001525	.000720	.001770
.000421	.001041	.000521	.001285	.000621	.001529	.000721	.001773
.000422	.001045	.000522	.001289	.000622	.001533	.000722	.001777
.000423	.001049	.000523	.001293	.000623	.001537	.000723	.001781
.000424	.001052	.000524	.001296	.000624	.001541	.000724	.001785
.000425	.001056	.000525	.001300	.000625	.001544	.000725	.001789
.000426	.001060	.000526	.001304	.000626	.001548	.000726	.001792
.000427	.001064	.000527	.001308	.000627	.001552	.000727	.001796
.000430	.001068	.000530	.001312	.000630	.001556	.000730	.001800
.000431	.001071	.000531	.001316	.000631	.001560	.000731	.001804
.000432	.001075	.000532	.001319	.000632	.001564	.000732	.001808
.000433	.001079	.000533	.001323	.000633	.001567	.000733	.001811
.000434	.001083	.000534	.001327	.000634	.001571	.000734	.001815
.000435	.001087	.000535	.001331	.000635	.001575	.000735	.001819
.000436	.001091	.000536	.001335	.000636	.001579	.000736	.001823
.000437	.001094	.000537	.001338	.000637	.001583	.000737	.001827
.000440	.001098	.000540	.001342	.000640	.001586	.000740	.001831
.000441	.001102	.000541	.001346	.000641	.001590	.000741	.001834
.000442	.001106	.000542	.001350	.000642	.001594	.000742	.001838
.000443	.001110	.000543	.001354	.000643	.001598	.000743	.001842
.000444	.001113	.000544	.001358	.000644	.001602	.000744	.001846
.000445	.001117	.000545	.001361	.000645	.001605	.000745	.001850
.000446	.001121	.000546	.001365	.000646	.001609	.000746	.001853
.000447	.001125	.000547	.001369	.000647	.001613	.000747	.001857
.000450	.001129	.000550	.001373	.000650	.001617	.000750	.001861
.000451	.001132	.000551	.001377	.000651	.001621	.000751	.001865
.000452	.001136	.000552	.001380	.000652	.001625	.000752	.001869
.000453	.001140	.000553	.001384	.000653	.001628	.000753	.001873
.000454	.001144	.000554	.001388	.000654	.001632	.000754	.001876
.000455	.001148	.000555	.001392	.000655	.001636	.000755	.001880
.000456	.001152	.000556	.001396	.000656	.001640	.000756	.001884
.000457	.001155	.000557	.001399	.000657	.001644	.000757	.001888
.000460	.001159	.000560	.001403	.000660	.001647	.000760	.001892
.000461	.001163	.000561	.001407	.000661	.001651	.000761	.001895
.000462	.001167	.000562	.001411	.000662	.001655	.000762	.001899
.000463	.001171	.000563	.001415	.000663	.001659	.000763	.001903
.000464	.001174	.000564	.001419	.000664	.001663	.000764	.001907
.000465	.001178	.000565	.001422	.000665	.001667	.000765	.001911
.000466	.001182	.000566	.001426	.000666	.001670	.000766	.001914
.000467	.001186	.000567	.001430	.000667	.001674	.000767	.001918
.000470	.001190	.000570	.001434	.000670	.001678	.000770	.001922
.000471	.001194	.000571	.001438	.000671	.001682	.000771	.001926
.000472	.001197	.000572	.001441	.000672	.001686	.000772	.001930
.000473	.001201	.000573	.001445	.000673	.001689	.000773	.001934
.000474	.001205	.000574	.001449	.000674	.001693	.000774	.001937
.000475	.001209	.000575	.001453	.000675	.001697	.000775	.001941
.000476	.001213	.000576	.001457	.000676	.001701	.000776	.001945
.000477	.001216	.000577	.001461	.000677	.001705	.000777	.001949

## Octal-Decimal Fraction Conversion Table

OCTAL	DECIMAL	OCTAL	DECIMAL	OCTAL	DECIMAL	OCTAL	DECIMAL
.000	.000000	.100	.125000	.200	.250000	.300	.375000
.001	.001953	.101	.126953	.201	.251953	.301	.376953
.002	.003906	.102	.128906	.202	.253906	.302	.378906
.003	.005859	.103	.130859	.203	.255859	.303	.380859
.004	.007812	.104	.132812	.204	.257812	.304	.382812
.005	.009765	.105	.134765	.205	.259765	.305	.384765
.006	.011718	.106	.136718	.206	.261718	.306	.386718
.007	.013671	.107	.138671	.207	.263671	.307	.388671
.010	.015625	.110	.140625	.210	.265625	.310	.390625
.011	.017578	.111	.142578	.211	.267578	.311	.392578
.012	.019531	.112	.144531	.212	.269531	.312	.394531
.013	.021484	.113	.146484	.213	.271484	.313	.396484
.014	.023437	.114	.148437	.214	.273437	.314	.398437
.015	.025390	.115	.150390	.215	.275390	.315	.400390
.016	.027343	.116	.152343	.216	.277343	.316	.402343
.017	.029296	.117	.154296	.217	.279296	.317	.404296
.020	.031250	.120	.156250	.220	.281250	.320	.406250
.021	.033203	.121	.158203	.221	.283203	.321	.408203
.022	.035156	.122	.160156	.222	.285156	.322	.410156
.023	.037109	.123	.162109	.223	.287109	.323	.412109
.024	.039062	.124	.164062	.224	.289062	.324	.414062
.025	.041015	.125	.166015	.225	.291015	.325	.416015
.026	.042968	.126	.167968	.226	.292968	.326	.417968
.027	.044921	.127	.169921	.227	.294921	.327	.419921
.030	.046875	.130	.171875	.230	.296875	.330	.421875
.031	.048828	.131	.173828	.231	.298828	.331	.423828
.032	.050781	.132	.175781	.232	.300781	.332	.425781
.033	.052734	.133	.177734	.233	.302734	.333	.427734
.034	.054687	.134	.179687	.234	.304687	.334	.429687
.035	.056640	.135	.181640	.235	.306640	.335	.431640
.036	.058593	.136	.183593	.236	.308593	.336	.433593
.037	.060546	.137	.185546	.237	.310546	.337	.435546
.040	.062500	.140	.187500	.240	.312500	.340	.437500
.041	.064453	.141	.189453	.241	.314453	.341	.439453
.042	.066406	.142	.191406	.242	.316406	.342	.441406
.043	.068359	.143	.193359	.243	.318359	.343	.443359
.044	.070312	.144	.195312	.244	.320312	.344	.445312
.045	.072265	.145	.197265	.245	.322265	.345	.447265
.046	.074218	.146	.199218	.246	.324218	.346	.449218
.047	.076171	.147	.201171	.247	.326171	.347	.451171
.050	.078125	.150	.203125	.250	.328125	.350	.453125
.051	.080078	.151	.205078	.251	.330078	.351	.455078
.052	.082031	.152	.207031	.252	.332031	.352	.457031
.053	.083984	.153	.208984	.253	.333984	.353	.458984
.054	.085937	.154	.210937	.254	.335937	.354	.460937
.055	.087890	.155	.212890	.255	.337890	.355	.462890
.056	.089843	.156	.214843	.256	.339843	.356	.464843
.057	.091796	.157	.216796	.257	.341796	.357	.466796
.060	.093750	.160	.218750	.260	.343750	.360	.468750
.061	.095703	.161	.220703	.261	.345703	.361	.470703
.062	.097656	.162	.222656	.262	.347656	.362	.472656
.063	.099609	.163	.224609	.263	.349609	.363	.474609
.064	.101562	.164	.226562	.264	.351562	.364	.476562
.065	.103515	.165	.228515	.265	.353515	.365	.478515
.066	.105468	.166	.230468	.266	.355468	.366	.480468
.067	.107421	.167	.232421	.267	.357421	.367	.482421
.070	.109375	.170	.234375	.270	.359375	.370	.484375
.071	.111328	.171	.236328	.271	.361328	.371	.486328
.072	.113281	.172	.238281	.272	.363281	.372	.488281
.073	.115234	.173	.240234	.273	.365234	.373	.490234
.074	.117187	.174	.242187	.274	.367187	.374	.492187
.075	.119140	.175	.244140	.275	.369140	.375	.494140
.076	.121093	.176	.246093	.276	.371093	.376	.496093
.077	.123046	.177	.248046	.277	.373046	.377	.498046

## Table of Powers of 2

$2^n$	$n$	$2^{-n}$
1	0	1.0
2	1	0.5
4	2	0.25
8	3	0.125
16	4	0.062 5
32	5	0.031 25
64	6	0.015 625
128	7	0.007 812 5
256	8	0.003 906 25
512	9	0.001 953 125
1 024	10	0.000 976 562 5
2 048	11	0.000 488 281 25
4 096	12	0.000 244 140 625
8 192	13	0.000 122 070 312 5
16 384	14	0.000 061 035 156 25
32 768	15	0.000 030 517 578 125
65 536	16	0.000 015 258 789 062 5
131 072	17	0.000 007 629 394 531 25
262 144	18	0.000 003 814 697 265 625
524 288	19	0.000 001 907 348 632 812 5
1 048 576	20	0.000 000 953 674 316 406 25
2 097 152	21	0.000 000 476 837 158 203 125
4 194 304	22	0.000 000 238 418 579 101 562 5
8 388 608	23	0.000 000 119 209 289 550 781 25
16 777 216	24	0.000 000 059 604 644 775 390 625
33 554 432	25	0.000 000 029 802 322 387 695 312 5
67 108 864	26	0.000 000 014 901 161 193 847 656 25
134 217 728	27	0.000 000 007 450 580 596 923 828 125
268 435 456	28	0.000 000 003 725 290 298 461 914 062 5
536 870 912	29	0.000 000 001 862 645 149 230 957 031 25
1 073 741 824	30	0.000 000 000 931 322 574 615 478 515 625
2 147 483 648	31	0.000 000 000 465 661 287 307 739 257 812 5
4 294 967 296	32	0.000 000 000 232 830 643 653 869 628 906 25
8 589 934 592	33	0.000 000 000 116 415 321 826 934 814 453 125
17 179 869 184	34	0.000 000 000 058 207 660 913 467 407 226 562 5
34 359 738 368	35	0.000 000 000 029 103 830 456 733 703 613 281 25
68 719 476 736	36	0.000 000 000 014 551 915 228 366 851 806 640 625
137 438 953 472	37	0.000 000 000 007 275 957 614 183 425 903 320 312 5
274 877 906 944	38	0.000 000 000 003 637 978 807 091 712 951 660 156 25
549 755 813 888	39	0.000 000 000 001 818 989 403 545 856 475 830 078 125
1 099 511 627 776	40	0.000 000 000 000 909 494 701 772 928 237 915 039 062 5



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