COMPUTER DESIGN THE MAGAZINE OF MODERN DIGITAL ELECTRONICS

DECEMBER 1967



Vice President — Manufacturing 4 N. 57 To. C. BROWN 2 MHZ 4 PACS ARE THE YOU'RE RIGHT! WE CAN USE 80% OF THE CUT COST SUTO AUSWER THEM FOR LET'S THE TO ASAP. HOMEYWELL ASAP. 125 SYSTEM. 17. 50 1 4 J.L Low-cost 2MHz µ-PACS...

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1



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Computer Design is published monthly. Copyright 1967 by Computer Design Publishing Corporation. Accepted as controlled circulation publication at Post Office at Boston, Massachusetts. No material may be reprinted without permission. Postmaster: CHANGE OF ADDRESS — FORM 3579 to be sent to Computer Design, Circulation Dept., P. O. Box A. Winchester, Mass. 01890. Subscription rate to nonqualified subscribers is \$15.00 per year; \$1.50 per issue. Subscription rate to all foreign subscribers is \$25.00 per year; \$2.50 per copy.



Circulation over 32,000

COMPUTER DESIGN

THE MAGAZINE OF MODERN DIGITAL ELECTRONICS

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WESTINGHOUSE PRODAC 50 A COMPUTER SYSTEM IS BEING USED FOR NATURAL GAS DIS-PATCHING AND REMOTE CONTROL OF SYSTEM PRESSURES by the United Gas Improvement Company of Philadelphia, Pa. The equipment went into operation recently at Reading, the center of UGI's gas territory. In this unique application, the Prodac equipment acts as brain for a telemetering system that measures the flow of gas and controls certain pressures in a pipeline system covering a territory of about 2400 square miles. The computer's real-time operations result in a more economical flow of gas from transmission company lines through UGI's vast distribution system to its customers. The computer also gives UGI officials up-tothe-minute reports on purchases, sales, and storage of gas for demand control and bookkeeping purposes. According to G. Chris Turner, general manager of the Westinghouse Computer Systems Division, the Westinghouse Prodac 50 was selected because it is the only computer control system capable of doing the job at a cost low enough to be economically advantageous to the utility.

.....................

COMPUTER GRAPHIC SYSTEMS REACH ECONOMICAL LEVEL— Aerospace firms can economically employ computer graphic systems available on today's market which permit an engineer to communicate directly with a computer during the design process.

INDUSTRY NEWS

This conclusion was drawn in face of disagreement in many aerospace management circles on the cost of using such systems, by Thurber J. Moffett, senior staff engineer for man-computer interactive systems at TRW Systems Group, Redondo Beach, California.

Moffett addressed an afternoon session of the weeklong annual meeting of the American Institute of Aeronautics and Astronautics held at Anaheim, Calif., October 23rd through the 27th. "Now that the feasibility and applicability of computer graphic systems have been successfully demonstrated," he said, "Firms with large manpower requirements to produce engineering drawings, are seriously beginning to evaluate computerized drafting as a means to increase drawing output."

He then furnished a general method of analyzing the recurring costs and savings when such systems are employed by aerospace firms, where engineers typically spend the majority of their work days at a drafting board, and where engineering drawings are a principle output.

The analysis concerned the different ways such personnel now spend their time, and how computer graphic systems might be expected to reduce that time. Moffett related the number of graphic consoles that can be employed for the amount that is saved by their use, to an operational savings, loss, or break-even point.



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CIRCLE NO. 22 ON INQUIRY CARD

He concluded that even the systems available today can be economical to the user. However, he stated, "These systems are far less efficient than systems that will be ready within two years."

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PATENT ABSTRACTS JOURNAL-The Patent Office, U.S. Department of Commerce, will begin publication January 2, 1968 of a weekly journal to contain abstracts and drawings of U.S. patents, according to Commissioner of Patents Edward J. Brenner.

The object of the journal will be to provide non-patent oriented scientists, engineers, and businessmen easier access to the important technical information contained in patents, Commissioner Brenner said. For this purpose, abstracts have been required as part of patent applications since January 1, 1967. The Patent Office requires that abstracts be concise summaries of the technical content of patents, avoiding use of the legal and patent phraseology characteristic of patents and patent applications.

Subscriptions to the new journal, entitled Official Gazette Patent Abstracts Section, are being offered on a six-months basis (January through June 1968) by Superintendent of Documents, U.S. Government Printing Office, Washington, D.C. 20402, price \$27.

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NEW COMPUTER-CONTROLLED DE-COM SYSTEM-An engineering approach to decommutation systems that uses computer program-storing capabilities and cuts the cost of the decommutator has been reported by Stellarmetrics, Inc.

The Santa Barbara aerospace communications firm says that the new design concept reduced the cost of

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guage changes within the same matrix can be made PERFORMANCE: Discriminates against capacitive and inductive par-

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a recent decommutation system from the \$80-100,000 region, typical of earlier systems, to a new figure of approximately \$54,000.

Computer-controlled decom systems previously required a high degree of program storage capability which added to the cost. In a Wichita, Kas., Stellarmetrics is using the program-storing capability of a CDC 3200 computer with which the decommutation system will interface. As a result, the decommutator itself needs only a simpler storage for a single program being acted upon at any one time. The company says it believes this is the first time such a technique has been used.

Decommutation systems are the "translators" of commutated signals from space vehicles or other sources. In the Boeing application, the new equipment will decommutate tape recordings from flight tests.

..............................

ELECTRONICALLY CONTROLLED PRESS-A "new-generation" offset printing press with a built-in-digital logic system to monitor and control its operations has been developed by the Harris-Intertype Corporation. Called the "Harris Lithotronic-78" press, its design is a combination of advanced mechanical features and electronic innovations said to make it the most productive sheet-fed offset press. A typical five-color model is priced at approximately \$800,000.

The most significant control unit developed for this press is an electronic digital logic system that monitors many press functions and supplements the knowledge and skills of the press crew. This system is composed of an electronic logic panel receiving both press and operator command-signals and re-forming these signals into programmed decisions to control pressfunction actuators.

The logic contains three digital registers-counters that store information related to press position and timing. One section forms command signals to control the registers and the output logic. Three matrices utilize the binary output of the registers to fabricate specific signals required by the output logic. A counter-inhibit pulse insures that the output logic is blocked out while the outputs of the registers are changing.

An interface panel is incorporated to eliminate the possibility of transients or crosstalk.

Significant events in the offset printing operation are monitored and controlled by the logic system. Not only is every revolution of the cylinders counted, but 12 specific radial positions—representing specific functions in each revolution—are monitored and controlled.

Through the master control console, the pressman can program the press to pull individual color proofs, or any combination of color proofs, prior to or even during the course of a run.

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DIGITAL CONTROL SYSTEM FOR STEEL ROLLING MILL—Compat Corporation, of Hicksville, New York, is currently installing the second of three mill control systems ordered by a leading steel company in the U.S. The system provides the interface between a PDP-8 computer, the thickness gauges, and the rollers.

By measuring variations in the thickness of metal being rolled at speeds of up to 600 feet per minute, the system "anticipates" what corrections will be needed to keep the output thickness NEW!



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commentary

Comments and opinions on topics of current interest to digital design engineering personnel. A monthly column organized and prepared under the direction of **T. PAUL BOTHWELL, Contributing Editor.**

COMPUTER COMMUNICATIONS SYSTEMS

Hardware versus Software

Over the past few years, use of remote communications equipment tied into digital computers has increased tremendously, as a result of the realization that an economical and fast turn-around computer service can be provided to many users simultaneously from one large computer equipped with the appropriate communications equipment and time-sharing software. This increase has led to development of a significant number of time-sharing services which aim to give the user at the end of a teletype line direct, and apparently exclusive, access to a large scale digital computer.

Time-sharing systems can be conveniently divided into those providing a general purpose computing service, and those designed to give a specialized service to one type of user only. In the general purpose category, Project MAC at MIT was the pioneer, and is still the leader in sophistication and in facilities provided to the user. Very large and expensive computers are used in this system, and the user has available a wide range of software facilities as well as very extensive virtual core memory

The author of this month's CD Commentary, Dr. C. B. Newport, is Manager of the Information Systems Department at Honeywell Computer Control Division. He is responsible for communications control, scientific control and display, and applications in the General Systems Section. facilities. (The word "virtual" refers to the core memory apparently available to the user. In reality he is only using a small amount of core memory and his programs and data are being swapped to and from a large backing store as other users make demands on the time and space in the computer.)

Special purpose time-sharing systems serve a particular group of users and include airline reservations systems; custom-designed commercial computing facilities, such as Keydata; and special remote information handling systems for the medical community, such as Medinet, and for branch-office insurance transactions.

Other computer applications in which communications play a vital part include message switching, data acquisition and control, and simple computerto-computer information interchange. Remote data collection, in what would otherwise be conventional commercial data processing systems, is also becoming more and more common.

It is interesting to note that with all these applications demanding remote access to computers, and hence the extensive use of long distance communications links, still only approximately 5% of the installed computers have some sort of communication equipment associated with them. However, by 1973, it is anticipated that this percentage will have risen to 60% and possibly to as much as 80% by 1980. These predictions indicate that future computer system analysts and hardware designers will need a clear understanding of the operation of computer communication systems and how to make the most fruitful tradeoffs between hardware and software.

Hardware and Software Design

The first task of the system designer is to consider the cost of the over-all hardware design. Complete minimization of hardware cost is usually undesirable because this almost always increases software and operating costs, and hence does not minimize total system cost.

One of the very significant expenses in a wideranging time-sharing system is the cost of the communications lines. The first hardware decision is, therefore, whether data concentrators can be used to minimize the line costs. These devices are designed (1) to receive a number of low-speed lines (50 to 180 bits per second) — all operating simultaneously and (2) to concentrate the information onto one or more high-speed lines (1200 or 2400 bits per second). Although data concentrators may cost from \$5,000 to \$100,000, they may still represent a considerable financial saving on long distance lines when it is realized that the rental cost of a voicegrade line (up to 2400 bits per second) is only of the order of twice the rental of the low-speed line (up to 180 bits per second).

The simplest data concentrators consist of no more than time division or frequency division multiplexers which allocate time slots on the high-speed line to each bit of incoming data from the many lowspeed lines. The information on the high-speed lines is therefore not directly usable without a demultiplexing process at the computer end. This requires a data deconcentrator which then presents the computer with the problem of interfacing to the original number of low-speed lines.

As the complexity of the over-all system increases, the very simple data concentrators do not provide the optimum solution, since a considerable amount of equipment is needed at the computer end to interface the many low-speed lines. Also, a large amount of computer time is needed to provide the information handling and control of these individual lines.

A more satisfactory solution for the larger communications networks is to provide "intelligent" data concentrators — small, high-speed general-purpose digital computers designed to have good communication capabilities: extensive I/O facilities, easy character manipulation, very-high-speed logical and I/O instructions, and low cost. These concentrators can undertake far more than simple multiplexing of the low-speed lines. First, they can accumulate incoming messages into conveniently sized blocks and transfer them, suitably identified, directly to the central computer. Similarly, in the outgoing direction, the concentrators may receive complete messages from the central computer and store them temporarily while low-speed onward transmission is taking place. This eliminates the need for a deconcentrator and a large communications interface at the central computer end, thus justifying the higher initial cost of the computerbased concentrator. Computers provide additional bonuses, moreover, since with little increase in programming cost, they can serve other functions such as parity checking, low-speed line control (initiation and termination of transmissions), calling of remote stations, checking of message validity, "busying out" of low priority lines to prevent central computer overload, handling low-speed lines connected to the switched network (dial-in facilities), and many other incidental communication functions.

The tradeoff, thus far, indicates the use of lines connected directly into the central computer where the total area covered by the network is fairly small. With a widely spread but relatively unsophisticated

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nuts in 2 styles and 7 anotized colors . . . and a choice of 2PDT or 4PDT alternate or momentary action switches that can be bench wired then snapped onto a premounted bracket. This versatility lets you change pushbutton colors anytime, or remove a switch for wiring change without disturbing the panel. For detailed data on these and other MSC unlighted switches, write on your letterhead for immediate service or use the publication reader service card.











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communications and computing system, simple concentrators are most attractive. As the complexity increases, computer-based data concentrators, with their ability to unload the central computer, prove to be the most economical answer.

Interfacing to the Computer

Computers in communications systems need to interface with a small number of high-speed lines (from sophisticated data concentrators or high-speed data sources) and/or with a large number of low-speed lines (from simple data deconcentrators or from local low-speed terminals). This dictates the design of two distinct types of hardware interfaces: (1) the single-line controller and (2) the multiline controller.

The single-line controller is basically a shift register designed to receive serial data from one communication line (usually high speed, 2400 bits per second) and accumulate characters which are transferred in parallel one at a time into the main computer memory. One of these devices is required for each of the incoming lines; hence the name.

The multiline controller is a more complicated device designed to handle a large number of serial communications lines (usually low speed) and accumulate characters from these lines for transfer into the computer memory. The basic multiline controller module may be designed to handle 128 or 256 lines, and for each line actually connected, a small line termination unit would be provided. This device therefore has a higher initial cost than a single-line controller, but a very much lower incremental cost per line.

The interaction between hardware and software immediately becomes apparent as the design of these controllers is undertaken. Single-line controllers usually operate with synchronous lines. It is reasonable to include hardware for the detection of sync characters, since the software to undertake this operation is particularly time consuming. However, many other message control characters are used, including Start of Heading (SOH), Start of Text (STX), and End of Transmission (EOT). Although there are ASCII codes for these format characters (and a number of others), they are by no means universally used, so the designer must decide whether to incorporate the detection of these in the hardware or the software. Some of the more elaborate systems do incorporate hardware detection of special characters, but this can lead to loss of flexibility and considerable difficulty when communicating between two systems that use different standards. A solution that is becoming more common in large systems is to use a small computer, similar to that employed in the data concentrators, to interface the communication lines directly into the main processor. Simple single-line or multiline controllers can then be used and the format control and processing can be undertaken in the small peripheral computer. Communication with the main machine would then be on direct bus-to-bus, or memory-to-memory, connections. In this case, the tradeoffs indicate simple single-line controllers with a minimum of special character detection and control facilities, and most message control being undertaken in the main computer, or, in very large systems, in a peripheral computer.

There are two basic types of multiline controllers. In one, the character assembly — and some character checking — is undertaken entirely in hardware, and fully matured characters are transferred into the computer. In the other type, the programmed multiline controller, an absolute minimum of hardware is used; the computer software is relied on to assemble the characters itself.

With the programmed multiline controller, the computer samples the state of the incoming lines at least eight times faster than the lines themselves can change state. From these samples, the software is able to assemble full characters and accumulate them in memory buffers. It can be appreciated that this technique uses a minimum of hardware, little more than one gate per line, but makes extensive demands on the computer software. A peripheral computer, therefore, becomes a necessity in all but the simplest situations. A typical communications computer, having a one-microsecond memory-cycle time, can be expected to handle at least 128 lines by this technique before it becomes overloaded. With the number of lines in this region, it is usually more economical to provide such a peripheral computer than it is to provide the more elaborate hardware

The design of the hardware multiline controller involves detailed consideration of how the software will handle characters transferred from the controller into the computer memory. At first sight, it may appear convenient to allocate separate blocks of memory to each incoming line and have the controller automatically transfer matured characters to the appropriate blocks. However, additional computer time is required when a block becomes full and it is necessary to allocate a new block before the arrival of the next character. Since character arrivals are random, the system software must be designed to cope with the particular case when all blocks become filled, essentially, simultaneously. The re-allocation time for each block must, therefore, be small enough to allow them all to be serviced in this unusual circumstance. This is an undesirably stringent restriction on the programming. In addition, it is usually necessary for the software to examine each character soon after it arrives to determine whether it is a format control character and possibly to check its validity (parity). Excessive time can therefore be wasted in scanning inactive blocks to determine whether any characters have recently arrived, or blocks become filled.

To relieve this software burden, a tumble-table may be used in which incoming characters are not blocked by a line, but are inserted as they mature into a common table, along with their specific line identification number. This table can be considerably longer than one of the line blocks mentioned above, but need not be nearly as long as the sum of these blocks. The software is now only required to process lines that are active, and only one block needs to be reset in real time as it becomes filled. As a further sophistication, an interrupt can easily

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CIRCLE NO. 28 ON INQUIRY CARD

be provided when the block is partially filled, indicating that resetting is required as soon as conveniently possible.

On output the situation is not quite so critical, since any delay due to software overload does not cause data loss but only a slight reduction in data rate. Simple blocked systems may be used effectively, with block sizes varying from one character upwards. Automatic block chaining, in which each output block contains a pointer to the next block, requires more hardware but does give some reduction in software loading. With multicharacter blocks, the systems designer needs to consider the technique for transmission of partially filled blocks at the end of a message. Should hardware be used to detect the EOT character, or should software complete the block with blanks and then terminate with an EOT? The tradeoffs depend on the specific situation.

Conclusion

The computer communications field, in common with many others, requires the best possible compromise between hardware and software if systems are not to become excessively expensive or exceedingly inefficient. The problem facing the industry is that far too few people are being trained to have a deep understanding of both hardware and software. There are hardware experts who are mystified by the black art of real time programming, and software experts who wonder vaguely what a ferrite core is, and all too rarely do the twain meet. People who are experts in both areas are urgently needed, not just people with a cursory interest in the area outside their specialty, but those who really understand both. This need, more than any other single obstacle, is delaying the progress of economical and efficient remote computing services which have so much to offer in the reduction of tedium and the extension of man's individual capability.

The Department of Transportation has released a report describing a system of computer storage and retrieval of freight tariff information. The report includes methods for handling tariff features such as routing, accessorial charges, footnotes, rules and regulations. It also identifies how to judge the usefulness and economic efficiency of the computer system as it might be adapted to the individual needs of industrial management. Data storage requirements and possible computer hardware configurations for different classes of users are also discussed. Cost guidelines are presented, based on a comparison of different tariff-related functions as currently performed manually and by computer. The report stems from several years of research performed by the Battelle Memorial Institute, under contract to the Federal government.

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The Public Health Service is exploring the feasibility of establishing a Center to serve as a clearinghouse for information on hospital automated communication systems. Increasingly hospitals are using computers to speed the exchange of information between individual departments, such as admitting, business office, nursing, pharmacy and others relating to patient care. The Center would gather and analyze the data relevant to this rapidly developing field so Public Health Service consultants will be better prepared to advise hospitals throughout the Nation on their computer applications.

A 6-month study to determine technical and management requirements for the Center is being supported by a \$29,386 research contract executed by the Division of Hospital and Medical Facilities. Herner and Company, consultants in information science, Washington, D. C., will conduct the study.

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Computers have been cited as the key to future global conflicts by Dr. Nicholas A. Begovich, a Hughes Aircraft Co. Vice President. Speaking in Washington recently, Dr. Begovich said "any future global conflicts in which electronic command and control systems are used will be won by the nation with the best computer programs and programmers." He pointed out that American industry today is being asked by the military to miniaturize command and control systems, program all tactical defense situations, and automatically detect, clear and track hundreds of targets simultaneously regardless of environment. He emphasized that the key to solving these and other critical problems lies in computer technology — the effective utilization of programs and a new breed of programmer.

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Use of computers, now 3,000, by the Federal Government has doubled during the past three years and significant results are evident as a result in all its activities, Comptroller General Elmer B. Staats recently told the Washington Chapter of the National Association of Accountants. GAO will increase its responsibilities in the area of modern information systems if the Senate-passed Legislative Reorganization Act of 1967 is enacted, Staats said. The Senate report on the bill, he added, reflects the concern of Congress that such a modern information system is necessary if Congress is to make informed budgetary decisions. Staats cited important results of computer use in air safety, health, administration, and space. He predicted further accomplishments in the same and other areas.

National Data Center is still under top consideration by the Bureau of Budget. The question of the ability of such a data center to keep information put into it confidential is being questioned by members of Congress and others. Currently the Bureau of Budget, with other statistical agencies, is attempting to formulate the details of purpose, content, organization and operations of a Federal Statistical Data Center. Particular attention is being given to find ways to insure such a Center does not pose a threat to personal or business privacy. The Bureau of the Budget has told Congress that any proposal for a Center would be presented to Congress for legislative authorization. There is now no target date for advancing a formal proposal. The detailed language of a legislative proposal to insure the Center would not make available to the public or governmental agencies any information about individual persons or businesses has not been developed as yet.

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Secretary of State Dean Rusk has warned Congress that if it passes protectionism legislation restricting imports of commodities into the United States "the prospects would be nothing short of appalling." He points out that U. S. import quotas would hurt a number of domestic industries, including computers, by reducing foreign sale opportunities. The U. S. exported computers valued at \$369 million in 1964 — this was 18% of our total domestic output for an industry of 160,000 workers, according to Rusk. Senator Edward W. Brooks (R.-Mass.) has proposed legislation to restrict U. S. imports of electronic components of foreign manufacture.

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The National Science Foundation is to support regional computer experiments and has invited a limited number of proposals for cooperative computing experiments. NSF will seek information on the cost and educational value of having educational institutions share computers on a geographical basis. NSF has established an Office of Computing Activities to stimulate new ideas and approaches to computer utilization in the research and educational processes.


CIRCLE NO. 30 ON INQUIRY CARD

Much work remains to be done before the securities industry and its customers obtain the full benefits of well planned use of EDP equipment, according to Securities and Exchange Commission Chairman Manuel F. Cohen. In a recent talk in Hartford he emphasized that this work "must proceed at a much faster pace than has heretofore been the case if the securities industry is to maintain the rate of growth that it has achieved in the past two decades." He pointed out that "we are already pushing to the danger point the ability of the Exchange and its members to handle an accelerating volume of trading by antiquated manual methods or a hesitant and limited use of a computer technology and recent communications developments."

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Use of new computer-aided photo-interpretation techniques have revealed additional topographic features on Mars. A study of calibrated picture intensities, stored on magnetic tape, used computer enhancement of photographs for reduction of the electronic noise present in each picture, sharpening of detail, changing of contrast to intensify shading and highlights, and a computer-generated picture called a variance plot in which smooth areas are shown in black and rough areas in white. By varying the levels of contrast in reproducing the series of computerized pictures, scientists were able to resolve specific features more clearly. In many cases features not recognized in the original pictures were made visible through these enhancement techniques. National Commission on New Technological Uses of Copyrighted Works has been approved by the U. S. Senate. The legislation would establish a Commission to study and compile data on the reproduction and use of copyrighted works of authorship in the automatic systems capable of storing, processing, retrieving, and transferring information, and by various forms of machines. The Commission would make recommendations to the President and Congress.

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Recent Government contracts:

RADIO CORPORATION OF AMERICA, Washington, D. C., has been awarded a \$1,297,366 contract order for 45 items of electronic data processing equipment. The Defense Electronics Supply Center is the contracting agency. INTERNATIONAL BUSINESS MACHINES CORP., Dayton, Ohio, has received a \$1,408,833 contract order for 12 items of electronic data processing equipment. The Defense Electronics Supply Center issued the contract order. INTERNATIONAL TELEPHONE AND TELEGRAPH CORP., Paramus, N. J., has been awarded a \$2,933,848 negotiated cost-plus-award fee contract for programming services for the Fleet Computer Programming Center, Atlantic, tactical data system. The Navy Purchasing Office, Washington, D. C., is awarding the contract. Work will be performed at the Fleet Computer Programming Center, Virginia Beach, Va. DOCUMENTATION, INC., Bethesda, Md., has received an estimated \$5,563,138 for one year of operation under terms of the incentive fee contract from the National Aeronautics and Space Agency. The company has been operating the Technical Information Facility at College Park, Md., since it was set up in 1962. THE INTERNATIONAL BUSINESS MACHINES CORP., Federal

THE INTERNATIONAL BUSINESS MACHINES CORP., Federal Systems Div., Gaithersburg, Md., has been selected to negotiate a \$998,000 three-month contract extension for computer programming and engineering support of the Goddard Space Flight Center, Greenbelt, Md.

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ARCHITECTURE

for large computer systems

Gerhard L. Hollander Hollander Associates Fullerton, California

Large computing capabilities can be achieved through faster uniprocessors, or through configurations of conventional or unconventional computer hardware that can share the load. Any of these approaches can solve most problems. The question is which approach produces the greatest performance per unit cost.

Though initially thought to be limited by circuit speed, the uniprocessor has kept up with most known requirements. Multiprocessors, an aggregation of conventional processors that dynamically share the computing load, are starting to

compete effectively now that some of the programming and system-overhead problems are understood. Array computers, a geometrically distributed set of identical processors coordinated by a single instruction stream, are particularly suited for cost reduction by large scale integration. Associative processing, the use of memories in which each word is also a register for basic logical manipulations, allows execution of identical instructions simultaneously in thousands of memory locations; thereby reducing the load on the central processor.

Which problems can be best handled in one or the other configuration, and whether one of these configurations is better for general-purpose environments, is topic for debate. This article provides perspective for the companion articles that advocate four different architectures for economical large computer systems.

Editor's Note: This article, by our new editorial consultant, and the four succeeding companion articles are reprinted, with some additions and modifications, from the AFIPS Conference Proceedings, Volume 30, April 1967. It constitutes the formal part of a debate by leaders in the field of computer architecture which was remarkable for its large and attentive audience and for the spirited informal debate that followed. The articles are published here not only because they are as timely now as when originally presented but also because Computer Design recently discovered a tape recording of the informal debate from which we will publish abstracts in future issues.

Evaluation Criteria

As the computer field reaches maturity, users select their equipment not because of internal structure or features, but by its overall *economy*; i.e., performance per unit cost. Here, *performance* means the computer's ability to do the user's job. *Cost* includes not only the purchase price, but also such associated costs as space, power, operation, maintenance, software, and reliability.

Greater problem complexity stimulates various alternative computer-design approaches; from speeding up conventional processors to using a multiplicity of processors. But if the user is really indifferent to the internal structure provided his job is executed economically, we are confronted with an apparent contradiction: Multiple - and therefore smaller - processors violate the accepted dictum that a larger processor provides more performance per unit cost.² According to Grosch's law,³ manufacturers price equipment to make performance proportional to the square of price; in other words, doubling the price increases the performance four-fold. However, this empirical pricing guide stemmed from an era when the manufacturer's only concern was the elasticity of the total demand for computers. In a competitive environment, manufacturing cost determines price; and it remains to be seen whether Grosch's law also applies to the cost of computers.

In a competitive environment, the user's economy becomes the guide of the successful designer. The manufacturing cost of a computer depends on the number and cost of its components. The designer must structure his components so that the fewest and least costly provide the maximum performance. The resultant computer must do the user's job with minimum time expended for overhead or housekeeping operations. Most likely, the components of the most economical computer will have the largest duty factor.¹

		SYSTEM	-STRUCTURI	BLE I E CHARACTE	RISTICS						
Structure*		Data Streams per Instruction Stream	Limitation on Data-Stream Similarity		Approximate Cost Division						
	Instruction Streams			Level of Work Division	Central	Inter-	Other Execu- tion Elements				
					Processor	Connection	Total	Each			
Jni-Processor	Single	Single	None	None	1.0	0.0	0.0				
Multi-Processor	Multiple	Single	Minor	Sub-routine	0.0	0.3	. 0.7	10-1			
Associative Processor	Single	Multiple	Severe	Boolean	0.6	0.0	0.4	10-4			
Processor Array	Single	Multiple	Strong	Macro	0.2	0.1	0.7	10-2			

Competitive System Structures

Over the last two decades, computer economy has grown hundred fold. The primary reason is faster circuitry, which provides more performance at the same cost when the faster circuits are in full production. A computer still faster than the largest economical unit available today could be designed by:

- 1. Speeding up a single instruction stream
 - a. Faster single primary execution element (Uniprocessor)
 - b. Multiple primary execution elements (Array processor)
- 2. Allowing multiple instruction streams (Multiprocessor).

Uni-Processing. Most past effort has been devoted to speeding up the primary execution element. Faster circuits and components have been cited already. Another approach is faster units, such as speeding the arithmetic element by parallel instead of serial organization and by high-speed carry. Augmenting units, such as memory look-ahead and separate I/O processors, relieve the primary execution element. Finally, a larger primary memory gains time at the expense of storage. All these speed-up techniques have helped make existing conventional uni-processors a hundred times faster during the last decade.

Array Processing. A single instruction stream can be more effective if it can process several data streams simultaneously. For example, a payroll run requires essentially the same operations on the records of hundreds of employees. With an array of a hundred execution elements, the single instruction stream could cause a hundred operations to be performed at the same time.

Two distinct types of array computers have been investigated recently. In one, the associative parallel processor, each execution element contains little more than the exclusive-or function.⁴ Because of its simplicity and low cost, each element can also serve as a storage location; and we might think of all orders being executed in memory (an associative or search memory). A word of such associative memory costs about one orderof-magnitude more than ordinary core memory, but several orders-of-magnitude less than a complete arithmetic unit. An alternative array approach employs hundreds of processing elements as complex as a small computer.⁵ These elements can execute more complex instructions when stimulated by the primary instruction stream. The processing element's own stored program can be tailored to its specific data stream.

Either form of array processing appears best when the problem itself has geometric properties compatible with the topology of the processing array. When the problem does not have this topological property naturally — for example, inventory or payroll problems the problem can often be converted to use multiple execution elements effectively.

Array-type processing is inefficient if most processing elements are idle most of the time. In the associative processor, with essentially no decision capability at each processing element, the operations must be identical to the simplest level. The processor arrays, with significant decision-making and logical capability at each execution element, can allow reasonable differences from one execution element to another. However, if most decisions make an element idle, the efficiency will be quite low.

Multiprocessing. The multi-processor computer contains several computers, each capable of executing the job alone.^{6,7} They attack a complex problem by segmenting it into many parts and executing each segment autonomously. This allows dynamic allocation of the program among the *available* processors and provides protection against system failure if one of the processors fails.

Multi-processor-computer task assignments require overhead, either as added hardware or as additional (unproductive) time. Furthermore, if Grosch's law holds also for computer cost, substituting several small processors for a large one starts the trade off in a less favorable performance-per-unit-cost regime.

Comparison of Structures

Table I contrasts key characteristics of the four structures (only pure structures are treated; some structures in the references are hybrids). All but the uni-processor

	Uni Pr	ocessor	Multi P	rocessor	Associative	Processor	Processor Array		
Application	Ave. Rating	No. of Bests	Ave. Rating	No. of Bests	Ave. Rating	No. of Bests	Ave. Rating	No. of Best	
Open-Shop Scientific	1+	2	2	1	4	0	4-	0	
General Commercial	2-	2	2	2	4	0	4-	0	
Atomic Research	2-	1	2+	1	3+	0	2+	1	
Weather Forecasting	2-	1	2+	1	3+	0	2	2	
Pattern Recognition	2+	1	3-	1	3-	1	2+	1	
Command & Control	2-	1	2-	2	3+	0	4-	0	
On-line Commercial	2-	2	2	2	4	C	4-	0	
On-line Scientific	1+	2	2-	2	4	0	4-	0	
Info Storage & Retrieval	2-	1	2+	1	2+	2	4-	0	

Rating Key: 1. Best

Shaded areas represent consensus that this structure is impractical.

2. Acceptable, depending on the application

Marginal, depending on the application

4. No reasonable man would consider

Each companion-paper author rated the merit of each structure for the different applications, each large enough to require approximately 107 executions per second with a conventional processor. The rating columns show the average of their ratings. Unless the value is either near 1 or near 4, it probably does not represent a consensus but an average of divergent opinions. The other column in each group shows how many respondents considered this the best structure for the application class.

employ multiple data streams, either as multiple instruction streams with a single data stream, or as single data streams of multiple instruction streams.

Multiple data streams controlled by a single instruction stream must be similar. This restriction is quite severe for the associative processor, because the instruction stream is at the level of Boolean functions. The limitations are strong even for the processor array, where the main instruction stream is closer to a macro-order. While the macro level allows the stored program to adjust each execution element for some data-stream differences, the individual elements must execute the same macro operations or remain idle. For the multi-processor, the running time of the segments should be within one or two orders-of-magnitude, a minor restriction.

The cost-division values between the portions of the system represent an approximate indication of the processing components for hypothetical "typical" systems. In the uni-processor, the entire cost is in the central processor. The multi-processing system has no central processing component, as each processor is one of the execution elements. However, a significant portion of the cost is in the interconnection and the task assignment. These overhead functions, hardware or execution time, represent approximately 30 percent.

For the associative processor, the associative memory usually represents less than half of the system cost. For the processor array of the SOLOMON type, most of the cost is in the execution elements. The cost portion of each processing element illustrates the wide range between uni-processors where the single processing element represents essentially the entire cost, to the associative processors where an element represents on the order of 10^{-5} to 10^{-4} of the cost.

Efficient use of any unconventional processor calls for new programming approaches. Since during the last two decades people have been trained to think serial, at least now the programming for the less conventional systems is more difficult until new procedures are developed. Thirty years ago, would it have been more difficult to train people to think parallel instead of serial?

Which Structure Is Best?

No one structure is best for all possible jobs. The controversy revolves around the relative advantages of each architecture for different applications. Even here, definitive answers do not seem to exist.

Each of the companion papers^{4,5,6,8} attempts to show the superiority of its approach for some or many applications. In fact, Amdahl believes the uniprocessor is best for all but a few special-purpose applications. Table II summarizes each protagonist's view of the appropriate application areas for the different computer structures. Their papers state their reasoning. Unfortunately, or fortunately, an "unbiased" chairman cannot inject his own conclusions into a debate. The four authors speak well for themselves.

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Validity of the single processor approach to achieving large scale computing capabilities

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For over a decade one faction has contended that organization of a single computer has reached its limits and that truly significant advances can only be made through interconnection of a multiplicity of computers to permit cooperative solution. Variously, the proper direction has been identified as general purpose computers with a generalized interconnection of memories, or as specialized computers with geometrically related memory interconnections, controlled by one or more instruction streams.

Demonstration is made of the continued validity of the single processor approach and of the weaknesses of the multiple processor approach in terms of application to real problems and their attendant irregularities.

The arguments presented are based on statistical characteristics of computation on computers over the last decade and upon the operational requirements within problems of physical interest. An additional reference will be one of the most thorough analyses of relative computer capabilities currently published — "Changes in Computer Performance", *Datamation*, September 1966, Professor Kenneth E. Knight, Stanford School of Business Administration.

Parallel Processors

The first characteristic of interest is the fraction of the computational load associated with data management housekeeping. This fraction has been very nearly constant for about ten years, and accounts for 40% of the executed instructions in production runs. In an entirely dedicated special purpose environment this might be reduced by a factor of two, but it is highly improbable that it could be reduced by a factor of three. This overhead appears to be sequential so that it is unlikely to be amenable to parallel processing techniques. Overhead alone would then place an upper limit on throughput of five to seven times the sequential processing rate, even if the housekeeping were done in a separate processor. The non-housekeeping part of the problem could exploit at most a processor of performance three to four times that of the housekeeping processor. A fairly obvious conclusion which can be drawn at this point is that the effort expended on achieving high parallel processing rates is wasted unless it is accompanied by achievements in sequential processing rates of similar magnitude.

Data management housekeeping is not the only problem to plague oversimplified approaches to high speed computation. The physical problems which are of practical interest tend to have rather significant complications. Examples of these complications are as follows: boundaries are likely to be irregular; interiors are likely to be inhomogeneous; computations required may be dependent on the states of the variables at each point;

propagation rates of different physical effects may be quite different; the rate of convergence, or convergence at all, may be strongly dependent on sweeping through the array along different axes on succeeding passes; etc. The effect of each of these complications is very severe on any computer organization based on geometrically related processors in a paralleled processing system. Even the existence of regular rectangular boundaries has the interesting property that for spatial dimension of N there are 3^N different point geometries to be dealt with in a nearest neighbor computation. If the second nearest neighbor were also involved, there would be 5^N different point geometries to contend with. An irregular boundary compounds this problem as does an inhomogeneous interior. Computations which are dependent on the states of variables would require the processing at each point to consume approximately the same computational time as the sum of computations of all physical effects within a large region.

Ideally the computation of the action of the neighboring points upon the point under consideration involves their values at a previous time proportional to the propagation rate. Since the time step is normally kept constant, a faster propagation rate for some effects would imply interactions with more distant points. Finally the fairly common practice of sweeping through the mesh along different axes on succeeding passes poses problems of data management which affects all processors; however, it affects geometrically related processors more severly by requiring transposing all points in storage in addition to the revised input-output scheduling. A realistic assessment of the effect of these irregularities on the actual performance of a parallel processing device, compared to its performance on a simplified and regularized abstraction of the problem, yields a degradation in the vicinity of one-half to one order of magnitude.

Differences or changes in propagation rates may affect the mesh point relationships. To demonstrate the comparative capabilities of different machine organizations at today's state of the art the author has analyzed the relative performance of three approaches, all realized in the same level of componentry. Figure 1 shows a 64processor unit parallel processor (Curve A), a pipelined vector processor dealing with 8-element vectors (Curve B), and finally a pipelined sequential processor handling one data element per instruction (Curve C). The processors in Curves B and C require about 0.4 as many components as the parallel processor, yet the peak capabilities of all three are nearly identical. The sequential processor's performance falls off least rapidly with reduced problem parallelism because its construction provides a capability to marshall resources on local problem disorder.

An interesting analysis can be made with respect to the number of processors which should be paralleled for the parallel processor organization. The number of pro-



Fig. 1 Comparative capabilities of different machine organizations of today's state of the art.



Fig. 2 Number of processors that would execute a workload of a given parallelism with greatest economy.

cessors usefully employed is a function of the inherent parallelism of the problem. The cost of the ensemble of course increases with the number of processor units. Assuming a processor to cost about one-fourth as much as a control unit, one can determine the number of processors which would execute a workload of a given parallelism with greatest economy. The resulting curve is shown in Figure 2. A corresponding comparison of the cost effectiveness of a choice of 64 processors compared to having chosen the optimum number of processors is shown in Figure 3. It is readily apparent that an extremely small problem set is best attacked with 64. An additional curve could be drawn comparing the pipelined sequential processor; such a curve would range from 3.0 to 2.5 as the parallelism increased from 0 to 1.

Multiple Processors

The historic performance versus cost of computers has been explored very thoroughly by Professor Knight. The carefully analyzed data he presents reflects not just execution times for arithmetic operations and cost of minimum or recommended configurations. He includes memory capacity effects, input-output overlap experienced, and special functional capabilities. The best statistical fit obtained corresponds to a performance proportional to the square of the cost at any technological level. This result very effectively supports the often invoked "Grosch's Law". Utilizing this analysis, one



Fig. 3 Cost effectiveness of 64 processors in parallel compared to optimum number.

can argue that if twice the amount of hardware were exploited in a single system, one could expect to obtain four times the performance. The only difficulty is involved in knowing how to exploit this additional hardware. At any point in time it is difficult to foresee how the previous bottlenecks in a sequential computer will be effectively overcome. If it were easy they would not have been left as bottlenecks. It is true by historical example that the successive obstacles have been hurdled to demand that we continue to keep the faith. If alternatively, one decided to improve the performance by putting two processors side by side with shared memory, one would find approximately 2.2 times as much hardware. The additional two tenths in hardware accomplished the crossbar switching for the sharing. The resulting performance achieved would be about 1.8. The latter figure is derived from the assumption of each processor utilizing half of the memories about half of the time. The resulting memory conflicts in the shared system would extend the execution of one of two operations by one quarter of the execution time. The net result is a price performance degradation to 0.8 rather than an improvement to 2.0 for the single larger processor.

Associative Processors

Comparative analysis with associative processors is far more difficult and less obvious. Under certain conditions of regular formats there is a fairly direct approach. Consider an associative processor designed for pattern recognition, in which decisions within individual elements are forwarded to some set of other elements. In the associative processor design the receiving elements would have a set of source addresses which recognize by associative techniques whether or not they were to receive the decision of the currently declaring element. To make a corresponding special purpose non-associative processor one would consider a receiving element and its source addresses as an instruction, with binary decisions maintained in registers. Considering the use of thin film memory, an associative cycle would be longer than a non-destructive read cycle. In such a technology the special purpose non-associative processor can be expected to take about one-fourth as many memory cycles as the associative version and only about one-sixth of the time. These figures were computed on the full recognition task, with somewhat differing ratios in each phase. No blanket claim is intended here, but rather suggests that each requirement should be investigated from both approaches.

The best approach to a large computing capability

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The best approach to a large computing capability is to build your own multi-processor system, utilizing the most effective elements available from the leading hardware manufacturers. To understand this approach, it would be useful to describe the type of system which is to be built. It is evident that many of the system characteristics will be prescribed by the application, others will be purely a matter of personal choice. The essential characteristics are few in number and must not be confused with the non-essential characteristics. The remainder of this paper presents a set of do-it-yourself instructions for designing your own multi-processor system which stresses the essential characteristics. The intent being that the reader can follow through these instructions and design his own system for his own particular application. In this way, each reader can have a specific system in mind which he can evaluate critically. Although there would be individual differences in the systems under consideration by different individuals, the essential characteristics would be the same, and discussion would then tend to center about these essential features. The paper concludes with a summary in which the design approach is reviewed in an attempt to emphasize the utility of the approach.

The first step in designing the multi-processor system is to select a computer which is to be the basic module of computational capability. Select one of the many word-oriented full-word computers with a word length of at least 24 bits. Select a computer with multiple memory modules; one with some capability for a shared use of memory. Make the selection based on cost/effectiveness. Select the computer because it gives the most computer power for the money. Don't worry about channel capacity, total memory capacity, etc. These characteristics will be considered later. The criteria for evaluation of competing computers may be simple or complex. If you have no other criterion, you can follow the crowd. Some of the best performing computers in the past have also been the best sellers.

The next step is to select a small character-oriented (byte) computer with good channel characteristics to serve as the I/O, or peripheral, controller and processor. Select the computer so that the large computer's word length is a multiple of the small computer's word length. This is relatively easy for a character-oriented small machine. We will decide how many of each type of module to provide later.

Now, since we have selected a small general-purpose computer as the I/O controller, we will shop for peripherals that have a minimum of control logic in each unit. Simply look for good clean electro-mechanical design and select each peripheral from the most appropriate vendor. It is very unlikely that any one vendor can supply more than one or two types of modules for the system.

Estimate the total system computational capacity, based upon the particular requirements of your application; then select the number of large processors based upon this computational load. Do not include extra capacity for executive functions. The number of memory modules to be provided is based upon the performance you wish to provide to the different classes of users. In general, two memory modules per processor will provide overlapped swap and computer capabilities for a large class of applications. A relatively simple computation will provide estimates of the system performance with different numbers of extra (swap) memory modules. The computation will reflect your own mix of problems, the grade of service you hope to give each class of user, and the expected loading for each class of user. These performance estimates can be as simple as statistical estimates derived from drawing samples from a set of hats with the correct mix of alternatives in each hat, or as sophisticated as detailed simulations. Results derived from published queueing tables should provide sufficient accuracy for determination of the size of the system memory. Next, determine the number of peripherals required for your application, and from this estimate how many small peripheral processors will be required to support your I/O functions. In addition, these small processors must also perform some executive functions, which should require no more than about 3/4 of the capacity of one of the small computers. This estimate depends upon your own particular application as well as upon the amount of I/O supported. If there are several I/O processors, the executive can be interleaved with I/O idle time so that little extra capacity is required. If your I/O requires most of one small computer's capacity, the executive function might necessitate a separate processor.

The system components must now be interconnected by designing a high-speed communications network so that the memory modules are all accessible to all computers. This network may take the form of a multiplepath, high-speed switch between the processors and the memory modules. It should include special logic to facilitate the executive function. In particular, it should provide hardware for translation of symbolic memory addresses into actual cross-point locations on the switch. It should include hardware to facilitate queueing of processor assignments and should provide for interrupt routing to the appropriate processor.

In addition, a low-speed network should be provided for connecting the peripheral units to the I/O processors. This network might take the form of a multiplepath relay switch. It requires only very simple control logic since it will be controlled by the I/O processors, which execute only I/O and executive programs. Peripheral reconfiguration will seldom occur. I/O functions would normally be grouped, and assigned in groups to each of the I/O processors. In addition to the assigned I/O functions, any of the I/O processors could be preempted to perform an executive function, such as swapping a program segment in core with one on the backup storage (probably drum or disk). This low-speed network should be required only if graceful degradation is desired.

The final step is to write the executive program and I/O programs for the small I/O processor.

The full-word processors are to be used only for execution of object programs. In order to do this, we must consider the type of object programs which the users of the system will provide. Let us, therefore, define certain aspects of the object programs which are required by this system. The entire computational task, from initial input to final output, in support of a given user of the system is defined as a job. When each task is initiated, it is assigned a sequential job number by the system. If a user attempts to initialize a task which is already in execution in the system, the job number will permit the system to distinguish each use as a separate task. The job number is utilized to assure privacy between users, in that different jobs are not permitted to interact. Communication between jobs is permitted through use of system tables specifically designed for common use by two or more jobs. The system I/O routines also permit shared use of a peripheral storage medium, such as magnetic tape or disk packs, for communication between jobs. Each job is to be broken down into threads of computation. The maximum length of each thread is set by the core limitations of the memory module and the maximum execution time imposed by the executive system, so that, if the time limitation is exceeded, the job may be temporarily swapped out of core

Threads of code are linked by a macro instruction CUT to X which initiates subsequent threads within the job. The system does not utilize re-entrant code. That is, only one processor will execute a thread of code at a time. System tables and subroutines are replicated in the environments of different threads of code. When a large computer and a memory module are associated in computation, there will be very few memory cycles available for other uses without slowing down the computations. For this reason, system tables can be designated as guaranteed, in which cases the tables will be restored to the system data base when the task is completed, thereby updating automatically the contents of the table in the system data base. System macros provided permit the program to designate parallel threads which could be executed concurrently. The programmer may use recursive coding techniques so that parallel sections of code may be nested. The executive system which includes both hardware and software, does not recognize a macro instruction for automatically synchronizing the tying back of parallel paths. This bookkeeping must be provided in the object code itself.

There is no limitation to the user of the system if the synchronizing code is generated by the compiler rather than by requiring the executive program to effect the synchronization. By limiting the executive functions to essentials, the basic system approach may be more easily understood. For this discussion, the non-essential software features, such as the compiler and diagnostic aids are not considered part of the system. Without carefully defining these non-essential software features, there would be a great deal of uncertainty as to the overall cost of the software system.

There are three system macros provided for programmer identification of parallel threads of computation. They are:

• Cut — Enter a memory assignment in the queue waiting for a full-word processor to become available.

• Wait — Release full-word processor for a new assignment, but retain this thread of computation and its environment (subroutines, tables, etc.) in core, if at all possible.

• Release — Release full-word processor for a new assignment and release the program thread so that guaranteed data items can be updated in the system data base, and a new program thread can be loaded by the I/O processors.

In addition to these system macros, there are three system queues: one for the full-word processors and the other two for the small I/O processors. The queues are:

• Full-Word Processor Queue — Computational threads which are loaded and ready for execution.

• Executive Queue — Calls for executive functions, primarily swapping of program threads between drum (or disk) and core.

• I/O Queue — Calls for I/O. This includes routine loading of program threads upon release of a memory module.

Both I/O and executive calls are handled by the small I/O processors. However, the executive calls take precedence over the I/O calls. These queues would be implemented in the high-speed communications network so that, under normal operating conditions, all processors would simply accept an assignment from the queue and proceed as far as possible with that assignment before accepting the next assignment from the queue. Priority logic complicates this simple mode of operation only by use of the interrupt feature to preempt certain computational assignments. The interrupt releases the processor and automatically inserts a cut into the appropriate queue to reinitiate the interrupted task at a later time.

With this design philosophy, the executive and I/O functions can be developed for the small I/O processors. The system design is now complete.

Without specific applications in mind, cost estimates would be meaningless. The system has been described in such a way as to identify essential functions while simplifying interface considerations so that each element of the system may be costed independently. Having completed the design for your particular application, you should now be able to estimate the total system cost. For a large class of applications, this approach provides the best way of attaining large computational capability.

The system outlined has several interesting characteristics.

1. It provides a high-performance system since we have delineated specific capabilities, such as arithmetic, memory, and I/O, and optimized each independently from a cost/effectiveness point of view.

2. System overhead time is minimal since the central computers perform only job computations. The executive time is confined to a partial use of the character-

oriented I/O processors.

3. System overhead hardware costs consisting of the high- and low-speed interconnection networks are clearly delineated.

I/O and executive software development costs contribute to system overhead. If more manufacturers followed the practice of providing separate cost for hardware and software, a portion of the software costs would be offset by the hidden cost of whatever software operating system the manufacturer provided with his hardware. However, by applying currently emerging management techniques to software development, the system software can be produced at a lower cost.

Let us summarize by attempting to review the rationale

behind this particular design philosophy. The use of peripherals with minimal control logic selected from many vendors will provide the least expensive user interface if the control functions stripped from the peripherals can be supplied at the same cost by the data system. The use of character-oriented small computers instead of special I/O controllers provides an improved level of support to the peripherals and their users at a cost lower than that of special-purpose controllers. The user's arithmetic support is provided by selecting the most economical word-oriented computer for that task. The central question then is whether the high-speed switch and its associated queues simplify the executive functions sufficiently to warrant the extra hardware costs.

Associative parallel processing

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Several previous investigations¹⁻⁵ have shown associative processors to have utility in solution of problems which allow the same operation to be performed simultaneously over many elements of a data set. Examples of such problems include picture processing, matrix manipulation, signal correlation, ELINT data processing and information retrieval. It is the purpose of this paper to contrast the efficiency of solution of such problems on an associative parallel processor to efficiencies obtained using other computer organizations described in this session. Efficiency is measured as solution rate per unit cost.

The associative parallel processor $(APP)^5$ is an array computer exhibiting parallelism of instruction execution similar to that obtained in SOLOMON type machines. It differs from SOLOMON machines in having much less storage (e.g., a single associative memory word) dedicated to each array element. Logic hardware at each array element is minimized by use of a novel computing technique termed Sequential State Transformation. By this technique, data stored within an associative memory having a multiwrite capability may be transformed according to any Boolean function of stored and external variables.

Cell cost for APP is two to three orders of magnitude less than for a SOLOMON type cell. Instruction execution times for APP cells are longer than for SOLOMON cells by one to four orders of magnitude, dependent on instruction complexity. An APP should be more efficient than SOLOMON type machines in applications having small cell memory requirements and simple data manipulation at each cell. Such applications include picture processing, information retrieval, signal correlation and simple matrix manipulations (e.g., solution of assignment matrices). Solutions of complex field problems, particularly when variable ranges dictate floating point number representation, are not normally efficient on APP, even though these problems allow parallel computation requisite to efficient use of an array computer. Problem solution time for an APP can only approach that of a SOLOMON array if the APP contains, and may effectively use, many more cells than the SOLOMON array. An APP would typically contain several thousand cells as opposed to several hundred for a SOLOMON array.

In regard to the generality of the various processors discussed in this session, the conventional uni-processor employs a single instruction stream operating on a single data stream and is thus uniformly effective on all problems capable of digital solution. An aggregate of conventional uni-processors employs multiple independent instruction streams, each operating on a single data stream. This organization is effective whenever a problem can be partitioned into several subproblems, each of which allows of independent solution. An aggregate of uni-processors is less general than a single uni-processor in that problems which do not allow partitioning do not effectively utilize the machine.

An array processor employs a single instruction stream operating simultaneously on many data streams. This mode of operation can be achieved with an aggregate of conventional uni-processors by supplying the same instruction sequence to each uni-processor. An array processor is thus less general in application than an aggregate of uni-processors.

Among array processors, an APP is further restricted in application than a SOLOMON type processor, in that floating point arithmetic operations are not available within APP. An APP thus has restricted utility in some scientific computations for which a SOLOMON machine is well suited.

It is felt that within its useful range of application, the efficiency of APP exceeds that of other organizations discussed in this session. To illustrate this point, we shall, in the following section, review the organization of APP and discuss its utility in picture processing, a task to which the APP is well suited.

Processor Organization and Command Set

To illustrate the concept of sequential-state-transformation, consider an associate memory which stores two operands, A_i and B_i, in each work of memory. We desire to add operand A_i to operand B_i simultaneously in some subset of these words. Processing is serial by bit, and parallel by word, starting at the least significant bit of each field. Each word has an auxiliary storage bit, C_i stored within the memory array. Bits within operand field A are designated A_{ii} (j = 1, 2, ... \dots , N), where N is the field length. Bits in field B_i are similarly designated. The truth table defining the addition is as follows:



Note that variables B_{ij} and C_i differ in their present and next states only in states numbered 2, 4, 5, 7. The search and multiwrite operations may be used to perform the addition of all number pairs, starting at the least significant bit, as follows:

1. Search words having $A_{ij} = 1$, $B_{ij} = 1$ and $C_i = 0$. For these words, multiwrite $B_{ij} = 0$, $C_i = 1$.

2. Search words having $A_{ij} = 0$, $B_{ij} = 0$ and $C_i = 1$. For these words, multiwrite $B_{ij} = 1$ and $C_i = 0$.

3. Search words having $A_{ij} = 0$, $B_{ij} = 1$ and $C_i = 1$. For these words, multiwrite $B_{ij} = 0$.

4. Search words having $A_{ij} = 1$, $B_{ij} = 0$ and $C_i = 0$. For these words, multiwrite $B_{ij} = 1$.

Steps (1) through (4) are repeated at each bit of the operands. Within each bit time, processing is sequential by state over present states which differ from the next state in one or more variables. All words in a given present state are transformed simultaneously to the desired next state.

Sequential-state-transformation, used to perform the above word-parallel, bit-serial addition, is evidently a very general mode of associative processing. It allows transformation of memory contents according to any Boolean function of stored and external variables. It makes full use of comparison logic, implemented at the bit level within an associative array, and thereby simplifies logic required at the word level.

In the following we describe the organization and command set for a processor using the sequentialstate-transformation mode of associative processing.

Elements of an associative processor are shown in Figure 1. The format for associative commands is shown in Figure 2. Each associative command effects a primitive transformation of state variables as discussed above. The left-most bit identifies the command



DATA PATH

Figure 1-Structure of the associative parallel processors.

as associative. The two adjacent bits define the initial state of match flip-flops in word logic units (i.e., the detector plate). Other bits define search and rewrite criteria for the A field, the B field, and for each of four tag bits. The right-most bit controls rewrite into matching words or their next lower neighbors. Functions of these bits are described in Figure 2.

To illustrate the utility of this command, consider the task of searching the associative memory for words matching the data register over a field having its upper limit stored in the A limit register and its lower limit stored in the A counter. Matching words are to be tagged in tag bit 1.

The following command accomplishes the desired tasks:

$$1 E_{si} S L D W I S - W - S O W$$

The following routine loads data into each word in the associative array. The word field to be written is again defined by contents of the A counter and the A limit register:

1. Set the match flip flop for word 0 to "1."

2. 1 N S L D W S ____ S __ W N 3. 1 N S L D W S ____ S __ W L

A Control B Control Tag 1

4. If no match, exit: otherwise go to (3).

Instruction (2) writes into word 0; instruction (3) writes sequentially into each remaining associative word.

Nonassociative commands are provided to load the A and B counters and limit registers, to branch from linear instruction sequencing either unconditionally or when specified conditions are met, and to input or output data.



Figure 2-Format for associative command.



Figure 3—Analog model of pattern recognition system.

Associative Pattern Processing

The parallel processing capability of an associative processor is well suited to the tasks of abstracting pattern properties and of pattern classification by linear threshold techniques.⁶⁻⁸ Threshold pattern recognition devices execute a given operation independently over many data sets, and thus allow the parallelism necessary for efficient associative processing. Associative processing affords the accuracy of digital number representation, and is thus unlimited in fan-in and dynamic range of weights. Weights are simply altered by changing memory contents. Wiring and components are regular and are thus amenable to low-cost, batch-fabrication techniques. The set of measured pattern properties is changeable by changing memory contents, rather than by rewiring as for analog units. Adaptation is thus possible in measured properties as well as in classification.

Figure 3 represents the model of the pattern recognition system to be realized. Binary valued sensor outputs are summed, with weights ± 1 , into some or all of the thresholding logic units. A threshold level is established for each logic unit. If the sum of binary weighted inputs exceeds the threshold, the unit becomes active and its output is "one"; otherwise the output is "zero." Each logic unit has a weighted connection to some or all of the response units. Weights of active logic units are summed and thresholded at each response unit. A pattern is classified according to the set of activated response units.



Figure 4—Associative parallel processor realization of pattern recognition system.

To realize this model, the associative memory is organized into three sections containing, respectively, a connectivity matrix defining connections between sensors and logic units; the system of weights associated with inputs to response units, and the target vectors associated with patterns to be recognized. The general organization of the associative memory is shown in Figure 4. Processing takes place as follows: In Phase (1), the set of logic units activated by the input pattern is determined, using the input pattern and the stored connectivity matrix. Logic unit outputs are formed in the detector plane. In Phase (2), the inputs to the response units are calculated, using logic unit outputs and the weights stored in the second sector of the associative memory. This yields the response unit outputs in the detector plane. In Phase (3), the response unit outputs are compared with the target vectors stored in the third sector associative memory, and the pattern classification is determined.



Figure 5—Time for associative classification of a single pattern as a function of the number of patterns and sensors for the W/C data organization.

Figure 5 illustrates pattern recognition times for an associative processor having an execution time for associative commands of 0.8 microseconds. Here, "N" represents the number of sensor units at the input and "M" the number of patterns distinguishable by the processor. The APP can classify an input pattern employing 400 sensors and 512 logic units in approximately 3 milliseconds. Some 2000 words of associative storage are required.

Conclusion

The associative parallel processor, described in this paper, achieves considerable generality with simple word and bit logic through the use of the sequential-statetransformation mode of associative processing. An important feature of the parallel processor, when used as a pattern recognition device, is the ability to modify its functional structure, through alteration of memory contents, without change in its periodic physical structure. This adaptive feature has importance in applications where patterns change with time, or where the processor is used as a prototype of subsequent machines having fixed recognition capabilities.

Linear threshold pattern classifiers of the type here presented are beginning to find many applications. To date, these types of pattern classifiers have been studied and/or implemented for character recognition, photointerpretation, weather forecasting by cloud pattern recognition, speech recognition, adaptive control systems and more recently, for medical diagnosis from cardiographic data. Other possible applications include terminal guidance for missiles and space vehicles and bomb damage assessment.

In addition to the pattern recognition task herein described, the APP has also been applied to the tasks of job shop scheduling, optimum commodity routing and processing electromagnetic intelligence (ELINT) data. In each instance significant speed gains have been shown possible over conventional sequential digital computers. It is interesting to note that the processor described in the second section of this paper may be applied to this variety of tasks without significant changes in organization or command structure.

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Unconventional Systems

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Background Observations

For the bulk of the past decade, the computer manufacturer has maintained the "party line" that their successive models of high-end machines possessed all the performance that would be required for the foreseeable future. (This "party line" alternated with abortive attempts to, in fact, build high performance, compatible extensions of the product line which turned out to be neither high performance nor compatible.) While it appears to be true that currently available equipment will for a while continue to be adequate to permit plumbing supply houses to do inventory control, it has always been outrageously false that this equipment comes even close to meeting our scientific or military needs. In these areas, we have witnessed the oft noted paradox of technological advances spurring scientific needs in such a fashion that the disparity between what is needed and what is available continues to grow. In the case at hand, this is no paradox at all in that it is only now that we can realistically envision computers of sufficient speed and capability to make it possible to start using them to solve problems with a nontrivial intellectual content.

Two related sequences of events have in very recent years made it no longer necessary to apologize for grown men to be concerned with producing computing machines of vastly greater capability. These are the consequential gains made by a technology (no thanks whatever to the manufacturer) that was not obliging enough to stand still and secondly that we have the possibility of performing for the first time with the latest generation of equipment, calculations that couple closely to the mental and physical processes of scientific advancements.

Current Status Review

A startling result of the past decade of progress in switching elements is the number of such elements which can be employed in a system of given reliability. For example: A system which contains 10 to 20 thousand vacuum tubes achieved mean-time between failures of at most several tens of hours. Comparable or even somewhat greater mean-time between failures are achieved today by systems with upwards of 10^6 conventional transistors. Within the next five years with the coming large scale integration, this number should go to between 10^8 and 10^9 discrete transistor equivalents.

Now, granting the assumption that we will in the foreseeable future be limited by computer capacity in a broad spectrum of areas, it is legitimate to ask that organizational concept be evolved which can utilize a greater number of components to achieve at least proportionally greater performance. It is an important practical aside to note that during the same interval of time the cost of a small signal switching element has gone down to an extent permitting the employment of the maximum number which in non-redundant designs yield a reliable system.

Another important factor affecting our approach to computer design is the growing trend to employ design mechanization. Although this field is still very young it has already advanced sufficiently for us to forecast confidently that reduced development costs and lead times should continue to make successively bolder progress tolerable. I am by no means suggesting that computers of vastly greater power will be designed more cheaply and more quickly than their predecessors, but that as a percentage of our gross national product, these costs will be tolerable in their relative magnitude and continue to yield the nation a reasonable return.

The manufacturer continues to bombard our (mercifully) somewhat desensitized ears with the problem of software conversion in an effort to perpetuate hardware that when looked at even ten years from now, will have value only to the historian or antique collector. (In the case of recent compatible families this argument has changed somewhat in that the manufacturer finds that offering even paltry improvements in equipment eliminates compatibility. The new argument is that only the manufacturer can produce software in a timely, economical fashion because of his ability to pool requirements from different customers. The supreme irony of this point of view is already legion.) The value of the machine software investment (notice I said value not cost) has been greatly exaggerated for the same reason by the manufacturer. In particular, the sophisticated user (i.e., the academic and military eggheads with their huge problems) have traditionally been required to program their problems in a low level language. The argument that we must make no further progress in computer organization — a field that is no more than 20 years old - in order to maintain a fictitious compatibility with Baggage's computer and its electronic progeny is arrogant and patently absurd.

In seeking up-to-date criteria for judging the efficiency of organizational concept the following are obviously suggested:

1. That they make efficient use of high-level semiconductor components (i.e., equivalent to from several hundred to several thousand discrete elements), and

2. That the designs keep a maximum number of memory amplifiers working, i.e., maintain maximal traffic on memory distribution busses both productively and without chaos.

A third criterion is the extent to which a given design can employ design mechanization in its implementation. An extension of this last criterion threatens

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at some time in the future to explode all our conceptions about computing machines. It is already possible to conceive a machine which will automatically design and fabricate special purpose computers on the basis of a set of instructions not differing greatly from a current machine program. In other words, the filing cabinets full of punched cards would be replaced by filing cabinets full of special purpose computers. It is my current plan to pursue such machines when the current machine we are building at the University of Illinois (ILLIAC IV) is successfully operating. I am greatly heartened that some of the same people who five years ago reacted to the idea of ILLIAC IV with smug incredulity are reacting now in the very same way to this idea.

Some Approaches To Large Computing Capability

To return to 1967: What are the approaches currently being explored to achieve greater speed? The manufacturer has a simple answer. If a problem requires a 1000 times the power of computer "X," use a 1000 computer "X's." Of course, this ignores the fact that attempts to achieve cooperative interactions between general purpose computers using clip leads and other strong medicine have in the past yielded lamentable and sometimes laughable results. This approach we can dismiss out of hand if for no other reason than that it is ponderously inelegant; but there is another reason it doesn't work.

Another approach is to simply state that the conventionally organized general purpose computer will continue to improve so as to keep pace with requirements. This argument ignores the fact that the requirements which are not generated by the existence of a given computer at a given place, for example those motivated by scientific or military problems where the outside world determines the problems, have already produced requirements greatly in excess of current capabilities. Secondly, as has been pointed out now for many years, improvements in general purpose machines are not open-ended because of speed of light and memory access and buss distribution limitations.

Next, in the current set of ideas to achieve high performance are a number of concepts which achieve their very high performance partially by sacrificing some generality of purpose. I must remark here about the erroneous impression created by referring to our current machines by the name "general purpose" computer. This name makes the false implication that they are uniformly good (or poor) at all things. Moreover, the only high performance computer currently in operation differs markedly in its organization from its predecessors and moreover experience with this machine seems to indicate that the variation in its efficiency of application from problem to problem is quite considerable.

The "pipe line" systems to be available in the next several years offer another order of magnitude of performance over the fastest machine currently available.

These "pipe line" machines achieve speed through the same basic mechanism as parallel machines, i.e., applying a single instruction to a considerable block of data. They, as a consequence, suffer from the same general disadvantage, namely: If the problem does not permit the data to be treated in blocks, their



Figure 1—ILLIAC IV General Organization.

efficiency degrades. Most problems examined, however, that require very high performance do seem to possess this property of permitting data to be handled in blocks to a remarkable degree although this is not always obvious at first glance. The "pipe line" approach is novel and merits our closest attention. It is being pursued by the major manufacturers in the field.

The approach that I am personally pursuing is the parallel approach. It is the only current approach which is open-ended. The same remark holds for both parallel and "pipe line" systems, namely: Its generality is not fully established.

I will furnish a brief overall description of the system here and refer you for details to a separate session at this conference dealing exclusively with the ILLIAC IV hardware, software and applications.

The ILLIAC IV System

Simply to illustrate the capacity which current technology permits in a computing system, I will give a brief description of the ILLIAC IV system being developed jointly by the University of Illinois and industry.

Figure 1 illustrates the general arrangement of the ILLIAC IV system, centered on four subarrays, each containing 64 processing elements under the direct control of a subarray (Figure 2) control unit.

Data is transferred between the memory units of the processing elements of the subarrays and a large scale disk file buffer memory via a highly parallel input/output buss. Such input/output transfers are controlled by an external general purpose computer which also supervises the ILLIAC IV program runs. The general purpose computer is provided with a limited set of connections to the subarray control units for this purpose.



Figure 3-Processing Element Component, Block Diagram.



Figure 2-Organization of 64 P.E. Subarray.

The routing connections of the processing elements in the four subarrays are arranged to permit a *united mode* of operation, in which the four subarrays act as a single large array for routing purposes, a *paired subarray mode* of operation which provides routing for two arrays, each containing two of the subarrays, or an *uncoupled mode* in which each subarray operates independently.

Figure 3 shows the structure of one Processing Element (PE). Each PE is provided with three 64-bit arithmetic registers and high speed adders for full 64-bit floating and fixed point operations. The processor is also provided with 2000 64-bit words of thin film memory.

Four routing connections, identified as North, East, South and West are provided in the subarray as shown in the figure together with busses to and from the control unit and the disk unit for global and input/ output data.

It is a vital consideration that the PE is regarded as a complement. It is, in fact, delivered in assembled, tested form to the system supplier by the semiconductor manufacturer. Provision is made in the design of the PE to permit an orderly transition from hybrid LSI components to monolithic LSI components during the course of the program. The technology employed in the design and fabrication of the PE will, it is anticipated, yield a unit price for the first system of this very powerful 64-bit floating point unit of under \$10,000.

Detailed analytical and programming work has been done in the following areas:

- (1) Weapons Effects
 - a. Eulerian flow
 - b. Lagrangian flow
 - c. Neutron transport
 - d. Underground stress-strain model
- (2) Alternating Direction Implicit Relaxation
- (3) General Circulation Weather Model
- (4) Matrix Operations
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- (7) Fourier Transformation



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In all the areas listed is was found that highly efficient methods could be evolved, i.e., methods which keep almost all PE's running almost all the time. Thus, the speed-ups observed have been in the order of 256 times N where N relates the speed of the PE to the speed of the computer selected for comparison.

As an illustration of the sort of consideration involved in securing high efficiency on a parallel machine, Figure 4 shows the memory allocation for a 5×5 matrix in 5 PE memories (PEM's). We refer to this storage scheme for matrix elements as skewed storage.

The main reason for skewing a matrix is that rows and columns of a matrix can be accessed with appropriate PE indexing. For instance, to fetch elements



Figure 4-Skewed Storage Technique for Matrices.

of a column, neighboring PE's access elements differing in address by 1.

The illustrated matrix fits nicely into the memory allotted. For matrices where this is not true packing schemes exist to minimize wasted storage space in relation to the operation being performed.

The case of skewed storage just described is an important but simple example of the unique considerations made necessary by the parallel organization of this computer. Manual calculation (like man himself) is essentially sequential. Our electronic calculating aids (computers) have hewn strictly to this "natural" organization of calculations. It is, however, by no means "natural" for a technological innovation to so restrict itself. In fact, man is a slow, highly error prone computing device. The parallel approach to computing, it must be said however, does require that some original thinking be done about numerical analysis and data management in order to secure efficient use. In an environment which has represented the absence of the need to think as the highest virtue this is a decided disadvantage.

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Over the years, the capacity of random access central storage in computer systems has, in general, steadily increased. In addition, the price per bit has decreased at the same time that performance characteristics have improved. Recently, some computer manufacturers have taken advantage of memory designs which represent a dramatic extension of this trend, that is, core memories with very high capacity and significantly lower price per bit compared with conventional memories. The trade off involved in such designs is that cycle time is sacrificed in order to achieve these ends. This type of storage module is variously known as Mass Memory, LCS (Large Core Storage), or ECS (Extended Core Storage). Mass memory may yield overall economies in system design, examples of which appear in the literature.1,2,3

Ampex Computer Products Division now has in production such a memory, which we believe is unique, inasmuch as its cycle time is significantly faster than other memories of comparable price and capacity. This article describes the operation of the Ampex memory system.

Specifications

The memory has a total capacity of 262,144 words. Each word consists of 72 data bits organized into 8 bytes, each byte comprising 9 information bits. Access is random to any of the 262,144 addresses and the data buss carries the 72 bits in parallel. The access time to any address is 1.5 μ seconds and cycle time is 2.7 μ seconds. The memory is logically organized as a two-port entry, four-way interleaved device. This means that the





Fig. 1 — Interface block diagram.

memory consists of four 65,536 word sections. Each section is essentially electrically independent of the other three, and hence, the four sections may be operated in parallel. The data buss and the interface circuits are time shared by the four sections, maximum interleave rate being 200 nanoseconds. If sequential interleave between the four sections is employed, cycle time is effectively divided by four to give an equivalent of 675 nanoseconds cycle time.

Two sets of data busses and interface circuits are provided so that two processors may share the memory through the two-port entry facility. Priority logic and



Fig. 2 — Anticoincidence scheme.

an auxiliary keyword memory are associated with each section so that program protection may be provided. Figure 1 shows a block diagram of the interface to the memory sections.

Memory Organization

The memory is organized in a 2-wire 21/2D configuration. The magnetics array has 2048 word lines and 32 lines for each data bit in the bit dimension, hence, a total capacity of 65,536 words of 72 bits each is obtained. Four such arrays with their associated drivesense electronics and control logic comprise the entire memory module.

A 22-Mil lithium core with a maximum switching time of 235 ns. is employed. It may be noted that the ratio of cycle time to core switching time in this design is 11.5. In smaller 3-wire 21/2D designs this ratio is usually closer to 3. The additional time required in the mass memory results from bit line recovery, current rise times and driver turn off skew. A design compromise was made, so that low cost at high capacity could be maintained at the expense of cycle time.

A novel sensing technique is used which requires only one amplifier for each data bit. The amplifier is connected across the current source side of the bit drivers, so that an automatic routing of the sense signal to the amplifier is achieved, thus eliminating the need for strobed pre-amplifiers.

Figure 2 shows the orientation of the cores with respect to the drive lines. Bit current flows in the direction shown during the read portion of the cycle. Word current may flow in either the positive or negative direction as determined by the address. If the positive direction is selected, then Core B will be switched, and the currents in Core A will buck each other. Similarly Core A would be switched for a negative word current in the read portion of the cycle.

Magnetics Array

In essence, the array is a large double-sided core plane. The plane folds once, as shown in Figure 3. For manufacturing purposes, the cores are arranged in mats of 264 word wires by 288 bit wires, giving a total of 76,032 cores per mat. Spare lines are included in the word dimension for convenience of final test and field service. There is one spare word line for every 32 active lines, so it may be seen that each core mat contains 256 active word lines. A total of 64 mats, or 4,866,048 cores, comprise the total magnetics array.



Fig. 3 — Magnetics array.

For optimum sensing conditions, the bit lines forming the pair are adjacent to each other. Thus a single box core formation facilitates employment of the anticoincidence selection scheme.

The drive lines are terminated directly on multilayer printed circuit boards surrounding the array. These boards contain the stack decoding diodes and biasing resistors for both word and bit dimensions.

A single physical wire is used for the entire word line. This wire passes over the fold in the array through flexible material, hence, reducing the number of wire terminations substantially. Only 13,440 solder joints are required for terminating all of the drive lines in an array, including the spare word lines. This represents a very low solder joint to core ratio. Minimization of these solder joints is necessary to ensure good reliability from the design and to achieve cost objectives.

Word Drive Circuit

In each magnetics array, it is necessary to make a unique selection of one out of 2048 word lines. The word dimension is divided logically into two groups. Each group of 1024 word lines is decoded by means of a 32×32 selection matrix. A standard 2 diode/line selection scheme, employing both a positive and a negative current source, was chosen. There is a limitation on the size of a selection matrix, in that the capacitance of unselected lines and drivers must be considered. For this reason, a single 64 x 32 matrix was not used in this design.

Since an anticoincidence scheme is used, direction of read word current is a function of the address selection word in any given memory cycle. Obviously, write word current is always of the opposite polarity to read word current within a cycle. Thus, one bit of the address word is used to determine current polarity, one bit is used to select the word group, and ten bits to decode one out of 1024 lines. The remaining four bits in the address word are used for bit dimension decoding.

Figure 4 shows the circuitry surrounding a selected word line. The selected driver and sink are switched on at the beginning of a memory cycle. This enables the charging current, resulting from movement of the array through a voltage excursion, to be fully dissipated before the word selection current is switched on. This does not result in loss of cycle time, since a delay is mandatory for sensing purposes anyway. The current sources are switched and provide a shaped pulse of current to the selection matrix.

The capacitance of the unselected drivers and the



inductance of the selected word line form an underdamped LC circuit. This would result in a current overshoot within the selected word line if no compensation were provided. It was found that shaping of the current pulse from the current source yielded better results than any other technique. The design used, produces a double time constant rise time of current from the current source, as shown in Fig. 5 (a). This results in the

R1 in series with R2 shunted by R3. When the voltage across the capacitor reaches (Vx + 6.2V), the shunt

resistor R2 no longer determines the time constant and,

hence, a slower rate of rise results. Vx is a variable sup-

ply which controls output current magnitude and is

used to plot shmoo limits on the system. R4 and R2 are

used to make initial adjustments in current magnitude

and overall rise time respectively.



The word drivers and sinks employ transformer coupled floating switches. The primaries of these switches are connected in a 4×8 matrix as shown in Figure 7.

Bit Drive Circuit

For each data bit there is a total of sixteen pairs of bit lines. This yields a total of $72 \ge 16 \ge 2,304$ lines in the bit dimension, thus, the aspect ratio of the magnetics array is almost square. Since a two-wire array is used, it is necessary for sensing purposes to drive current equally in the selected pair of bit lines. Sensing is then accomplished by detecting the differential signal between the pair of bit lines.

As may be seen from Figure 8, the sink switches pass the sum of the currents from each half of the pair of lines. A 2 diode/line decoding scheme is employed, the sixteen pairs being decoded from four drive pairs and four sinks. In this system, write bit current is conditional on the information to be stored. Data control is



Fig. 7 — Word drive matrix.









achieved by making the write sink enable pulse a function of data information. When a zero is written in a particular address, current flows from CR1 and CR2 into the write drivers and current sources. These diodes provide a current path so that the write drivers do not build up an excessive amount of stored charge resulting from zero collector current and a high base current.

Both read and write current sources consist of a

and the second

58

resistor, resulting in exponential current rise in the bit lines. Referring to Figure 9, it may be seen that a transformer is connected in series with the read current source in an antibalun configuration. This serves a dual function. First, it provides for equalization of the read currents in each half of the pair enabling the differential voltage developed during the rise time to be minimized. Second, it provides differential isolation from the current source resistors during sensing.

The bias resistors R1 and R2 also serve a dual function. In addition to the conventional purpose of biasing the decoding diodes, these resistors form a termination for the bit lines. The bit lines may be considered as transmission lines shorted at the far end. The termination resistors are essential for realizing a rapid settling of the differential signals produced at the start of bit current.

As in the word system, transformer coupled floating switches are used for the drivers and sinks.

It may be readily seen that any DC imbalance in decode diodes, driver transistors or drive lines will produce a DC offset at the amplifier input. Even though DC restoration is performed within the amplifier, there is obviously a limitation on the offset because of the dynamic range of the amplifier prior to DC restoration. In this design, a maximum of 400 mV offset can be accommodated by the amplifier at the input. Therefore, the decode diodes are matched within 100 mV forward drop and the drive transistors are matched within 200 mV difference in V_{CE} . This leaves 100 mV for resistive differences in drive lines and wiring.

Sense Amplifier

The partial disturb problems normally encountered in a 2 1/2 D memory exist to a far greater extent in this mass memory design. A selected pair of bit lines pass through a total of 4,224 cores. These cores are partially disturbed by the bit current and, under worst case information patterns, a differential signal in the order of a few volts is developed. In addition, the rise of bit current will produce a differential signal at the input to the amplifier since neither the drive lines, diodes nor drive transistors are perfectly matched. The sum of these two effects may well produce a large differential transient when bit current is established which is an order of magnitude larger than the sense signal to be detected.

For this reason, it is necessary to wait until the initial transient has settled before the word current is switched on. This settling time was found to be 700 nanoseconds in practice. When word current is applied, the selected core produces a turnover signal of approximately 30 mV amplitude which is sensed differentially between the bit line pair. At sensing time, a DC voltage offset could exist at the amplifier input as a result of forward voltage drop differences in the bit drive system. This offset, which can be a maximum of 400 mV, must be eliminated by means of DC restoration within the amplifier.

It may be seen that the design requirements of the amplifier are very restricting. A block diagram of the amplifier is shown in Figure 10. The first differential amplifier operates from a switched current source. The current source remains off during the initial transient to prevent the amplifier from going into saturation. Prior to sense time, the current source is enabled as may be seen from the overall timing diagram shown in Figure 11.

The first amplifier has a differential gain of approximately 17. As a result, the output level of the first stage may sit at any point over a range of 6.8 V. The amplifier is designed to have a dynamic range sufficient to accommodate this spread. A "roll off" capacitor is included in the amplifier so that the gain of the amplifier diminishes rapidly at frequencies higher than those composing the turnover signal. This technique provides some measure of filtering against high frequency noise appearing at the input.

DC restoration is achieved using a CR network in conjunction with a chopper transistor. Referring to Figure 12, it may be seen that when the chopper conducts before sensing time, the capacitor charges rapidly to a voltage equal to the output voltage of the first stage with respect to ground. The time constant is essentially controlled by R1 and C1 since the chopper represents a very low impedance in the ON state. Therefore, the capacitor becomes fully charged within 35 nanoseconds. In practice, the chopper remains on for approximately 100 nanoseconds.

Immediately prior to sensing time, the chopper is switched off. The input impedance of the second amplifier is approximately 10 K ohms, thus, the time constant of the coupling circuit becomes 800 nanoseconds. As a result, the core turnover signal which has a base width averaging 220 nanoseconds, is passed through the coupling circuit with essentially no distortion. Since C1 has a voltage across it equal to the DC level of the first amplifier output, the input to the second amplifier is biased at ground. DC restoration is accomplished on both of the differential inputs to the second amplifier and hence, the DC offset is removed while the turnover signal is allowed to pass through the coupling network.

Any voltage drop produced by the chopper transistor







Fig. 12 — D.C. restoration circuit.

is amplified by the second amplifier and appears as an error signal either adding to, or subtracting from, the turnover signal. Thus, it is advantageous to have as much of the overall gain of the amplifier prior to DC restoration as possible. A tradeoff must be made however due to the dynamic range requirements of the first stage of amplification.

The differential gain of the second amplifier is 32. The output is rectified so that only half of the available differential signal amplitude is used. The discriminator circuit compares the signal amplitude with a threshold level during strobe time and, if a "ONE" signal is detected, the pulse stretcher transmits a pulse which sets the data register.

Packaging

The memory is mechanically divided into two assemblies. The magnetics assembly contains the four magnetics arrays. The arrays are mounted on slide assemblies so that any one of them may be unplugged and withdrawn from the memory. Once out of the memory frame, the array may be unfolded so as to expose all sides of the plane. Thus, if the side covers are removed, any field service necessary may be accomplished on the array without the necessity of removing the array from the machine. A photograph of the folded array and word drivers is shown in Fig. 13.

The electronics assembly houses all of the bit drive, sensing, and control circuitry. Large multilayer printed circuit boards are used for packaging the bit drive and sense electronics. The circuits for nine bits of information are contained on a single board. It may be seen that eight such boards are required for each array or a total of 32 for the whole memory. These boards are housed in a card file assembly and connection is made to the magnetics array by means of flexible cabling.

All other control electronics are packaged on $5'' \times 6''$ printed circuit cards which are housed in card files in the conventional manner.





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Fig. 13 — Photograph of folded array and word drivers.

A self-test feature is included in the memory. The control and indicator panel for this function forms the front of the machine.

Results

The shmoo limits for the design were found to be large. Typically, the magnetics arrays exhibit an operating current range of $\pm 12\%$.

No delta noise is present at the time of the core turnover; there is, however, an unwanted signal produced by general system noise. This system noise is produced primarily by the power distribution system when large bit currents are switched in the array. In addition, there is electromagnetic coupling between arrays since the drive lines tend to act as antennae. Both of the above effects are minimized by heavy magnetic shielding and by power supply decoupling. Using these techniques, a more than adequate signal to noise ratio is obtained in the amplifier.

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Systems Implications of Microprogramming

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> To permit the system designer to determine whether to consider a microprogrammed computer for a particular application, this article presents a qualitative description of the unique functional characteristics of microprogrammed control, describes the microprogrammed computer as a system component, and compares the general characteristics of microprogrammed computers with general purpose computers.

Although the concept of microprogramming is not new^{1,2}, only recently have computers incorporating microprogrammed control been delivered in large numbers. While the inherent flexibility of a microprogrammed organization makes it possible to specialize computer instructions and increase efficiency for specific applications, this capability has not been widely exploited; most such machines have been generalpurpose data processing systems used in commercial and scientific applications intended to operate on a wide variety of problems and they would benefit little from such specialization. Also, standardization has been considered a more important goal than specialization.

In some applications, such as control systems, a computer and its peripheral equipment are treated as a component of a larger system rather than a system in itself. Many such systems — although they may have an additional capability for offline processing during slack periods — are primarily dedicated to a particular task or process. Here, system performance can often be significantly increased through comspecialization via microputer programming. A microprogrammed computer organization is well suited to applications where very specialized tasks require a significant percentage of total execution time, because complex operations corresponding to subroutines in a conventional computer can be executed as a single macro instruction. Decreased execution time results because the subroutine linkage, multiple instruction fetches, and redundant operations are eliminated. The ease with which the computer architecture can be restructured via microprogramming is also a significant consideration. (The term architecture is used to describe the attributes of a system as seen by the programmer, i.e., the conceptual structure and functional behavior, as distinct from the organization of the data flow and controls, the logical design, and the physical implementation.)

In addition, microprogrammed computers have an inherent capability for efficient simulation (the execution of machine language programs written for a different computer) which permits a significant reduction in development time and overall system costs in some applications. It makes possible the use of existing programs, permits the use of existing software with little or no modification, and makes possible program and/or system simulation and checkout using another computer.

Microprogrammed Computer Characterization

A microprogrammed computer is a computer incorporating explicit matrix control. Each matrix row, (see Fig. 1) corresponding to a word in control storage, is called a microprogram word and it controls the operation of the arithmetic unit for a well-defined interval of time (one machine cycle, a number of machine cycles, or for one main storage cycle, depending on the design of the particular computer). The matrix columns, either in groups or individually, designate specific control functions, called micro-orders. A group of columns corresponding to bits in a control word can be used to specify one of a number of mutually-exclusive micro-orders to be performed; for example, micro-orders might identify corresponding internal registers to be gated to an adder input; a single column (bit) can be used to specify which one of two mutuallyexclusive micro-orders is to be performed, such as whether or not an adder input is to be complemented. The design of the microprogramcontrolled computer is usually such that a number of different microorders can be executed during a single machine cycle. This number ranges from two to over twenty, depending on the design of the particular computer.

A microprogram is the sequence varied over a wide range by modifications or additions to the microprogram store.

In practice, many different implementations of microprogram storage exist. Some are electrically alterable, others are mechanically alterable, and some require actual physical replacement of the microprogram storage media.³ Variation of architecture through modification or replacement of microprogram storage is thus characteristic of microprogrammed computers. The ease with which this may be accomplished, the amount of architectural variation possible, and the associated cost of any change depend on the particular design.

To the programmer, the characteristics of a microprogram-controlled computer appear identical to the characteristics of conventionallycontrolled general-purpose computer for a particular microprogram storage configuration. Within the restrictions



imposed by the instruction set, storage capacity, and execution time, each can be programmed for a wide variety of problems.

To the systems engineer, a conventional general-purpose computer, unlike a microprogrammed computer, does not have explicit control storage and cannot readily be restructured without redesign and repackaging. Consequently, the conventional computer is difficult to specialize for a particular application.

Computer Specialization

A microprogram-controlled computer is tailored to an application by modification of the control storage matrix, as described above. Among the modifiable processor parameters are instruction set and operand

length. The instruction set may be single address, accumulator-oriented, or it may be two address, register file-oriented. Operands manipulated by these instruction sets may include fractional and/or integer scaling, and operand lengths that are integral multiples of the hardware data flow width (size of the data paths between registers, storage, and the arithmeticlogical unit). A single microprogram-controlled computer design is thus able to satisfy a variety of requirements without extensive logic hardware modification. In addition, microprogramming allows instruction of microprogram words required to perform a specified function, such as ADD or MULTIPLY. Depending again on the design of the particular computer, a microprogram may consist of:

• A fixed sequence of microprogram words containing conditional micro-orders.

• A variable sequence of microprogram words containing unconditional micro-orders.

• Both variable and fixed sequences of microprogram words containing both unconditional and conditional micro-orders.

In a microprogram for MULTI-PLY, a computer using a fixed sequence of microprogram words would contain an order of the form "if the current multiplier bit is one, add the multiplier to the partial product; if zero, add zero to the partial product." A computer having a variable sequence of microprogram steps could have one microprogram word containing an order to "add the multiplier to the partial product"; in such a computer, the sequence would be altered depending on whether the multiplier bit is one or zero. In practice, a microprogramcontrolled computer may have both conditional and unconditional microorders, and a given micro-program word may have only one or a number of successors. Alternative successors are usually specified by the microprogram, that is, groups of matrix columns are encoded to specify multiple successor microprogram words and other groups encoded to specify the conditions associated with each alternative. Conventional control logic is then used to test the specified conditions and select the address of the associated successor.

The microprogram-controlled computer arctitecture and instruction set is a direct function of the contents of microprogram storage (the MXN matrix). New instructions or features correspond to additions or changes to the matrix. Thus a new instruction can conceptually be included by adding one or more microprogram words (rows) and/or modifying existing rows. This does not normally require any circuit or logic redesign or any repackaging; i.e., does not alter the column structure and associated micro-order repertoire of the computer. Therefore, the functional characteristics of the microprogrammed computer can be



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tion and matrix manipulation.

set modification much later in the design cycle than for conventional machines, to allow optimization of the computer for an evolving problem.

Microprogrammed computers provide the control system engineer with a means of including macro instructions, which are applicationoriented instructions of considerable complexity. In conventional computers, the complexity of individual instructions is limited by the amount of hardware required to implement the control sequence, and if the hardware cost (including effects on reliability, weight, volume, and power in addition to dollar value) is high in relation to total use for all applications of the same hardware, specialized instructions are not included. Macro instructions, on the other hand, may be changed for each application without affecting the hardware logic design, and thus the incremental cost of each macro can be examined separately for each application. Typical macros include: • Register operations: extended precision arithmetic, square root, and trigonometric functions.

• Storage operations: data correla-

Any high-usage subroutine may be coded as one or more macro instruction. A strong parallel exists between subroutines in conventional programming and macros executed under microprogram control. In conventional programming, an entire function may be performed by a single subroutine, or a series of shorter more general subroutines may be linked together with conventional instructions to obtain the same result. Microprogrammed macros may also include entire functions or may consist of shorter more general functions interspersed with conventional instructions. Similar functions performed by microprogrammed sequences and conventional subroutines differ in a number of respects:

• Instruction fetch references to main storage are eliminated after entering the macro.

• Intermediate macro results are stored in hardware data flow registers or fast access scratch pad storage to eliminate many references to slower main storage; redundant LOAD and STORE operations are eliminated.

TABLE 1

PROCESSOR CHARACTERISTICS SUMMARY FOR SQUARE ROOT EXAMPLE

Storage Cycle Read 32 bits Write 32 bits Logic cycle . Data flow wii Operand lengt	dth	 	32	b	its	 fix	ed	 	in	· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·	 2.5 μs 3.33μs 416.6 ns 16 bits fractional
Typicul mono						 					
Load 32 bits		 	÷.,			 					 . 5.0 μs
Store 32 bits						 		 			 . 5.83 µs
Add 32 bits			• •			 		 			. 5.0 µs

• Macros have full access to processor registers and data paths and are not limited by the instruction set.

• Macros substitute machine cycles for longer main storage cycles to obtain short constants or logical masks.

As an example, assume a square root function, $y = \sqrt{x}$, with the argument is 32 bits, and the results for y obtained with both 16- and 32-bit precision. A single address instruction format is assumed. The processor characteristics are summarized in Table 1. The subroutine employs the Newton-Raphson method and includes initial scaling to ensure rapid convergence. The microroutine uses a one-bit-at-a-time algorithm similar to a conventional pencil-and-paper square root solution.

The results of this example are summarized in Table 2. The improvement obtained by microprogramming the square root function when compared with a program subroutine is 8 to 1 for a 16-bit result and 4.75 to 1 for a 32-bit result. This agrees well with other known comparisons in which performance improvement ranged between 3 and 15 to 1.

The results are very dependent upon the main storage cycle time assumed. However, independent of storage cycle time, the example illustrates the following characteristics of macro instructions:

• Instruction fetch cycles are eliminated.

• Operand store and read cycles are reduced or eliminated.

• Macros have full access to processor facilities to use the most efficient algorithm available and are not restricted to the instruction set capabilities (therefore square root iterations were substituted for shifting and division cycles).

In addition to instruction set and macro modification, microprogram control provides a convenient method of customizing system features not directly a part of the instruction set. Included in this category are:

• Input/output control

• Initial program load bootstrap routines

System initialization

Interrupt recognition and control
 Power transient shutdown and recovery

• Selt-test and self-diagnosis aids.

As an example, consider microprogrammed input/output control for a small computer. Only a small amount of interface circuitry need be specific to the channel: the parallel input and output data buses and a number of input and output control lines. The main computer data flow and microprogrammed control unit can be time-shared between the processor and the channel function. When data service is required for a peripheral device, the processor function is pre-empted. The data flow is seized, temporarily stored, used for channel service, and then restored. Although the maximum data rate attainable is lower (and interference with computation higher) than with separate input/output hardware, the function is identical.4

Once the channel becomes a conceptual entity, using time-shared hardware, one may have a large number of channels at virtually no cost save the core storage space for the governing control words.4 Such multiplexing is very significant for control or communication-based systems. Similarly, additional modes of channel operation can be obtained for the cost of additional microprogram storage. These modes include single word data transfer to augment block input/output, control sequences for an external interrupt system, and control of special peripheral devices.

The microprogram can also be used to translate architectural features to input/output interface sequences so that:

• The use of standard peripheral devices is independent of the instruction set and other architectural features.

• Standard instruction sets can be used with a wide variety of peripheral devices having different characteristics. Provision of complex input/output channel facilities architecturally compatible with larger computers is thus possible. Table II

COMPARISON OF SUBROUTINE AND MICROROUTINE SQUARE ROOT

A Contraction		Subro	utine .	Microroutine		
Parameter	Operation	16 bits	32 bits	16 bits	32 bits	
Storage Cycles		12000	·			
	Instruction read	56.5	66.6	1	1	
	Operand read	19	23	0	0	
	Operand store	11	13	0	0	
Execution Time	(μs)					
	Instruction read at					
	2.5µs	141.25	166.25	2.5	2.5	
	Operand read at					
	2.5µs	47.50	57.50	0.0	0.0	
	Operand store at					
	3.33µs	36.63	43.29	0.0	0.0	
	Divide iterations at					
	44. 17µs	132.51	176.68	-	-	
	Shifting	47.46	51.61	-	-	
	Square root iterations	-	1 - A	37.5	100.0	
	Overhead	4.17	4.17	2.08	2.5	
	Total µs	409.52	499.50	51.25	105.0	
Execution Time	Ratio (Subroutine/Micror	outine)				
16-bit resu 32-bit resu	llt 8:1 llt 4.75:1					

Systems Implications

The systems implications of microprogrammed control are primarily related to the characteristic ease with which specialization and simulation can be achieved, and to overall cost. Specialization — the incorporation of special instructions, macro-operations, and computer facilities for a particular application or class of applications - consists of augmenting and modifying given characteristics. By contrast, simulation is the execution of programs originally written for another computer. Specialization and simulation are not incompatible, and in some applications they are complementary.

One particularly important class of applications for which computer specialization via microprogramming can be anticipated is real-time systems. This class encompasses such diverse applications as: process control, command and control, navigation and guidance, message switching, fire control, reconnaissance and surveillance, time-sharing, and image processing. In these, and many other applications, the computer systems are on-line all or a significant portion of the operating time, and a very significant portion of the processing time is devoted to a few specialized tasks, such as code conversion, interrupt processing, polling,

and function generation. For such applications, a wide variation in performance will occur even among conventional computers having comparable ADD execution times, as a direct result of differences in instruction sets and overall architecture.

Computers specifically designed for real-time applications can be expected to outperform those primarily intended for off-line data processing and scientific calculation. Even so, a significant additional performance increase is obtained when computer characteristics can be specialized for a particular application, or for a small class of applications, rather than for real-time applications in general. One approach is to generate macro instructions as previously described. With microprogrammed control, it is also possible to alter the division of tasks between the central computer, the input/output channels, and peripheral equipment. Thus the decision of whether to perform a particular operation within the processor or devise a new peripheral device can more frequently be decided in favor of the former.

In the above discussion it has tacitly been assumed that the intended application was well-defined. There are, however, many important applications for which the system cannot be well defined *a priori*. In some programs, the computational load is not completely defined during the initial program phase, and in others the computational requirements change during the development phase. In still other applications, system characteristics and emphasis change as a function of time; for a space program, for example, requirements may change significantly from mission-to-mission. In process control or message switching, requirements can change as a function of time due either to process and system modification or growth. The ease with which the computer architecture can be restructured via microprogramming can thus become a significant consideration for such systems.

A facility for microprogrammed simulation is inherent in microprogrammed control. This makes possible the use of special microprograms designed to provide program compatibility with other computers. Microprogram simulators are conceptually similar to the interpretative routine simulators sometimes used on conventionally-controlled computers. They differ in that for interpretative routine simulators each instruction is simulated by a sequence of instructions at execution time. With the micro-programmed simulator many, if not all, of the instructions required in an interpretative routine simulator are replaced by microprogrammed operations. The resulting performance improvement is analogous to that obtained in using macro instructions in place of subroutines.

With microprogram simulation, as with any form of simulation or program conversion, the actual program execution time and storage efficiency are very sensitive to differences in overall computer structure. Consequently, significant differences in word length, number representation, and addressing techniques can result in unsatisfactory overall performance. One of the primary limitations inherent in microprogrammed simulation of another computer is in the handling of the input/output interface, interrupts, and the operator's console. Unless there exists a natural correspondence between these facilities, simulation is at best extremely difficult and frequently impossible.

The compatibility afforded by microprogram simulation of another computer is frequently of benefit as an interim solution when one system is replaced by another, permitting a large portion of the old programs to run on the new system.

Problem language microprogram simulation, wherein simulation is restricted to those instructions associated with arithmetic and logical operations, affords a compromise to total simulation for systems where there is no natural correspondence between interfaces and facilities. When necessary, special macro instructions can be included in the problem instruction set. Input/output instructions, the handling of interrupts, interfacing with the operator's console, and other nonarithmetic operations are tailored to the available peripheral equipment and other system constraints.

Problem language simulation is particularly attractive for real-time systems. First, it provides a high degree of program compatibility. Compilers, problem programs and subroutines will run on the microprogrammed machine with no modifications; assemblers require only relatively minor modification; and in many cases control programs can be adapted with significantly less effort than would be required to develop an entirely new system. Finally, those facilities that cannot readily be simulated, i.e., the interrupt system, console operations, and input/ output, correspond exactly to those features that distinguish a real-time system from an off-line system. Therefore, it can be seen that for many real-time applications those primary features of off-line systems that are most difficult to simulate are the least desirable to simulate.

For a specific system application, the cost of a microprogram-controlled computer by itself may or may not be less than that of an alternative computer. However, the system engineer's freedom to modify computer characteristics without major hardware redesign and his ability to extend system life by microprogram changes may lower overall system cost, which includes the cost of the computer, its peripheral devices, other system components, software, operating costs, and any costs assigned to intangibles.

Finally, microprogram control may reduce the lead time normally associated with the development and delivery of conventional computers.

If we assume an existing hardware logic design, the relatively short time required for microprogramming, compared with logic design, may materially hasten computer delivery.

Conclusions

The architecture of microprogramcontrolled computers can be varied over a wide range by modifications of, or additions to, microprogram storage. This unique characteristic can be used in many system applications where it provides a more optimum system than would otherwise be possible. It has been shown qualitatively that:

• A microprogrammed computer organization is well suited to applications where very specialized operations and routines require a significant percentage of total execution time. This permits computer optimization through addition of application-dependent instructions.

• The ease with which computer architecture can be restructured via microprogramming is a significant consideration in applications where system problems are not completely defined during initial program phases, requirements change during the development phase, and where system characteristics and emphasis change as a function of time.

• The unique capability for efficient simulation inherent in microprogrammed computers permits a significant reduction in development time and overall cost in many applications.

A significant problem associated with system restructuring via microprogram control is its effect on software support. Implementation of significantly different instruction sets or instruction formats may require different software support programs for each programming language. Addition of application-oriented macro instructions is strongly influenced by the facilities available to define new operations to the software at assembly or compilation time.

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I/O REQUIREMENTS FOR PROCESS CONTROL COMPUTERS

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A brief look at the state-of-the-art in interfacing process control computers.

Many people in the process industries have the mistaken impression that the installation of a process control computer automatically obsoletes instrumentation that has been used with conventional control systems. Sometimes this is indeed the case, but frequently it is not. Computer engineers have done a superb job of adapting computer hardware to standard instruments and control devices.

To be sure, a computer requires an electrical input, and thus is superficially incompatible with an allpneumatic system. In cases where a large investment in reliable accurate pneumatic instrumentation exists in a plant, it is usually cheaper to convert pneumatic signals to electrical signals in the control room with P/I transducers. This approach eliminates the necessity of field wiring. If good dc electronic transmitters and wiring exist in the plant, the installation cost of the computer system is substantially reduced below that for pneumatic instruments since an inexpensive I/V resistor may serve to condition the input signal properly. Thus, there are convenient ways of interfacing existing instrumentation with computers even in cases where incompatibility seemingly exists.

Fundamentally, there are only four types of computer input and output systems: (1) analog input; (2) analog output; (3) digital input; and (4) digital output. Of these, by far the most important — because it provides the basic measuring capability of the system — is the analog input signal.

Analog Input Devices

Perhaps up to 40% of the analog inputs to all process control computers are from pressure-to-current P/I transducers. These devices, of which fluid flow meters are a typical example, provide a high-level signal within the 5 to 10 volt range (with a suitable I/V resistor), and frequently have a large common voltage mode associated with them, since other instruments may be in the current loop (Fig. 1). The normal maximum frequency of response is on the order of one to two cycles per second or less, and the signal generally falls within one of the following ranges: 1 to 5 milliamperes, 4 to 20 milliamperes, or 10 to 50 milliamperes.

Since the signal from a P/I transducer is relatively clean and high level, with a high signal-to-noise ratio, there is no real necessity for special filters in the system. The need for a differential input is indicated because of the presence of large common mode voltages in certain instances, and multiplexing is, of course, necessary to sample the large number of points that are encountered in most process control applications. Otherwise, the signals from most pressure-to-current transducers present no real technical difficulty.

Another common type of analog input device is the thermo-couple iron constantin, chromel-constantin, or aluminum-constantin. These are inexpensive, relatively sensitive, are usable to 3000°F, and have accuracies approaching 1°F. They provide signals in the 0 to 50 millivolt range, but because the control limits are usually more restricted, the usable signal is generally from 5 to 10 millivolts. Generally, the bandwidth of the signal doesn't extend above 1 cps, and usually is within 0.1 to 0.01 cps, so good (second order) filtering can be employed.



Fig. 1 — The differential flow meter is a typical analog input frequently encountered in the process industries.

Since thermocouples are often grouped in several locations, the input signals also tend to come in groups or batches. These are the most difficult common signal sources to handle. Further, the thermocouples are often grounded at the point of measurement, which means that the computer should have very high common mode rejection to minimize ground loop currents which tend to produce normal mode noise because of lead imbalance. The C. M. R. objective should be to stay above 120 db at 60 cycles and 140 db at dc. For computer inputs, it is generally good practice to twist thermocouple lead wires, although in many environments untwisted wires, shielded by conduit and conditioned with filter circuits, yield satisfactory results.

To compensate for the undesired thermocouple effect when terminating T/C lead wires at the computer, an iso-thermal reference box must be employed. This can be a simple enclosure that, although varying with ambient temperature, maintains a uniform temperature within the enclosure. A temperature measuring device which may be read by the computer is included in order that the reference temperature may be calculated (Fig. 2). Another solution, although generally more expensive, is to provide an enclosure which is thermostatically-controlled at a

known temperature — usually elevated (hot junction compensation).

If the user employs a low impedance device such as a multipoint recorder in his system, it may be necessary to duplicate the thermocouple and the wiring in order to achieve satisfactory control. An alternate solution is to use a high impedance amplifier on the recorder or auxiliary device. Otherwise, sharing of the signal can lead to spurious results.

Beyond these rather ordinary problems, there is no real difficulty in interfacing thermocouple devices with computers. Since a considered estimate is that another 30% to 40%of the inputs to process control computers is from such devices, the designer is obviously well advised to satisfy the signal requirements from these and P/I transducers in his basic circuits, and to make special provisions for all other inputs as the situations occur.

When the operating temperatures are below 32°F and fast response to change is unimportant, a resistance bulb thermometer can be used in a bridge circuit. This may entail either a common bridge for multiple inputs, or a bridge completion network per point. The resulting signal is in the 0 to 1 volt range; providing reasonably good signal-to-noise ratio; and requires a frequency response of 1/100 to 1 cycle per second. Filtering is generally unnecessary.

When incorporated in a variable reluctance differential transformer, strain gage transducers can be used to indicate position or pressure and provide a signal of 0 to 1 volt. When used to indicate strain, they are incorporated into bridge type circuits to provide a differential output, typically in the range of 5 to 10 mv. While they may be valuable in many applications, they are not too common in the process industries.

Analytical-type devices, of which mass spectrometers and chromoto-



Fig. 2 — When the input is from a thermocouple, an isothermal reference box must be employed. This can be either thermostatically controlled or vary with ambient temperature.

graphs are example, are required for a relatively small percentage of process control applications, and not all computer manufacturers have developed standardized means of handling the inputs. The basic design problems encountered are wide dynamic signal range (1 mv to 10 volts), relatively high sampling rates (up to several hundred samples per second), and synchronization with the device itself usually on an interrupt basis. These requirements are satisfied by the present state-ofthe-art and only the relatively low incidence and the rather individualistic nature of this type of device has retarded the widespread development within the industry of standardized hardware and software to handle this type of signal. For economic reasons, many suppliers have chosen to interface these devices as the need arises on a special basis for each application.

Multiplexing

With the large number of points that are monitored in the average computer control system, a reliable means must be employed to multiplex the signals. Reliability is generally more important than speed. With the exception of signals from analytical instruments, analog input devices generally need not be sampled more than 5 to 10 times per second. In total, the average input frequency is on the order of 100 to 200 points per second, and while this will probably grow to from 250 to 300 points per second in the next few years, no radical increases are anticipated. Since most changes in the process industries are evolutionary rather than revolutionary, the computer requirements of today are not likely to become obsolete overnight.

It is advisable to provide some means of fault isolation so that miswiring in the field or sudden surges do not damage the computer. For example, the computer manufacturer might provide Zener diode clipping on a group basis to sense overload voltage and isolate the computer circuits from the system (Fig. 3). While this concept is costly and frequently difficult to sell to the customer, it is far less expensive than major damage to the computer and any resultant process "downtime."

The reliability of the devices that

are commonly employed for multiplexing is very high. Mercury relays, for example, have a life expectancy of 10⁹ actuations or better, and reed relays — another popular type are almost as good. In fact, as far as reliability is concerned, it is yet to be proven that solid state, field effect devices will be significantly better. Reed and mercury relays permit transfer accuracies of 0.1% or better on millivolt signals, generally a requirement in process control computer systems. They can withstand large common mode voltages, and several techniques, such as the capacitor transfer method, have been developed to permit very high common mode rejection ratios and the ability to withstand large common mode voltages (150-200 volts).

It may very well be true that field effect switches will obsolete relays by the time another few years have passed. Their use will probably be dictated by speed and cost factors rather than reliability. However, significant obstacles still must be overcome. For one thing, their cost, which is now approximately twice that of the more conventional multiplexer devices, will have to be substantially reduced. For another, some means must be developed of improving their signal resolution and accuracy on millivolt ranges. In contrast, relays can easily resolve signals in the 2 to 3 microvolt range.

Analog Output

In DDC applications, analog outputs are generally used to position valves and stepping motors. In the first instance, this requires a signal output in one of the following ranges to drive the valves: 1 to 5 ma, 4 to 20 ma, or 10 to 50 ma. For driving a stepping motor, a voltage output is desirable, and some means must be developed of interfacing these motors with the computer.

In supervisory applications, where it is necessary to provide output to



Fig. 3 — Fault isolation circuitry eliminates damage to time-shared portion of system.

instruments or a setpoint to a controller, voltage outputs are generally desirable. However, in many instances, a current output will satisfy an instrument requirement, and the current output to a positioning valve can also provide controller setpoints.

As was recommended for multiplexing circuits, isolation of the output sub-systems from the computer is recommended; this prevents field faults from getting back into the time-shared portion of the system. In addition, battery back-up may be provided to hold power to the load for from 30 minutes to an hour, should the primary system power source be interrupted.

Digital Input

To monitor limit switches, counters, relays and other devices that are commonly employed in process applications, it is necessary to have live voltage and contact sense input capabilities. Additionally, an edge sensitive device that will sense a changing state from open to closed, or vice versa, and interrupt the computer, will greatly enhance the over-all efficiency of the system. Console keyboard pushbuttons are effectively interfaced with the latter type device. In these cases, service requests are generally asynchronous with the system and a premium is placed upon system response time.

Digital Output

There are two possible variations of digital output, and two types of devices that can be used to achieve the desired results: a pulsed output that provides pulses of predetermined duration; and a memory flipflop that can be used to pull in relays, light lights, or do other simple tasks. Either solid state or relay devices can be used.

Neither digital input nor output application requirements are likely to change much in the next few years, and the same techniques that are utilized to interface with these devices will probably be used with the machines that are available 3 or 4 years hence.

The Future

Emphasis in the future will probably be toward improving reliability, reducing costs through integrated circuit technology and the utilization of more remote multiplexing to reduce wiring runs and improve signalto-noise ratio.



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negative radix arithmetic

Division Concluded

One way of taking as much of the mystery and difficulty as possible out of the process of negative radix division is to show how every step in it has a corresponding step in normal division. Many of these corresponding steps are so familiar to us that they have long since stopped being explicit steps. Therefore, the process of making negative radix division less mysterious has entailed making positive radix division seem more difficult and complex.

Part 7

M.P. deRegt

The reason for persisting in the apparently pure intellectual exercise of developing a manual method is that understanding of negative radix division is not achieved by the development of a single algorithm suitable for machines. Understanding *is* achieved, if we can successfully divide as human beings, rather than as desk calculators. Such understanding will then provide the basis for design of many machine algorithms so that one can be selected to suit specific general design objectives.

Because negative radix division turns out to be naturally non-restoring, we have had to develop detailed flow charts for both nonrestoring and restoring division so that we could show correspondence between steps. Figure 1 of Part 6, illustrates this correspondence applied to mechanical algorithms — that is, those which use repeated addition or subtraction of a weighted divisor. A further matter considered in Part 6 was the adjustment of the final remainder and quotient for proper division in which the remainder, if non-zero, is of the same polarity as the original dividend.

In this final article on division, we shall consider the remaining steps and conventions for manual division. They are:

• Use of subtraction only for the diminishing operation.

• Generation of individual quotient digits.

- Use of the divisor as the diminishing operand.
- Estimating the quotient digit.

• Determining the position of the initial quotient digit.

Use of Subtraction and Generating Quotient Digits

The first simplifications to the general flow charts of Fig. 1 of Part 6 which we shall adopt are the use of subtraction only as the diminishing operation, and the generation of individual quotient digits in place of performing arithmetic on the en-tire quotient. Therefore, instead of using the weighting factor $(-1)^k$ (rⁱ) on the entire quotient, we use $(-1)^{k}$ on only the current quotient digit. If k is constant, it can be -1, 0, or +1; if it alternates between odd and even, it can be i or $i \pm 1$. Since we wish both to simplify and to be "natural", as in normal manual division, we shall assume that for non-restoring division k = 1 for negaradix and i for posiradix, and for restoring k = i + j for negaradix and j for posiradix where j is 0 or 1 depending on whether the

quotient is positive or negative.

The above assumptions, when combined with subtraction as the constant diminishing operation, result in the mechanical algorithms illustrated in Figures 1 (a) and 1 (b) for non-restoring and restoring division, respectively. These charts may be compared block by block with Figs. 1 (a) and 1 (b) of Part 6; the block numbers and geometry correspond.

Note that the outside dotted lines for alternating operations have been removed, and a minus sign is used in lieu of the compound sign for calculating ID in block 4. (In Fig. 1, part 6, the second line of Block 4 should read "NEW ID = ID \mp WD;" not \pm .) In block 2 (a) and 2 (b), $(-R)^{i}$ and $(-1)^{j}R^{i}$ substitute for the more general $(-1)^{k}r^{i}$ because in:

• negaradix non-restoring, k=0, r=-R;

• posiradix non-restoring, k=i, r= +R;

• negaradix restoring, k=i+j, r= -R;

• posiradix restoring, k=j, r=+R.

These values for k are given in Table 1 (combined with Fig. 1).

Note that use of a positive radix in Fig. 1 (a) and a negative radix in Fig. 1 (b) will result in quotients expressed in special decimal and special negadecimal, respectively (see Part 1). In these special systems, it will be remembered, the digits in alternate positions are negative. Figure 1 thus illustrates the
many fascinating ways in which positive radix and negative radix, special systems, and non-restoring and restoring division are related. These relations are illustrated in the following examples in which negadecimal is on the left, and decimal on the right.

Example 1. Divide 23536 (+17476)by 23 (-17), using the complete non-restoring mechanical algorithm. Pass i = 3

Interim Dividend	qi	Interim Dividend	qi
23536	_	+17476	
23000	1	-17000	-
536		+476	

Pass i=3 ends at this point, since 536 (+476) is less than oneeleventh of the weighted divisor magnitude, -1545 5/11. Hence $q_3 = 1$ (1), $q_2 = 0$, and pass i = 1 is next. Pass i = 1

Interim Dividend	qi	Interim Dividend	qi
536		+476	
230	1	-170	-1
306		+306	
230	2	-170	-2
276		+136	
230	3	-170	-3
46		-34	

Pass 1 ends at this point, because of the polarity change. The test magnitude was -15 5/11, which is obviously much less than +136. The next quotient digit, q_1 , is 3 ($\overline{3}$). Pass i = 0

ass $1 -$	0		
46		-34	
23	1	-17	+1
23		-17	
23	2	-17	+2
0		0	

The quotient digit, q_0 , is 2.

The final quotient is 1032 (+1032). The +1032 in special decimal is easily converted: +0002 +1030 = 2 -1030 = -1028, which is the answer we would have obtained by performing arithmetic directly upon the weighting factor for each operation.

The reader can demonstrate the algorithm for both negadecimal and decimal by dividing 1,000,000 (+1,000,000) by 191 (+11). If this exercise is repeated for the non-restoring algorithm using only the





Division:	Non-Restoring		Restoring		
Radix:	Neg.	Pos.	Neg.	Pos.	
k:	0	i	i+j	j	A/D
k		, i	(-1) ⁱ	+1	Pos. (j=0)
(-1)*:	+1	(-1)-	(-1) ⁱ⁺¹	-1	Neg. (j=1)

Fig. 1 — Flow chart for mechanical division using the magnitude test. See Table 1 for values of $(-1)^k$, the coefficient of r^i in the weighting factor.

polarity test, it will be observed that a string of "tens" is generated; that is, the q_i are all 190 in negadecimal, and alternates between +10 and

-10 in decimal. Thus, a string of tens is the equal of a string of nine/ zero pairs. The results of this division are illustrated in Table 2.





limiting value of unity; similarly, the special negadecimal string of $0.\overline{9999}...$ arising from the division of

	T	ABLI	2			
RESULTS	RESULTS OF NON-RESTORING DIVISION					
(+1,0	00,0	00	÷ -	+ 11)	
Magnitude Test Negadecimal Decimal	q ₄ 9 +9	q 3 0	q ² 9 +9	q 1 0 0	q ₀ 9 +9	Rem. 1 +1
Polarity Test Only Negadecimal Decimal	190 + 10	190 - 10	190 + 10	190 - 10	190 + 10	10 - 10

two nearly equal very large numbers using the negadecimal restoring algorithm has a limiting value of $0.\overline{9090}...+0.0909...,$ or -(-10/11)+(+1/11), which equals unity.

In a negabinary computer, the magnitude test would comprise a comparison of the magnitude of the interim dividend with one-third of the weighted divisor. Not only would one-third of the divisor have to be computed, but the comparing operation would have to be performed after every diminishing operation, which would double the number of operations and complicate both the arithmetic and the control hardware. Thus, for negabinary machine division, the straight polarity-test, nonrestoring algorithm might well be better than one which includes a magnitude test. For the worst possible case — computing $1,000,000 \div$ $111 = 10101 \dots$, using only the polarity test, we would have two operations for each position (see Table 2). With the magnitude test, we would have one diminishing operation plus three magnitude operations for each *pair* of positions, or also an average of two operations per position.

The Divisor as the Diminishing Operation

So far, all the flow charts have used a weighted divisor to diminish the full remaining or interim dividend. Both people and machines typically use the divisor on a highorder portion of the interim dividend. It is therefore necessary to make appropriate changes to the flow charts. At the same time, the procedure for generating individual quotient digits will be substituted for the procedure for modifying the entire quotient.

Although these changes are simple ones, they must nevertheless be made with care to preserve polarity values, and they must be accomplished on four algorithms rather than on one algorithm. The four algorithms are the non-restoring and restoring algorithms applied to both negative and positive radix systems, all of which we need to continue our practice of providing examples in both positive and negative radix versions.

In Block 2 of Figs. 1(a) and 1 (b) the weighting factor is chosen so that subtraction may be used as the diminishing operation in all passes. The formal procedure for doing this is discussed later. By definition, therefore, the interim dividend (ID) and the weighted divisor (WD) will always have the same polarity with our present assumptions. This fact is reflected in the absence of signs in Blocks 3(a) and 3(b).

To use the divisor (D) as the diminishing operand, we note that the polarity is, of course, constant. In restoring division, the polarity of PD remains the same as that of the divisor, A, by definition, and in negaradix non-restoring, it remains the same, since the brought-down divisor digit at the end of each pass restores the polarity of the remainder, A_i , to what it was just before the final polarity-changing diminishing operation. In posiradix non-restoring, however, the PD changes polarity at each pass.

In Figs. 1(a) and 1(b), we can therefore use PD instead of ID at the beginning of each pass, and A_i instead of ID after each diminishing operation. We can also substitute D for WD, except for posiradix nonrestoring, where D must be prefixed with $(-1)^i$. In the case of restoring division, although PD and D each have constant polarities, the polarities of A and D, and therefore of PD and D, may be opposite. In Fig. 1(b), PD or A_i may be substituted for ID, but $(-1)^i$ D must be substituted for D.

Referring to block 5a, the separate "=" branch to "END" must be eliminated and the "=" combined with the ">" branch, because of the possibility that a PD of zero might indicate a very small but non-zero ID. For the same reason, block 5b must be completely eliminated, and block 4 connected directly to block 3b.

A separate flow chart for these changes is not given; however, they are reflected in the corresponding blocks of the flow charts of Figs. 2 and 3.

Estimating The Quotient Digit

Still assuming that the location of the most significant quotient digit has been correctly established, block 1 of Fig. 1, we shall proceed now to make the last step in the transition from the primitive counting algorithm to the complete manual algorithm. This step substitutes estimating the quotient digit, and adjusting the estimate either up or down, for tallying or counting each quotient digit using single diminishing operations.

Several interesting and arbitrary matters about the quotient digit should be emphasized at this point. First of all, it is clear from Table 1 that the quotient increment $(-1)^{k}$ is always positive only for negaradix non-restoring division. The polarity alternates between even and odd positions for posiradix non-restoring, meaning that the quotient (for R =10) will be expressed in the "special decimal" explained in Part 1. In negaradix restoring division, the polarity alternates for successive positions, but with the negative digits



Fig. 3—Flow chart for the complete manual restoring division algorithm. Use k = i + j for negaradix; k = j for posiradix; j = O if A/D is negative. The dotted portions are provided to preserve the parallel with the non-restoring flow chart, Fig. 2.

being in the odd positions when the dividend (A) and the divisor (D) are of the same polarity, and in the even positions otherwise. For the normal posiradix restoring division, the quotient digits are all positive if A and D are of the same polarity, and all negative if A and D are of opposite polarity. Of course, this is division of signed numbers, rather than of unsigned numbers, and this column of Table 1 is in effect a statement of the rule of signs for normal division. However, to preserve the parallelism, in the flow charts, and in the examples, we shall use signed digits where they occur, using numerals in italics to indicate negative

digits. Thus, any adjustments that are necessary will apply only to the current quotient digit, so that no arithmetic need be performed on the quotient as a whole.

It is interesting that, as in addition, subtraction, and multiplication, the algorithm for negaradix nonrestoring division applies to operands of both polarities and is independent of their polarities. Of course, because it is non-restoring division, and not because it is negaradix division, a test on the remainder is necessary if proper division is desired. These factors are all of great importance in designing a machine algorithm for a computer.

The flow chart for manual nonrestoring division is shown in Fig. 2, and for manual restoring division in Fig. 3. These two flow charts have been drawn so that corresponding steps are in corresponding places, for easy comparison. The unfamiliar steps of negaradix non-restoring division can therefore be related directly to the corresponding step of the familiar normal algorithm. The "normal" restoring algorithm is presented in a highly stylized and detailed fashion, with certain corresponding steps that are not used shown in dotted lines.

The most important differences between these two flow charts and those of Figs. 1(a) and 1(b) are that Figs. 2 and 3 have omitted the "Determine Initial i" block, and have included the polarity test and the additional magnitude test to provide for the possibility of a quotient digit estimate which changes the polarity of the PD. If the quotient digit is too large, one or more restoring operations will be required. The result is the symmetrical arrangement of Fig. 2, in which tests against the upper and lower limits of the test interval blocks 3a and 5a, appear on opposite sides of the polarity test each followed by the appropriate adjusting operation. In Fig. 3, block 5b, the lower limit of the test interval, is zero, so that this "magnitude test" simply repeats the function of the polarity test.

As to the estimate itself, in decimal division the quotient digit is estimated by mental reference to the multiplication tables with which we are thoroughly familiar. In negadecimal, the use of a special table is necessary. This was provided in Table 4 of Part 4; it and the discussion of its use, step 2, are given on page 43 of the August 1967 issue.

Both flow charts use the partial dividend and divisor, rather than the interim dividend and the weighted divisor, so that the transition to the manual algorithm is complete. (Machine algorithms which shift the dividend at the beginning of each pass also use the partial dividend and the divisor.) The remainder is used rather than the partial dividend after the first diminishing operation, because technically, the partial dividend is a specific number representing the start of a new pass, as indicated in block 9. If there are no more dividend digits, block 8, then

the remainder is the final remainder except for adjustments required for proper division. The flow chart of Fig. 2, Part 6 may be used for this final stage of the process.

If the test ratio $(-1)^{k}A_{1}/D$ is almost equal to one or the other of the test limits, then ID/WD should be used in its place. If this ratio exactly equals the test limit, then the rest of the quotient may be written down immediately, as shown in blocks 12 or 13, although the final remainder must still be computed. If the ratio is only almost equal, then the first digit of the digit sequence of blocks 12 or 13 may be used as an estimate for the next quotient digit. A simple test for divisibility by R + 1 will be briefly described next.

Divisibility by R + 1

In decimal and negadecimal, R + 1is eleven, and the test for divisibility by eleven is fairly well known. We present it here because the tests for divisibility by nine and eleven have a dual nature which is reversed in an interesting fashion when applied to negadecimal. In fact, the test for divisibility by eleven in negadecimal is identical to the test for divisibility by nine in decimal: if the sum of the digits of the negadecimal (decimal) number is divisible by eleven (nine), then so is the original number. For example, 29 is divisible by eleven; + 27 is divisible by 9.

The dual of this test is divisibility by nine in negadecimal, which is identical to the test for divisibility by eleven in decimal: if the sum of the digits in the even positions less the sum of the digits in the odd positions of a decimal (negadecimal) number is divisible by eleven (nine), then so is the original number. For example, in 1837132, the even digits add up to +7, and the odd digits add up to +18, the difference of which is -11.

The fact that alternating digits in negadecimal have opposite weight is the basis for this relationship, and the explanation for it may perhaps be more clearly understood if the term and notation for special decimal is substituted for negadecimal. Then, the sum of the digits is actually the difference of the sum of the even digits and the sum of the absolute value of the odd digits.

These tests are, of course, applicable to any pair of positive and negative radix number systems having the same R. In fact, these tests are expressed quite explicitly, and more generally, by Hall and Knight's **Higher Algebra** sections 82 and 84, on pages 62-64 (first published in 1887):

"82. In any scale of notation of which the radix is r, the sum of the digits of any whole number divided by r-1 will leave the same remainder as the whole number divided by r-1. "84. If N denote any number in the scale of r, and D denote the difference, supposed positive, between the sums of the digits in the odd and even places; then N-D or N+D is a multiple of r+1."

Number 82 is very well known, and finds applications such as "casting out nines" in checking decimal arithmetic, and parity checking in binary arithmetic. Applied to binary, No. 84 would provide a test for divisibility by three. In negabinary, however, it is No. 82 which tests for divisibility by three, which means that the modulo-three sum of the digits can be used.

Determining the Initial Value of i

In Part 4, we developed a procedure for estimating the first trial quotient digit from the division table, which requires testing the first remainder and adjusting the position of the first quotient digit as indicated by the test. However, it is clear that we can use the magnitude test, slightly modified, to establish definitely the quotient digit position before estimating the quotient digit. While the procedure described in Part 4 is probably quite adequate (and may in fact be faster) a method for determining the exact position provides us with a more elegant and rigorous algorithm and flow charts, which more closely parallels the conventional procedure, and provides the basis for machine designs.

The price of such explicitness in the procedure is added detail, which is more conveniently provided in separate flow charts, Figs. 4 and 5, expanded to include all of the initial decisions and tests.

The procedure is based on computing a trial value for i by taking the difference of the position number



Fig. 4 — Flow chart for determining most significant quotient digit position, non-restoring division.

TABLE 3 Limiting Values for A/WD for Trial i For Trial i to be Correct						
Division	Non	Restoring	Re	storing	For Trial i	as Defined
Radix	Neg.	Pos.	Neg.	Pos.	Neg.	Pos.
Upper Limit	9.0909	+ 9.0909	9.9999	+9.9999	+ 99.99	+ 9.999
Limiting Value	+100/11	+ 100/11	+10	+10	+ 100	+ 10
Lower Limit	1.9090	+ 19090	1.0000	+ 1.0000	+ 0.010	+0.100
Limiting Value	+1/11	+1/11	+1	+1	+ 0.01	+ 0.1

of the dividend and the position number of the divisor. For integers, this is simply the difference in the total number of digits in each, which effectively lines up the most significant digits of the dividend and divisor. Appending zeroes to the blank positions of the divisor gives us the weighted divisor, which corresponds to establishing $\pm r^1$ as the trial weighting factor, the sign being selected so as to make the polarities of dividend and weighted divisor the same.

With the most significant digits lined up, the ratio of dividend and trial weighted divisor have maximum and minimum values as follows (for R = 10) determined by taking maximum and minimum values for n digits:

$$\frac{A}{VD} = \frac{10^{n} (0.9090 \dots)}{10^{n} (0.1909 \dots)}$$

= +100 -e, or +99.999... (for negadecimal)

$$\frac{A}{WD} = \frac{+10^{n}(+0.9999...)}{+10^{n}(+0.1000...)}$$

= +10 - e, or +9.999...
(for decimal)

In the same way,

$$\left[\frac{A}{WD} = +\frac{1}{100} + e\right], \text{ or } + 0.01000$$

... (for negadecimal)

$$\left[\frac{A}{WD} = +\frac{1}{10} + e\right], \text{ or } +0.1000$$
.... (for decimal)

However, for the trial i to be correct, q_i must be non-zero, which means that the ratio A/WD will have a definite upper limit starting with 9 and a definite lower limit starting with 1. These are shown for the four algorithms in Table 3, using R = 10 for clarity. The table includes the absolute maxima and minima developed above.

Therefore, for non-restoring division, the trial i will be correct if the following inequality holds (reverting back to the general expressions for any radix, in which

$$\begin{array}{ccc} R = |r|: \\ \frac{R^2}{R+1} > & \frac{A}{(-R)^4 D} > & \frac{1}{R+1} \end{array}$$

If the ratio is too large, then the trial i should be increased by 2, which has the effect of moving the initial quotient digit two places to the left. If the ratio is too small, then i should be decreased by 2. These rules are given in blocks 2 and 3 of Fig. 4, where absolute values are to permit postponing the selection of k and diminishing operation rules.

For restoring division, the corresponding inequality is:

$$R > \frac{A}{(-1)^{j}R^{i}D} \ge 1,$$

where j is selected to make the polarities of the numerator and denominator the same. If the ratio is too large, then the trial i must be increased by 1; if it is too small, the trial i must be decreased by either 1 or 2.

Comparison of the absolute limits and the limits for correct trial i, in Table 3, shows that for non-restoring division, a too-large ratio is possible for both positive and negative radix, since both +100 and +10 are larger than +100/11, but a too-small ratio is possible only in negaradix, since +0.1 lies within the limits for posiradix division. Thus, block 3a in Fig. 4 would never be used in the posiradix non-restoring algorithm.

By a similar analysis, we observe the well-known fact that in normal division, block 3b of Fig. 5 would never be used, and that the "init i = i-2" possibility of block 3a could not arise. For "special negaradix" restoring division, the ratio can be too large by as much as a factor of +10 (R), so that block 3b provides for replacing the trial i by i+1. In the case of the lower limit, the minimum possible ratio is 0.01, so that a shift to the right of either one or two places may be required for q_i (block 3a of Fig. 5).

This much of Figs. 4 and 5 definitely establishes the location of the initial qi, paving the way for estimating the value of qi with the assurance that it is non-zero. The balance of the two flow charts deal with decisions concerning the value of k and the choice of diminishing operation. For normal division and negaradix restoring, we wish to have k constant and to use subtraction exclusively as the diminishing operation. These decisions are shown by the left-hand (a-side) of Fig. 4 and the right-hand (b-side) of Fig. 5. The other possibilities involve either an alternating value of k or an alternating diminishing operation. The decisions shown in the flow chart provide for alternating k and the use of subtraction exclusively. None of the other possibilities are flow charted.



Fig. 5 — Flow chart for determining most significant quotient digit position, restoring division.

Summary

If we review the five steps outlined in the introduction to division in Part 4 for decimal manual division, we find that they can be used for negadecimal division, except for the need to adjust the final results for proper division. The six steps are then as follows:

1. Determine most significant quotient digit position. 2. Estimate initial quotient digit.

3. Compute new remainder.

4. Test remainder and adjust quotient if necessary.

(Use interim dividend if the test is close.)

5. Obtain next partial dividend by bringing down next dividend digit.

(Note: the partial dividend cannot be used for decimal non-restoring division because sign changes cause subtraction of low order dividend digits.) Repeat steps (2) through (5) until division is complete.
6. Adjust quotient and remainder

for proper division. These steps are indicated in Figs.

4 and 5 in the numbered circles. Examples of division illustrating these steps are shown in Fig. 6.

This completes the discussion on division. If we had been interested only in machine division, we could have ended the discussion after Part 5. If we had done that, we would not only have missed the richest and most interesting aspects of negative radix division, we would also still not have any real "feel" for it. The apparently intellectual exercise of achieving manual negadecimal division has therefore had the very pragmatic effect of forcing a most searching analysis of the process of division in general, positive radix as well as negative radix. In doing so, we have shed light on some previously unexplored properties of non-restoring decimal arithmetic and, as far as the magnitude tests are concerned, on properties of non-restoring binary arithmetic.

We have seen that the apparently synthetic "special decimal" of Part 1 can be used as an arithmetical account of what happens in non-restoring division. We use the magnitude limits of a given number of negadecimal digits, which were derived in Part 2, to develop the magnitude test and to determine the trial "i". We observe the importance of the digit-oriented arithmetic which was explained and fully illustrated in Part 3, an example of which occurs in step 5 of the procedure for nonrestoring decimal division where it is not possible to "bring down" the next dividend digit.

In the concluding article of this series, we shall make use of still another fascinating property of negative radix numbers. Because a negative number is completely different from its positive counterpart, operations to produce the additive inverse of the results of normal arithmetic operations become non-trivial. These operations comprise a completely new class of arithmetic operations another arithmetic. One of the most important properties of complementary arithmetic is that addition has carries of only one sign, making the addition and multiplication tables more like those of normal decimal.

Example 1.	Division of a Positive D	Dividend by a Positive Divis	or (+/+):
373	+ 373	233	+ 233
267/046413 561	+ 147/ + 34393 + 44100	267/046413 314	+ 147/ + 34393 + 294
19031 19189	- 09707 - 10290	1501 - (561)	+ 499 + 441
623 561	+ 583 + 441	623 561	+ 583 + 441
262	+142	262	+ 142
Example 2.	Division of a Negative	Dividend by a Positive Divi	sor (-/+):
1846	+ 1846	234	+ 234
267/0175617 267	+ 147/-34403 + 147000	267/0175617 - (314)	+ 147/-34403 - 294
19286 19236	+ 112597 + 117600	501 561	- 500 - 441
501 628	5003 5880	19407 - (628)	- 593 - 588
937 922	+ 877 + 882	15	-5
15	-5		
Example 3.	Division of a Negative D	Dividend by a Negative Div	isor (-/-):
374	+ 374	234	+ 234
1953/175617 1659	- 147/ - 34403 - 44100	1953/175617 1706	-147/-34403 -294
1171 1031	+ 09697 + 10290	501 - (1659)	- 500 - 441
1407	- 593	1407	- 593
1592	- 588	1592	- 588
15	-5	15	-5
Example 4.	Division of a Positive D	ividend by a Negative Divis	sor (+/-):
1847	+ 1847	233	+ 233
1953/0046413	-147/+34393	1953/046413	- 147/+ 34393
1953	+ 147000	- (1706)	+ 294
2934 2984	- 112607 - 117600	1501 1659	+ 499 + 441
1501 1592	+ 4993 + 5880	623 - (1659)	+ 583 + 441
1293 1031	- 887 - 1029	262	+142
262	+ 142		Sec. 1

Fig. 6 Examples of division. These are the inverse of the multiplication examples of Pari 4, except that the products have been slightly changed by the addition of -5 to provide non-zero remainders.

The arrangement of these examples is slightly different from previous examples, since we have the usual negadecimal on the left and decimal on the right for both non-restoring and restoring division. Therefore, the examples for all four algorithms are placed in line, in four adjacent columns occupying the whole width of the page. In that way, we have the convenience of being able to compare negadecimal non-restoring with decimal restoring. The order (from left to right) is: negadecimal non-restoring, special decimal non-restoring, special negadecimal restoring and decimal restoring.

Note that in the special decimal nonrestoring, the interim dividends must be used. Note also, in the special negadecimal restoring, that subtraction of a negadecimal number prefixed with a minus sign can be accomplished by "changing the sign of the subtrahend" and adding. As usual, a sign before a number indicates that it is decimal; a number without a sign (within parentheses) is negadecimal.

The examples started in Part 4 will be left as exercises for the reader, starting with the polarity test on the remainder.

Corregendum to Fig. 4, Part 6	for exponent i
Delete $(-1)^{i}$ from blocks 3	In block 4(ba), substitute k for the exponent i
(ab) and 5 (ab)	In block 2(bb), substitute j
Correnda to Fig 5 Part 6	for k in three places
contenua to rig. 5, rait o	In block 3(bb), substitute j
In block $2(ba)$, $k = i + j$	for i
$WF = (-1)^{j} (-r)^{i}$	In block 4(bb), substitute j
In block 3(ba), substitute j	for i



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3	٧	at	6	A
5	۷	at	5	Α
15	۷	at	2	Α

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A new regulated solid-state dual power supply provides two highlyregulated, independent, continuouslyadjustable outputs covering the range from 1.2 to 30 volts at currents from 0 to 500 milliamperes and with a ripple level below 1 millivolt rms. When operated in series as one unit, the two supplies will furnish voltages between 2.4 and 60 volts at currents up to 1/2 ampere. Output voltages are monitored by two front panel meters. The output terminals of each supply are isolated so that either terminal may be grounded. Short circuit protection and current limiting are provided. The unit measures $3\frac{1}{2}$ inches high, 15 inches wide, and 8 inches deep. Aul Instruments, Inc., Long Island City, N.Y.

Circle No. 270 on Inquiry Card

MILITARY COMPUTER

A general-purpose militarized digital computer weighs five pounds and measures less than one-tenth of a cubic foot. Functional simplicity, high speed (100,000 operations/sec.), NDRO/DRO core memory, and monolithic integrated logic and memory circuits are key features of the computer. The memory design is said to combine the reliability of an NDRO wired program with the efficiency of coincident-current selection circuitry common to program and scratch pad storage. In addition, the entire memory may be operated in a standard DRO mode utilizing externally-loaded programs. American Bosch Arma Corp., Garden City, N. Y.

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New line of integrated circuit logic cards has complete voltage decoupling on each logic card through use of an emitter follower driven by a highly regulated, low ripple power supply, as well as capacitive decoupling on each board to permit power supply bussing, without detrimental power loss or noise generation. These high density modules will use fast-switching DTL integrated circuit elements in a short circuit proof 14-pin dual in-line package. Use of a standard 44-pin edge connector provides termination flexibility (solder, wire wrap, taper pin, Termi-point, or printed circuit mother board). Units are available for reliable performance up to 5MHz at temperatures from 0°C. to 70°C. Datascan, Inc., Clifton, N. J.

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Multiplexer/converter offers a total throughput rate of 667 kHz. The system utilizes a 1-microsecond conversion speed of an 8-bit converter. It is said to provide the most economical method for digitizing up to 10 channels of high-frequency data. Its unitary addressing code allows



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control of sampling rates of the 10 input data channels — sampling one channel up to 667,000 times a second if such thin "data slicing" is needed — then sampling each of the other nine channels at a rate selected individually for that channel. Each channel is selected and its data digitized in 1.5 microseconds. Resolution is 8 bits including sign, and accuracy is 0.5% of full scale $\pm \frac{1}{2}$ LSB. Adage, Inc., Boston, Mass.

Circle No. 271 on Inquiry Card

CORE MEMORY

Small, high-speed $2\frac{1}{2}D$ core memory system is designed for OEM and non-severe military applications. The NANOMEMORY trademark 2650 is packaged in a 7" high sliding drawer (including power supply and optional tester) which mounts into a standard EIA 19-inch wide cabinet. According to the Company, the new system is the smallest for its speed and capacity on the commercial market. A combination of integrated circuit electronics with a unique $2\frac{1}{2}D$ drive system gives the

NANOMEMORY 2650 a cycle time of 650 nanoseconds and an access time of 350 nanoseconds. Silicon integrated circuits are used for all logic, addressing, decoding, timing, control, and sensing functions. The proprietary drive scheme for which a patent is pending is said to enhance system reliability and storage density. The system can handle up to 16,384 words x 18 bits, 8,192 words x 36 bits or 4,096 words x 36 bits, without any modification of the 7" high x 19" wide x 21" deep configurations. For greater word capacity and extended word lengths, NANOMEMORY 2650's can be conveniently stacked. Use of a new magnetic selection technique enables stack connections to be significantly reduced — to the extent that all magnetics and system electronics are mounted on plug-in printed circuit boards. Core stacks as well as accompanying circuitry are therefore readily accessible for maintenance and can be quickly removed and replaced if necessary. All modules of a common type are directly interchangeable with each other and no module selection or adjustments

are required to ensure stable performance over the operating temperature range of 5°C to 45°C. For further reliability, the use of a double keying technique prevents misorientation of printed circuit modules or insertion into an incorrect location. The 2650 also includes protection circuitry to ensure that no stored data is lost during power turn-on, turn-off or failure, and no damage can be caused by excessive internal temperature or DC voltage conditions. Front of rack access is provided to all system modules and wiring.

The NANOMEMORY 2650's high operating speed and compact packaging make it well suited for all applications where high reliability and simplified maintenance are required. Electronic Memories, Inc. introduced the first submicrosecond 2¹/₂D commercial memory system in 1964. This unit offers full cycle times down to 650 nanoseconds and capacities up to 16,384 words x 84 bits. In addition to commercial memory systems, Electronic Memories produces cores, stacks, and systems for aerospace and data processing applications. Electronic Memories, Hawthorne, Cal.

Circle No. 249 on Inquiry Card

CONTACTORS FOR DUAL-IN-LINES

The new 029-271 Series Contactors are for use with 14 and 16 lead molded dual-in-line carriers. The carriers themselves accept all standard 14 or 16 packages with flat or rolled leads and have found widespread usage as convenient protective D. I. P. containers. When used with the 029-271 contactors, the carriers can be utilized in testing, aging and breadboarding applications, both at ambient and elevated temperatures. The 029-271 Series contactors are molded of Polysulfone for dependable and continuous operation over the range of -65° C to 150°C. Contacts are spring tempered Ni/Au plated beryllium copper of a wiping-type design which protects against lead deformation during device testing. Interlead capacitance of the contactors is less than 0.4 pf. at 1 megacycle and contact resistance is below 10 milliohms. Flat ribbon-type terminals on the contactors permit either wave solder-



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ELECTRONICS DIVISION

ing or hand wired solder connections. The contactors are available with mounting flanges for chassis mounting or without flanges for incorporation into printed circuit boards. Loading and unloading of the carriers into the contactors is a quick and simple one-hand operation, facilitated by prominent polarization notches. Contactor life expectancy is rated in excess of 25,000 carrier insertions. Price is \$1.25 to \$2.55, depending on model, and quantity and delivery is stock to two weeks. Barnes Development Co., Lansdowne, Pennsylvania.

Circle No. 251 on Inquiry Card

ANALOG/HYBRID COMPUTER

Said to be the first desk-top scientific computer to provide advanced analog computing capabilities plus all of the requirements for expansion to a full-scale hybrid computing system. Designated the EAI 580, the system is a general-purpose, 10 volt, 80 amplifier, solid-state computing system that is pre-wired for full expansion. It includes up to 70 servo set potentiometers, provisions for a digital logic system and a hybrid control interface in the main console. The 580 offers a completely self-contained, integratedcircuit logic facility within the console. The addition of hybrid control interface equipment in space provided within the basic system provides for integration with external digital computers, making it readily expandable to a full hybrid system. A full line of peripheral readout equipment is also available. Simplified operating provisions include a new electronic keyboard addressing system for the automatic setting of up to 70 servo-set potentiometers. They can also be set by a "Pot Control Lever" which raises or lowers setting values with a simple bi-directional movement of the lever. Values of setting are displayed instantly on the system's high accuracy digital voltmeter. The new variable diode function generators are designed for easy set-up and are in pull-out drawers so the operator can set them while seated at the console. The high speed amplifiers perform at full amplitude over the entire bandwidth with no velocity limiting. A unique track/store unit provides fast signal tracking (less

than 1 usec time constant) with a small capacitor, and offers low drift by means of a large capacitor. The entire computer-32" high x 51" wide x 29" deep weighs less than 600 pounds when fully expanded. It sets easily on any normal laboratory bench or desk and can be conveniently transported from one area of need to another. It operates from any 110 or 220 VAC outlet, and requires less than 500 watts when fully expanded. No special environmental controls are needed. According to Fred Martinson, vice president of EAI's Computer Division, "The 580 was born out of the need for high performance analog computation, as well as the requirement for a hybridoriented desk-top analog computer. It has all of the features a digital computer user needs to add analog and hybrid capabilities to his facility." The EAI 580 was displayed publicly for the first time at WES-CON in San Francisco. The 580 ranges in price from below \$10,000 for a basic system to approximately \$55,000 for a fully expanded (without interface, but including logic) system. The first units will be available in October. Electronic Associates, W. Long Branch, New Jersey.

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COMPACT INCREMENTAL RECORDER

A compact incremental digital magnetic tape recorder featuring the 6" reel holding 250' of tape, requires only 7" of vertical panel space in a standard 19" rack mount. Recording at 200 CPI, 7-channel, the stepping rates are asynchronous to 150 steps per second. Higher stepping rates and density are also offered. Lateral parity is automatically generated as is the LCC and IRG, and the reel drive is full servo. The advantages of magnetic recording are provided at a price competitive with paper tape perforators. Delta-Corders, Inc., Burbank, California 91502.

Circle No. 201 on Inquiry Card

MACHINE TOOL READOUT

A built-in electronic calculator in the Wang Model 100 Position Readout System computes reference point shift and assures the machinist oper-

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Circle No. 202 on Inquiry Card

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An improved Z-axis digital readout is available with all PICOMM Coordinate Measuring Systems manufactured by Potter Instrument Co. The Z-axis measurement capability greatly increases the flexibility and capability of the system. It makes possible measurement and layout in three axis with only one set-up. Heights and depths of three dimensional pieces can be quickly determined to an accuracy of 0.0005". Shaft diameters and concentricities are easily checked by mounting between centers and rotating them under the stylus. The Z-axis also converts the PICOMM into a fast and efficient tool setter as the height of the tools can be set very quickly and accurately. The Z-axis has a range of 7 inches. A Z-axis vernier is also available to facilitate setting of the stylus at any desired height in measuring contours and in layout in the third axis. The PICOMM Coordinate Measuring Machine provides a clear, instantaneous digital readout to the nearest 0.0002". Convenient directional





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Circle No. 216 on Inquiry Card

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lored to accept inputs from analog multiplexers, A-D converters, time code generators or tape search and control units. Either fixed or variable sampling rates are easily accommodated, and Binary or BCD codes can be used. Controls are provided for single or multiple block operation and writing speeds up to 100K tape characters per second are offered. The output magnetic tape is suitable for use by IBM 360 or RCA Spectra 70 computers. An optional transient recirculate mode (TRM) is available. Transient information on one or two channels captured by the buffer memory is recirculated for visual display and analysis on an oscilloscope. Electronic Engineering Company of California, Santa Ana, California 92702.

Circle No. 211 on Inquiry Card

ENCAPSULANT, DIELECTRIC AND BONDING CEMENT

A new elastic ceramic dielectric material - a mixture of lead titanate, lead zirconate and borosilicate glass - was recently reported at the American Ceramic Society 20th Pacific Coast Regional Meeting. Called "Composition P," the material can be used for a variety of micro-electronic integrated circuit applications. It exhibits many useful characteristics not shared by other similar compositions known as polycrystalline lead-IVB multiple oxides. It is a good insulating material, has a low dielectric constant, and demonstrates unusual elasticity. properties permit Composition P to These be used as a hermetic encapsulant, as a dielectric substance for printed capacitors, and as a metal-to-ceramic bonding cement. Because of its properties as an insulating material relatively free from the effects of porosity and "pinholing," Composition P has been used successfully as a printed glaze encapsulant to provide a protective coating and hermetic seal for micro-electronic devices, including capacitance and resistance elements. Composition P has a low dielectric constant - in the range of 10 to 100 - and has been used to fabricate printed thick film capacitors. Experimental printed capacitors (2100 picofarads per square inch) were observed to change less than 5 percent in capacitance and dissipation factor for either a

temperature change of 0 to 100°C or a frequency change of 100 hertz (cycles per second) to 100 megahertz (million cycles per second). In addition, because of its unusual elastic properties, Composition P has also been used as a bonding cement for joining metals to ceramic materials. This application is unique in that Composition P can bond two dissimilar materials which differ substantially in their thermal coefficients of expansion. For example, excellent results have been obtained when bonding a bulk silver ribbon (thermal coefficient of expansion is 191 x 10^{-7}), measuring five mils thick and ten mils wide, to an alumina substrate (thermal coefficient of expansion is 60 x 10⁻⁷). IBM Components Division, East Fishkill, New York.

Circle No. 206 on Inquiry Card

BUFFERED MAG-TAPE MEMORIES

A recently announced line of buffered magnetic tape memories said to be the first offered as standard products, are priced significantly lower than previous, custom-made buffered tape memories. According to the manufacturer, they offer the computer and digital system user a range of tape transport speeds, recording densities, transfer rates and core memory capacities unprecedented in buffered tape memories. The memories, models BTM7, BTM9, BTM11 and BTM12, consist of a digital tape transport with data electronics, magnetic core memory, control panel, d-c power supply and equipment cabinet. They accept asynchronous digital data over a wide range of character rates. The incoming data are stored and recorded in computer-compatible format on magnetic tape. Integratedcircuit control logic permits the buffered tape memories to interface easily with the user's data sources. Optional data conversion and formatting equipment is also available. Flexibility of tape and core memory components enables the BTM models to produce computer-compatible taped data with continuous input rates from zero to 85,000 bytes per second (at 150 ips and 800 bpi with a 4,096-word core memory). Short term data transfer rates up to 500,-000 bytes per second are achieved. Size of the data blocks may be varied

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CIRCLE NO. 47 ON INQUIRY CARD

Circle No. 204 on Inquiry Card

MASS CORE MEMORY

A mass core memory with a capacity range of 5 to 20 million bits has a full cycle time of 2.5 microseconds for sizes up to 10 million bits and 2.75 microseconds for larger sizes up to 20 million bits. The unit's design provides for a high degree of modularity from the standpoint of total capacity and word lengths. It is a non-volatile data storage and retrieval device that allows for a simplified two-wire memory device. The 2-1/2D selection scheme used permits use of an efficient near-square stack array and yet takes advantage of the economies of coincident current road selection. This technique, combined with a unique sensing device, makes the memory reliable and economical for use in a number of applications. Characteristics of the memory make it suitable for use as a mass storage system. High reliability and low maintenance (functional organization) coupled with high data transfer rate and no latency, enforce its position in a computer system. The memory can be integrated into most computer systems without hardware modification to existing equipment by means of a controller unit. Systems without additional core storage capacity can communicate with the mann memory through an 1/0 channel. Fabri-Tek, Inc., Minneapolis, Minn.

Circle No. 208 on Inquiry Card

LOW-COST UNIVERSAL MEMORY SYSTEM

A compact, low-cost, 1024 word by one bit coincident memory occupying only 214 cubic inches has been announced by Ferroxcube Corporation. The FI-1 Core Memory System, which incorporates integrated circuits, is suitable for a wide variety of applications such as data transmission buffering, CRT refresh, data logging, formatting and general storage requirements. It contains address

decoding, ferrite core drivers, data input/output circuits and internal timing logic for half cycle operation. A card slot is provided for an extender card or universal card to provide different operating modes. Read or write cycle time for the new memory system is 1 usec and the access time is 900 nsec. Power requirements are plus and minus 6 volts, and the output for Logic "0" is zero volts to +0.45 v at 30 ma, for Logic "1" it is +3.5to +7.0 v (+Vcc). Designed to provide a maximum of flexibility for integration into a variety of packaging methods, the FI-1 is provided with a dust cover for bench use or remote mounting. With the cover removed, the assembly can be mounted to a 19-inch rack adapter panel or used as a sub-assembly within $3-\frac{1}{2}$ or 5-1/4 inch high card racks. The FI-1 weighs less than 5 pounds and measures 3-11/16 x 11-1/8 x 5-7/32 inches with the dust cover. Price is \$650.00. Optional items are (1) Extender card: \$40.00; (2) Universal card: \$35.00. Ferroxcube Corp., Memory System Division, Englewood, Colorado.

Circle No. 209 on Inquiry Card

LOW-COST PCM TELEMETRY SIMULATOR

High-performance simulator of pulsecode modulation (PCM) signals provides all standard IRIG PCM telemetry formats, and also can be programmed to simulate pulse-duration modulation (PCM) telemetry signals. The 2795 has wide application to the test and checkout of data systems employing digital data transmission such as aerospace telemetry systems. Operating modes of the 2795 are switch selectable. It can generate formats having up to 599 digital words in the main frame, and another 599 words in a subcommutated frame, at word lengths of 1 to 33 bits. Serial output is available in any of the seven common digital codes, and a parallel binary (NRZC) output is supplied also. Bit rates from 1 bps to 2 Mbps are selectable. Signal disturbances such as drop-out, baseline offset, bit-rate jitter and noise can be introduced through an external input. At \$7000 the 2795 offers a low-cost self-contained checkout facility for digital data communications and processing systems. Electro-Mechanical Research, Inc., Sarasota, Florida.

Circle No. 207 on Inquiry Card

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IC Flat Packs

Data sheet gives complete information, including a standard configuration chart, on a standard line of flatpacks which utilizes such materials as Corning's 7052 hard glass, nickel iron cobalt, and alumina glass compositions. Also included is a chart showing GTI Flat-Pack Sealing Profiles, and a description of the Dix Model FP-VP-10 Flat-Pack Perimeter Sealer used to seal the standard line of flat-packs. Providence Division, GTI Corporation, Providence, Rhode Island.

Circle No. 318 on Inquiry Card

Subminiature Ceramic Capacitors

Bulletin H29 describes two new series of subminiature capacitors offering high capacitance in small size. Rated at 25 VDC over the temperature range -55° C to $+85^{\circ}$ C, both series are available in capacitance values from $0.01\mu f$ to $0.15\mu f$ and meet or exceed the requirements of MIL-C-11015 (latest revision). They are designed for use in computers as well as for by-pass and coupling applications in any circuitry. Encapsulated in wax impregnated phenolic, both series are available with radial or axial tinned copper leads. Gulton Industries, Metuchen, New Jersey.

Circle No. 320 on Inquiry Card

Indicator Lights

Eight-page condensed catalog describes the entire Eldema line of indicator lights for military, industrial and commercial applications. Highlighted are Logic-Lites, indicators with built-in transistorized lamp driver networks, and the RFI/EMI shielded versions of lampholders which provide effective attenuation for interference shielding. Specifications for many varieties of holders and lens caps include those for the R-Lite family of relampable holders for use with the midget flange-based T-13/4 incandescent and T-2 neon lamps, D-holders designed to mate with corresponding plug-in C-Lite cartridges, and the T-Series family of relampable holders and lens caps for use with the T-31/4 bayonetbased incandescent and neon bulbs. Also detailed are the permanent mounted type E-Lites, relampable H-Lites for military applications, and the permanently mounting subminiature J-Lites. Eldema, Compton, California.

Circle No. 321 on Inquiry Card

Motor Catalog

Eight-page instrument motor catalog fully covers a line of servo-control, induction, reluctance, and hysteresis synchronous motors. Each of the four types of motors are available with one of 20 standard gear trains from 0.67 to 1800 rpm, a dual bearing shaft support, and a modernized epoxy-insulated stator. Amphenol Controls Division, Amphenol Corporation, Janesville, Wisc.

Circle No. 322 on Inquiry Card

Relays, Time Delays

Eight-page brochure provides technical data on the complete line of Leach relays and time delay relays. Electrical, physical and environmental specifications are presented for: subminiature relays, dry circuit to 10 amps; power and control relays, 5 to 15 amps; power contactors, 20 to 400 amps; electronic time delays, 50 ms to 200 minutes. Leach Corporation, San Marino, Calif. 91108.

Circle No. 300 on Inquiry Card

Test Instruments

Thirty-two page document provides complete information on instruments built by the three manufacturing plants of Honeywell's Test Instrument Division located in Denver, Colo.; San Diego, Calif. and Annapolis, Md. Products built by the division include precision analog and digital measuring and recording instruments, signal conditioning and monitoring equipment, laboratory standards, biomedical systems, EMI/ RFI surveillance and analysis equipment, and data logger systems. The reference guide also contains information about the division's nationwide network of metrology laboratories that provide repair and calibration service to users of such equipment.

Circle No. 301 on Inquiry Card



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CIRCLE NO. 49 ON INQUIRY CARD

Mercury-Wetted Relays

Two engineering manuals describe Clare mercury-wetted contact relays for wired assemblies and printed circuit board applications. All of the relays incorporate the low, constant contact resistant characteristics of Clare HG relays; no contact bounce, maximum reliability over 22 x 10⁹ operations and switching speeds as fast as 1 ms. C. P. Clare & Co., Chicago, Illinois.

Circle No. 253 on Inquiry Card

Design Considerations For Glass Flexible Fiber Optics

Six-page brochure describes optical parameters, chemical resistance, mechanical and environmental characteristics, and end finishing procedures for glass flexible fiber optics. It contains information that system designers can use as design parameters. A table on chemical resistance, for example, shows test conditions in terms of time and temperature and resulting transmission changes, if any, when the fiber optics were subjected to sulphuric acid, engine oil, water, ethylene glycol and gasoline. Other charts, diagrams and graphs include life test results and humidity findings. A detailed explanation of end

finishing requirements for glass flexible fiber optics also is given. An accompanying graph shows specific results in transmission as a function of length for various techniques, including (1) epoxy termination with grinding and polishing, (2) grinding and polishing, (3) the theoretical transmission over length, (4) laser cut, and (5) razor blade cut. Corning Glass Works, Corning, N. Y. Circle No. 254 on Inquiry Card

Graphics Terminal

Twelve-page brochure describes the Adage Graphics Terminal, a comprehensive, general-purpose CRT display system. Included is information describing system highlights, system concept, standard models AGT/10, AGT/30, and AGT/50, as well as standard options and software. The terminal is said to represent a technological breakthrough in the field of computer graphics because of its extraordinary image-processing power which makes possible dynamic 3-D displays which move with full six degrees of freedom. Adage, Inc., 1079 Commonwealth Avenue, Boston, Mass. 02215.

Circle No. 255 on Inquiry Card

Miniature Switches, Relays, Readouts

A twelve-page catalog called Design Ideas for Engineers, features an expanding section for miniature electronic switches, remote control relays, readout indicators and pilot lights, ceramic terminal strips, and machined aluminum knobs. Of special interest to engineers is Alco's "pull to unlock" lever switches designed to safeguard against accidents, 3-pole and 4-pole miniature push button switches, motor start power switches, 12-position adjustable-stop miniature rotary switches, and an isolation relay for industrial remote control applications. Each product section has complete listings and prices, dimensioned drawings, and engineering specifications. Alco Electronic Products, Inc., Lawrence, Massachusetts. Circle No. 312 on Inquiry Card

Precision Relay Sockets

Six-page brochure describes Series 145-8 precision miniature relay sockets for use with plug-in relays. Various universal models are available with 8, 10, 14 and 20 fixed or removable contacts and solderless crimp terminations. Fixed contact types have a choice of solder cups and turret terminals for direct wiring or dip solder pin termination for printed circuit assembly. Mounting styles include tapped inserts with studs fixed in molding for top chassis mounting, through hole, or tapped inserts with removable standoffs and screws for mounting on either side of chassis or panel. Contacts are spring temper copper alloy with gold plate. Molding material is glass reinforced Diallyl Phthalate Type GDI-30 per MIL-P-19833 specifications. Continental Connector Corporation, 34-63 56th Street, Woodside, N. Y. 11377.

Circle No. 304 on Inquiry Card

Neon Glow Lamps

Eight-page illustrated brochure describing neon glow lamps for indicator applications, circuit components, and voltage regulators, provides complete information on evaluating and applying neon glow lamps including discussions on light output, longevity and external conditions acting on the lamp. The brochure includes an ionization time vs. percent overvoltage graph, plus a circuit drawing showing various breakdown measurements. Signalite Incorporated, 1933 Heck Avenue, Neptune, New Jersey. Circle No. 308 on Inquiry Card

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WITH A RAYTHEON MEMORY...

Raytheon Computer's new Model 300 memory is now available at more attractive prices and in a wider range of sizes due to expanded production capacity. The Model 300 is a 2½D core memory with full cycle time of 900 nanoseconds. Typical access time is 350 nanoseconds. A single vertical drawer houses a complete memory module including stack and electronics. There are two basic modules—8K by 36 bits and 16K by 18 bits—and memories up to 8K by 144 bits or 16K by 72 bits are readily assembled. Best of all, production units will soon be available on a 60-90 day basis. Complete technical, pricing and delivery data is yours in not quite 900 nanoseconds. but almost as fast. Write or call today. Raytheon Computer, 2700 S. Fairview St., Santa Ana, California 92704. Phone (714) 546-7160.



CIRCLE NO. 50 ON INQUIRY CARD

Telemetering Systems Guideline

Bulletin 36 is a guideline to assist in selecting Stevens Telemetering Systems for data collection, transmission, storage and display. Such systems can be used for data handling of variables such as: flow-rate, gate movement, volume, water level, temperature, etc. A chart shows the various combinations of encoders, transmitters and receivers that can be combined into various systems. The bulletin discusses the advantages and disadvantages of analog, incremental digital and total message digital systems. Information is included on economy, reliability and operation distance. A section on communication channels is included since the system will often be determined by the channel available. Leupold & Stevens Instruments, Inc., Portland, Oregon.

Circle No. 313 on Inquiry Card

16-Bit Data Generator

Technical Bulletin 201 describes a \$680.00 data generator, Model 201, offering 16-bit word lengths, variable baseline offset to $\pm 10V$, 1-10V NRZ data outputs, and clock rates to 10 MHz. Methods for obtaining variable parameter RZ pulse outputs, extended program outputs and multiple parallel channels are described and information is given regarding pulse generators that may be used as clock source. Datapulse, Inc., A Subsidiary of Systron-Donner Corporation, Culver City, California.

Circle No. 314 on Inquiry Card

Disc Pack

Complete brochure is now available on the new Memorex Mark I disc pack, an advanced random access memory storage media for computers, said to have a high level of performance reliability and ability to reduce access time. Basically an assembly of six discs providing 10 recording surfaces and enclosed in a heavy-duty dust proof container, the Mark I is mechanically and operationally compatible with most existing disc drives. It can be used with drives that record on 100 tracks per recording surface, such as the IBM 1311, or with higher density drives

such as the IBM 2311, which records on 200 tracks. Memorex Corporation, Santa Clara, California.

Circle No. 315 on Inquiry Card

Measure Film Thickness

Four-page folder describes and illustrates a new H/I interference microscope featuring two special interference objectives for thin film thickness measurements with resolving powers of 0.6 and 1.5. William J. Hacker & Co., Inc., West Caldwell, New Jersey.

Circle No. 316 on Inquiry Card

Miniature Ceramic Capacitors

Four 4-page bulletins provide mechanical, electrical and performance specifications on new ceramic capacitors. Series C-331/C-332 and C-333 are miniature capacitors, Class I and Class II respectively, for low loss commercial applications; Class CV sub and ultra-miniature capacitors are designed to bring military environmental performance to the commercial and industrial user. MEPCO, INC., Morristown, N. J.

Circle No. 317 on Inquiry Card

Calibrated Delay Units

Two new calibrated delay units for high frequency RF, pulse and digital applications, feature selectable delays up to 60 ns with better than 1% accuracy and bandpass over 1000 MHz. The manufacturer states the units have been designed to meet either laboratory or systems requirements for precise phase delay measurements between two signals and for calibrating high speed oscilloscope time bases and other fast sweeps. Model 1202A provides delays from 1 to 60 ns in steps of 1 ns. Model 1203 covers the delay range from 0.25 to 60.75 ns, and includes a 0.3 ns delay vernier to provide continuously variable delays over the range. In both models, delays are selected by simple front-panel switches designed specifically for high-frequency use. VSWR is typically 1.05 at 1000 MHz and delay accuracy is specified at 1% or 0.05 ns. Insertion delay is approximately 4 ns in the 1202A and approximately 6.5 ns in the 1203. Gralex Industries Incorporated, Copiague, N.Y.

Circle No. 224 on Inquiry Card

Miniature Ceramic Capacitors

Two-color, six-page short form catalog of miniature ceramic capacitors for military and industrial applications lists all standard USCC ceramic capacitors along with catalog information. Included are typical special capacitor configurations also available. The catalog shows miniature ceramic capacitors for tubular, rectangular, square, round and chip shapes for precision and commercial uses. Also included are general specifications, ordering information and a capacitance change vs. temperature graph. U.S. Capacitor Corporation, 2151 No. Lincoln Street, Burbank, California 91504.

Circle No. 311 on Inquiry Card

Electronic Counters & Controllers

A series of four bulletins describing a new line of electronic counters and controllers has been released by Beckman Instruments, Inc. The 6200 Series of counters and timers includes seven instruments designed specifically for use in industrial applications where requirements dictate compact and reliable instrumentation. The bulletins cover instrument features, typical applications, and complete technical specifications. A photo of each instrument, prices, accessories and ordering information are also included. Although these instruments are primarily for industrial use, they will fit many laboratory applications equally well. Beckman Instruments, Inc., 2200 Wright Avenue, Richmond, Calif. 94804.

Circle No. 306 on Inquiry Card

Hybrid Techniques

Free technical notes describe new hybrid (analog/digital) techniques which offer significant advantages over existing analog circuits. Functions such as multiplication, integration, polar-to-rectangular conversion, ramp (stairstep) generation, D to A conversion, etc., are accomplished through the combination of a few basic "Hybrid Computing Modules." Hybrid Systems Corp., 127 Alewife Brook Parkway, Cambridge, Mass. 02140.

Circle No. 307 on Inquiry Card

Static Inverters for Emergency Power

Six-page illustrated booklet, brochure SA-9929, describes single-phase, fixed-frequency inverters and provides complete mechanical and electrical specifications. Typical applications are emergency a-c power supplies for plant instrumentation and control or well-regulated power sources for normal operation of data processing equipment. Fixed-frequency inverters can also supply shortterm power for orderly plant shutdown or while starting auxiliary generators in case of utility power failure. Westinghouse Electric Corporation, P.O. Box 868, Pittsburgh, Pa.

Circle No. 305 on Inquiry Card

Connecto-Blok System

Sixteen-page bulletin, 500.1, contains complete descriptions and photographs of typical applications, showing reliability, high-density wiring, easy access for trouble shooting, and many other advantages as applied to data processing, communication links, information systems, telemetry, signal control and every place where high density wiring is terminated or connected. Technical catalog information containing product dimensions is included. The Thomas & Betts Co., Elizabeth, New Jersey. Circle No. 309 on Inquiry Card

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CIRCLE NO. 901 ON INQUIRY CARD

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This modular equipment series provides a wide range of solid-state multi-channel synchro to digital converters with a binary output directly representing shaft angle \bullet The input multiplexer can provide for any number of synchro inputs with programming via binary address or discrete control. Inputs are sampled, held and encoded at the peak of the synchro excitation voltage \bullet Normal encoding rates are up to 800 per second for 400 Hz systems. The units provide dynamic accuracy of better than $\pm 6'$ of arc over optional temperature ranges of 0°C to 71°C or -54°C to 71°C. Resolution of up to 13 bits (2.63' of arc) is standard \bullet Many special features such as data processors for dual speed synchros, binary to BCD conversion, digital to synchros conversion, linear multiplexed A/D conversion and custom computer interface signal circuits are available \bullet Airborne unit design is consistent with MIL-E-5400 Class 2.

6 channels 6" x 5.2" x 7.75" 7.5 pounds AIRBORNE SERIES SD 1000 GROUND SERIES SD 2000



CIRCLE NO. 53 ON INQUIRY CARD

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