

# Unit-2

## Basic Computer Organization and Design



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# Outline

- Instruction codes
- Computer registers
- Computer instructions
- Timing and Control
- Instruction cycle
- Memory-Reference Instructions
- Input- output and interrupt
- Complete description
- Design of Basic Computer
- Design of Accumulator Logic

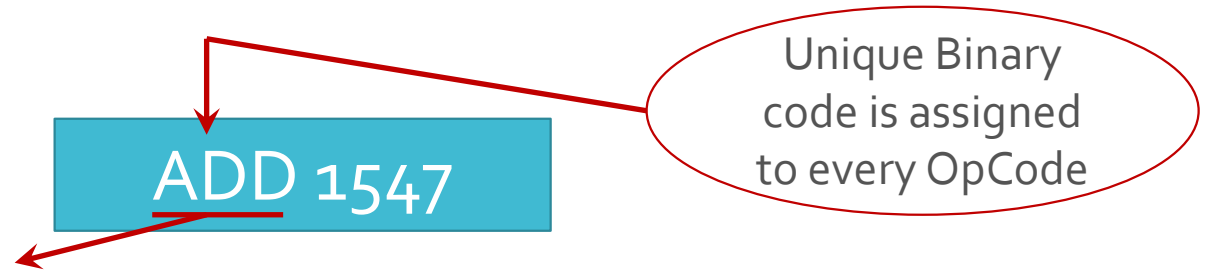
# Instruction Codes

- Program
  - A program is a set of instructions that specify the operations, operands and the sequence by which processing has to occur.
- Computer Instruction
  - A computer instruction is a binary code that specifies a sequence of microoperations for the computer.
  - The computer reads each instruction from memory and places it in a control register.
  - The control then interprets the binary code of the instruction and proceeds to execute it by issuing a sequence of microoperations.

# Instruction Codes

## ■ Instruction Code

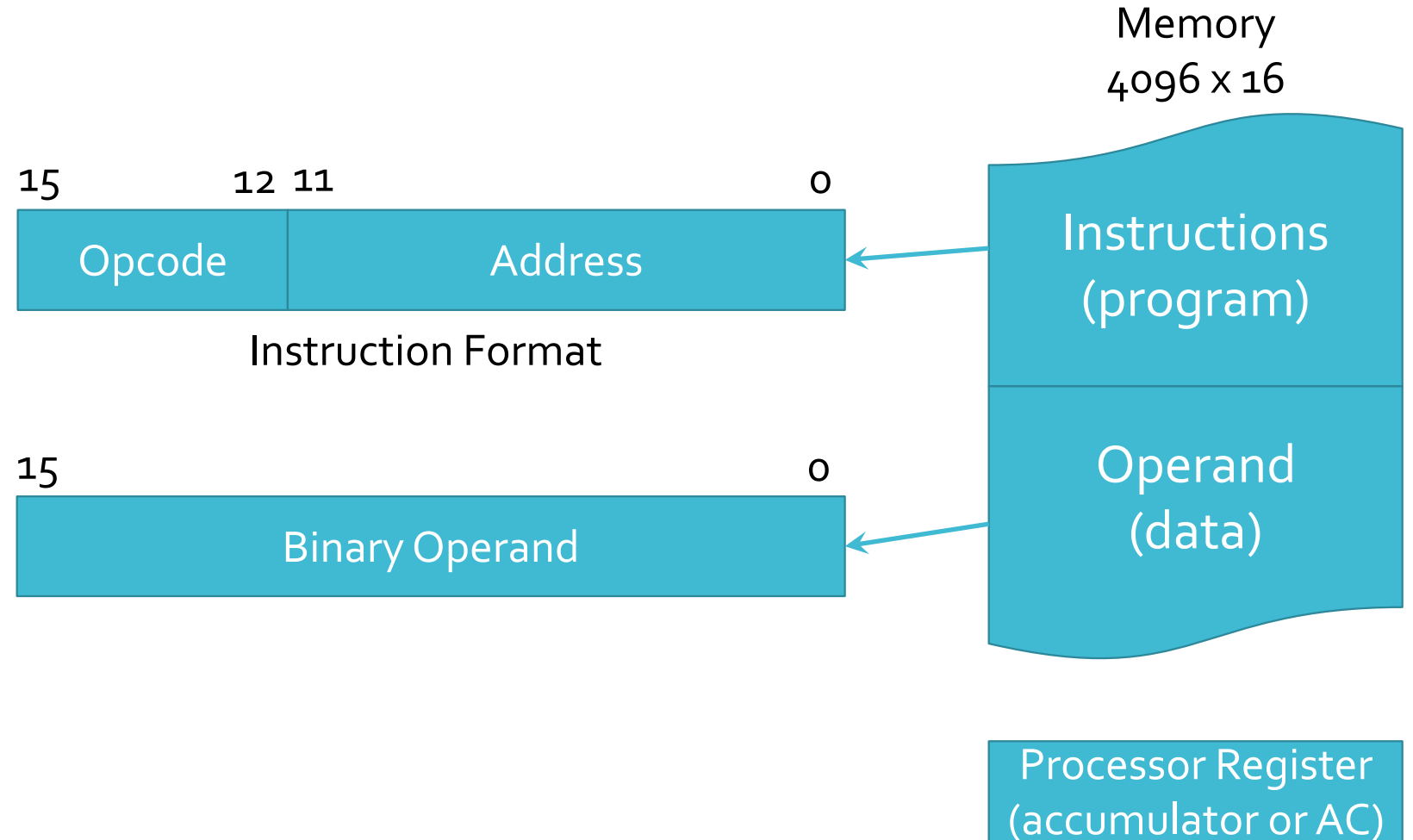
- An instruction code is a group of bits that instruct the computer to perform a specific operation.
- Example



## ■ Operation Code (Opcode)

- The operation code of an instruction is a group of bits that define such operations as add, subtract, multiply, shift, and complement.
- The number of bits required for the operation code of an instruction depends on the total number of operations available in the computer.
- The operation code must consist of at least  $n$  bits for a given  $2^n$  (or less) distinct operations.

# Stored Program Organization



# Stored Program Organization

- The simplest way to organize a computer is to have one processor register(AC) and an instruction code format with two parts.
- The first part specifies the operation (opcode) to be performed and the second specifies an address (operand).
- The memory address tells the control where to find an operand in memory.
- This operand is read from memory and used as the data to be operated on together with the data stored in the processor register.

# Stored Program Organization

- Instructions are stored in one section of memory and data in another.
- For a memory unit with 4096 words, we need 12 bits to specify an address since  $2^{12} = 4096$ .
- If we store each instruction code in one 16-bit memory word, we have available four bits for operation code (opcode) to specify one out of 16 possible operations, and 12 bits to specify the address of an operand.

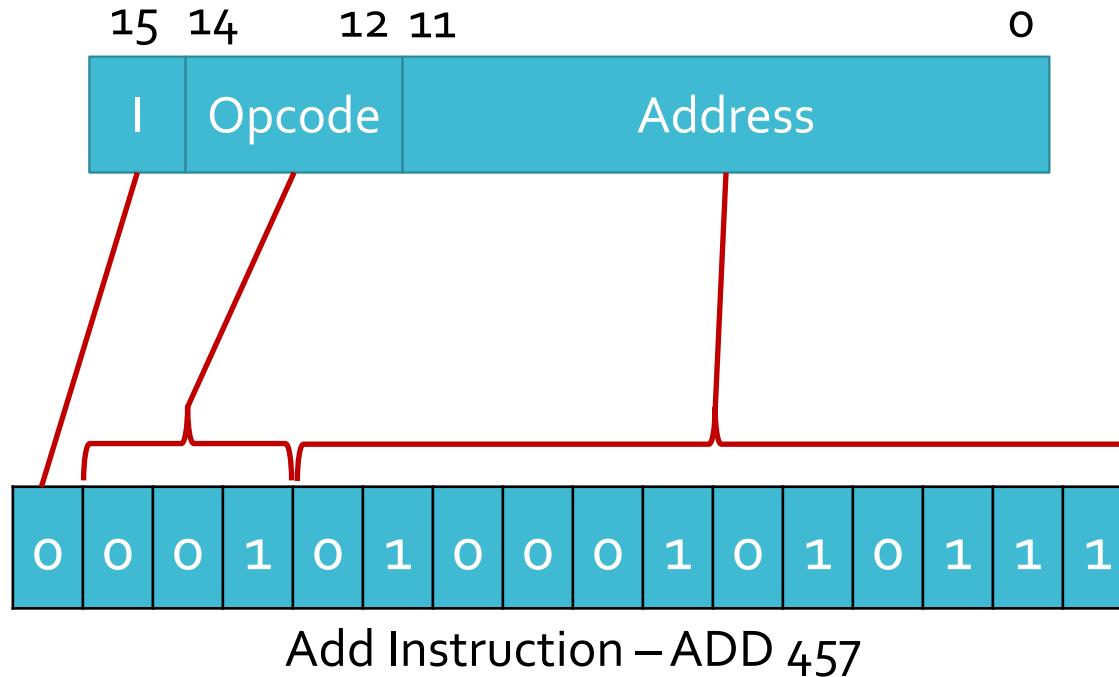
# Stored Program Organization

- The control reads a 16-bit instruction from the program portion of memory.
- It uses the 12-bit address part of the instruction to read a 16-bit operand from the data portion of memory.
- It then executes the operation specified by the operation code.

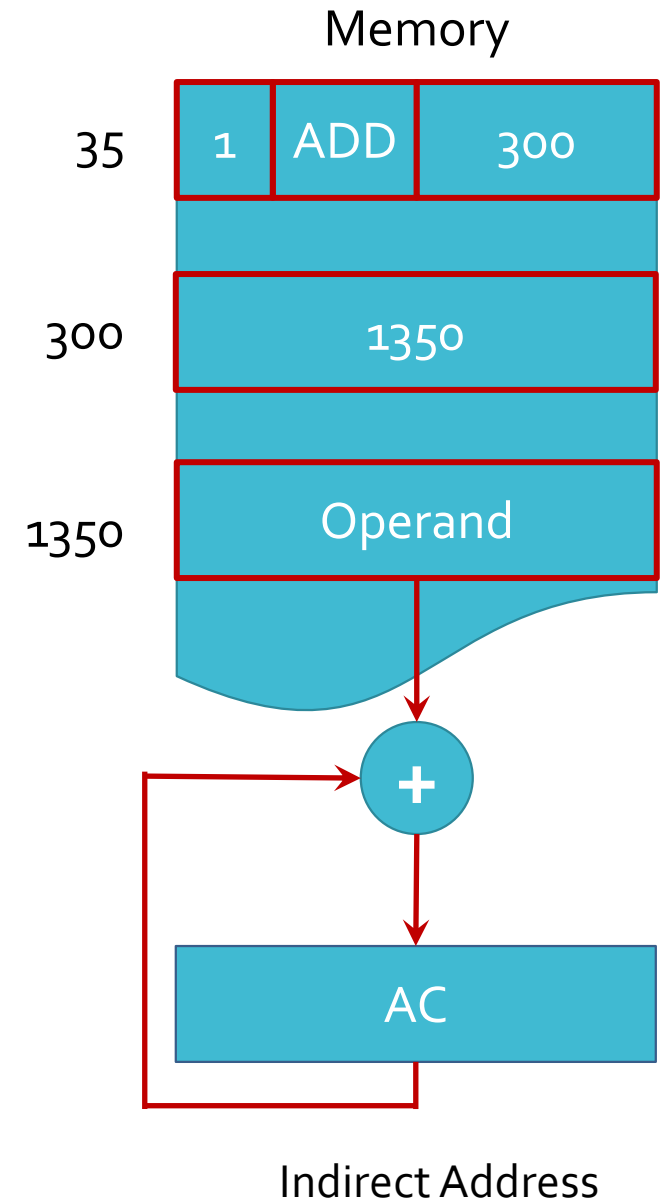
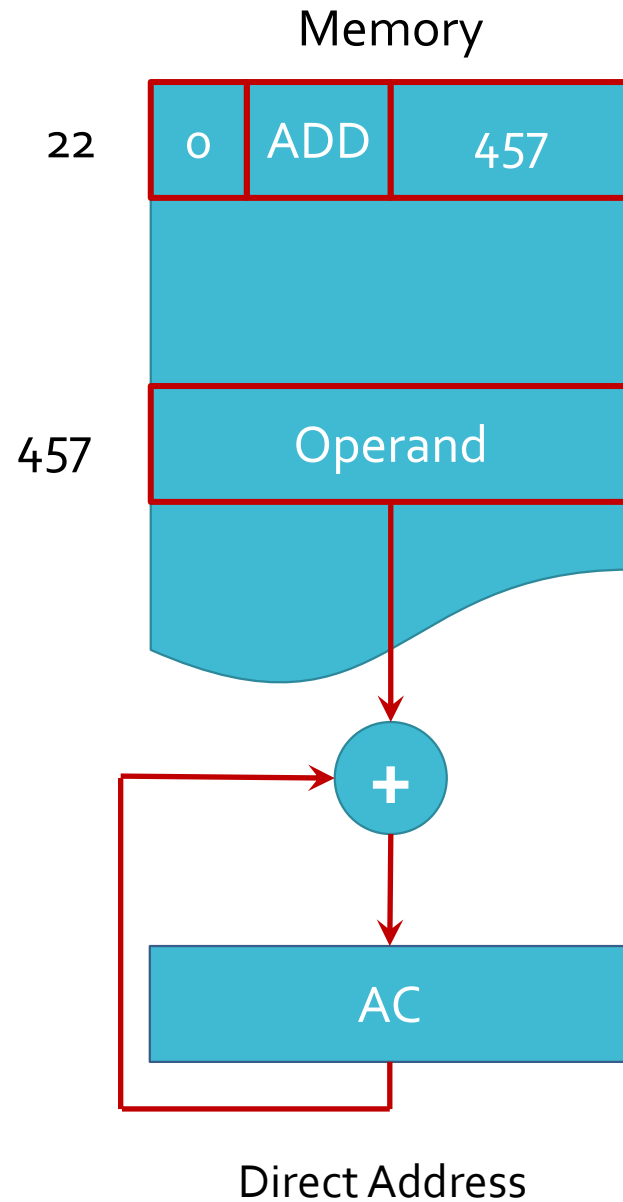


# Instruction format of basic computer

## Instruction Format



# Direct & Indirect Addressing of Memory



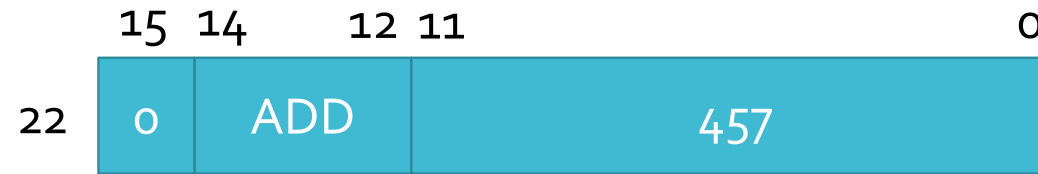
# Direct & Indirect Addressing of Memory

- If the second part of an instruction format specifies the address of an operand, the instruction is said to have a **direct address**.
- In **Indirect address**, the bits in the second part of the instruction designate an address of a memory word in which the address of the operand is found.

## Direct & Indirect Addressing of Memory

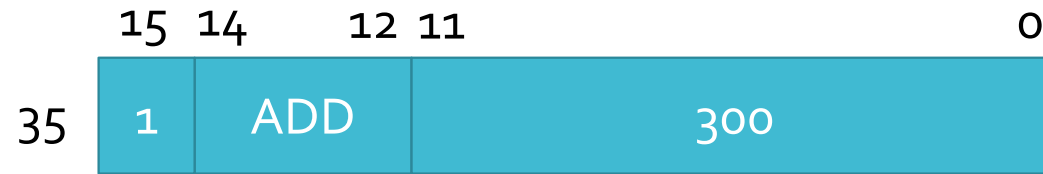
- One bit of the instruction code can be used to distinguish between a direct and an indirect address.
- It consists of a 3-bit operation code, a 12-bit address, and an indirect address mode bit designated by I.
- The mode bit is 0 for a direct address and 1 for an indirect address.

## Direct & Indirect Addressing of Memory



- A direct address instruction is placed at address 22 in memory.
- The I bit is 0, so the instruction is recognized as a direct address instruction.
- The opcode specifies an ADD instruction, and the address part is the binary equivalent of 457.
- The control finds the operand in memory at address 457 and adds it to the content of AC.

## Direct & Indirect Addressing of Memory



- The instruction in address 35 has a mode bit  $I = 1$ , recognized as an indirect address instruction.
- The address part is the binary equivalent of 300.
- The control goes to address 300 to find the address of the operand.
- The address of the operand in this case is 1350.
- The operand found in address 1350 is then added to the content of AC.

## Direct & Indirect Addressing of Memory

- The indirect address instruction needs two references to memory to fetch an operand.
- The first reference is needed to read the address of the operand.
- Second reference is for the operand itself.
- The memory word that holds the address of the operand in an indirect address instruction is used as a pointer to an array of data.

# Computer Registers



Program Counter(12)  
Holds address of instruction



Address Register(12)  
Holds address for memory



Instruction Register(16)  
Holds instruction code



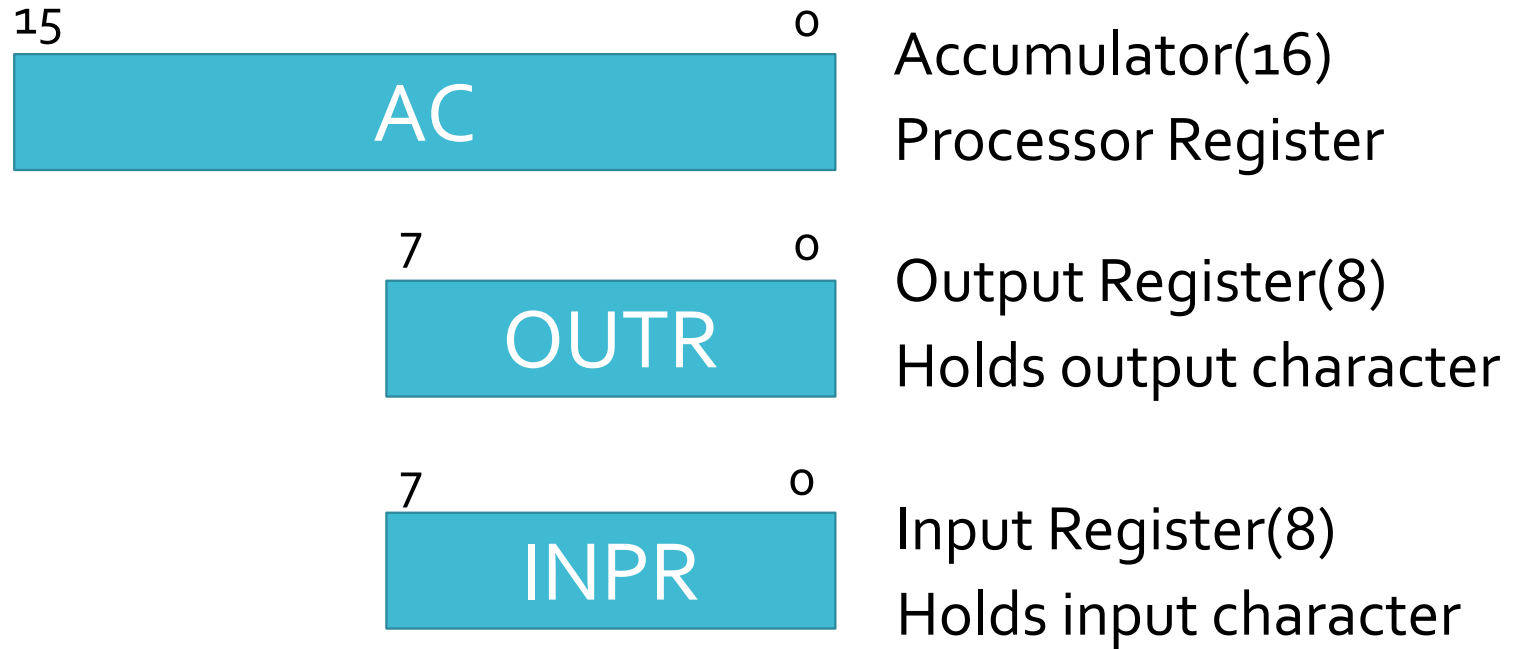
Temporary Register(16)  
Holds temporary data



Data Register(16)  
Holds memory operand



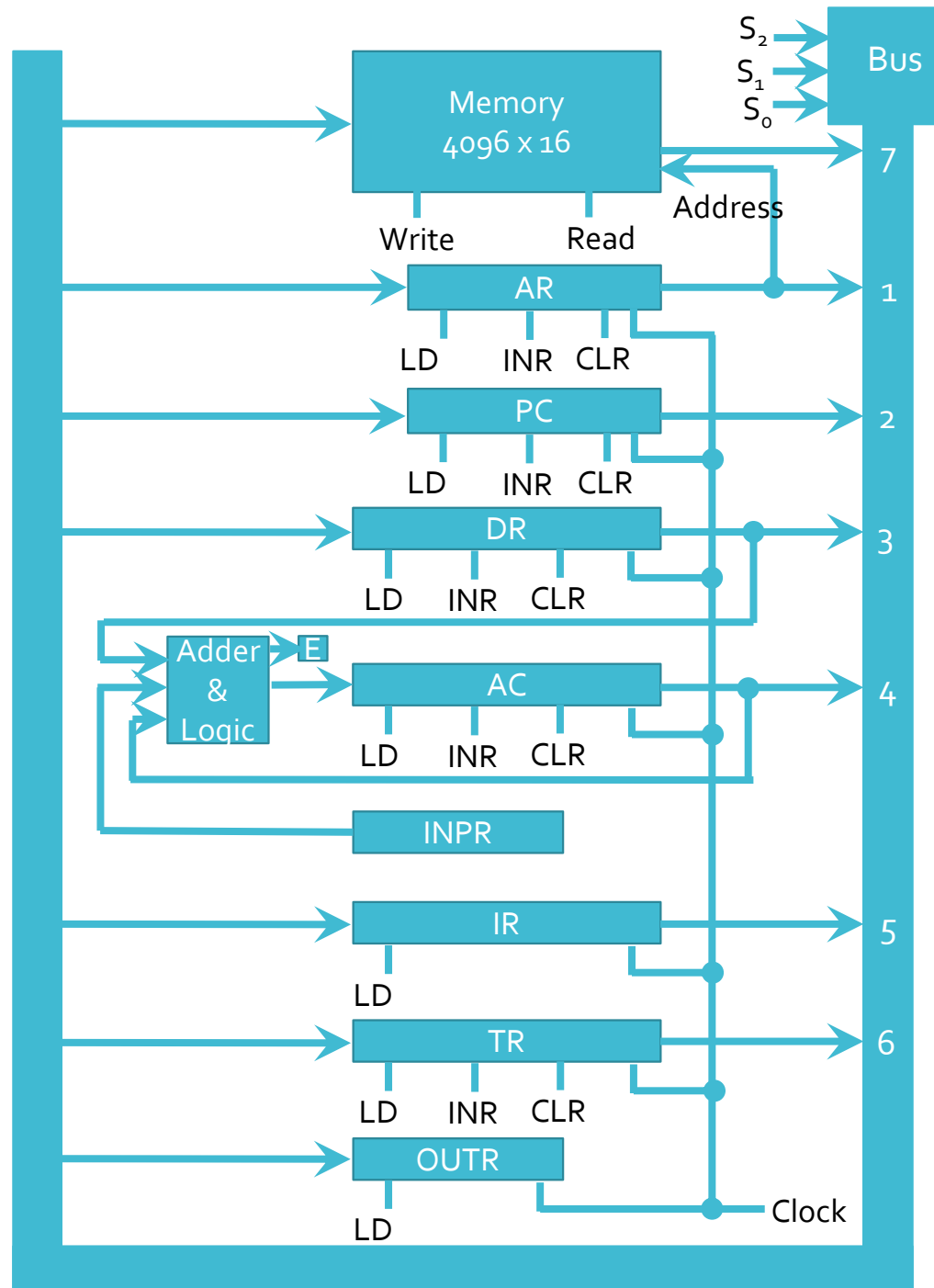
# Computer Registers



Memory  
4096 words  
16 bits per word

# Common bus system of basic computer

- Common bus



# Types of Computer Instructions

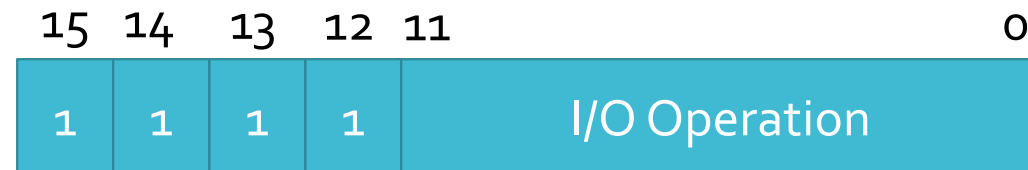
## 1. Memory Reference Instruction



## 2. Register Reference Instruction

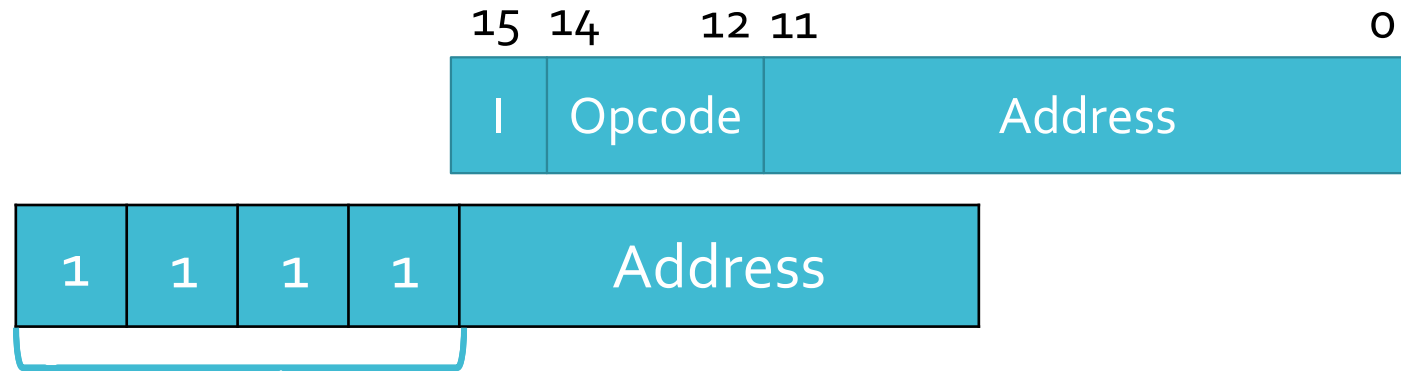


## 3. Input – Output Instruction



# Types of Computer Instructions

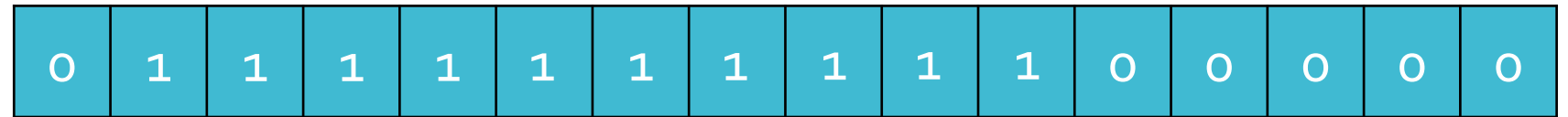
## 1. Memory Reference Instruction



0xxx	8xxx	AND	AND the content of memory to AC
1xxx	9xxx	ADD	Add the content of memory to AC
2xxx	Axxx	LDA	Load memory word to AC
3xxx	Bxxx	STA	Store content of AC in memory
4xxx	Cxxx	BUN	Branch unconditionally
5xxx	Dxxx	BSA	Branch and save return address
6xxx	Exxx	ISZ	Increment and skip if zero

# Types of Computer Instructions

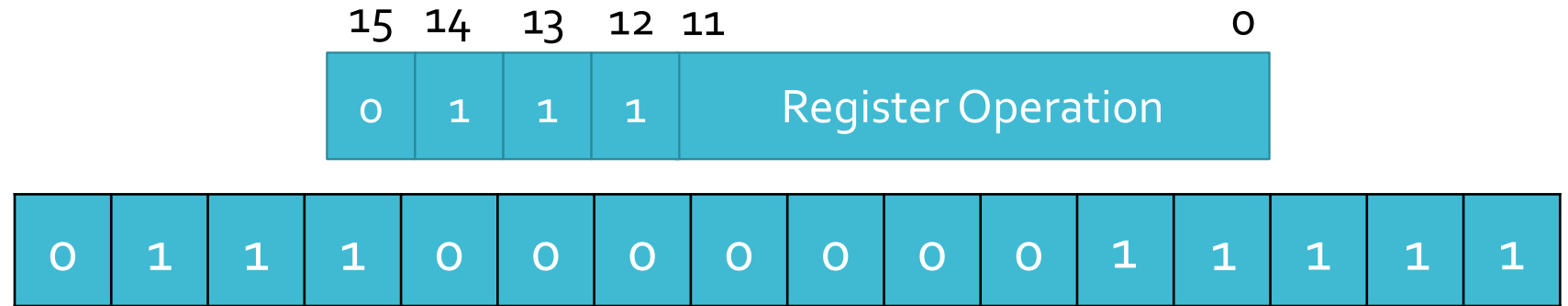
## 2. Register Reference Instruction



7800	CLA	Clear AC
7400	CLE	Clear E
7200	CMA	Complement AC
7100	CME	Complement E
7080	CIR	Circulate right AC and E
7040	CIL	Circulate left AC and E
7020	INC	Increment AC

# Types of Computer Instructions

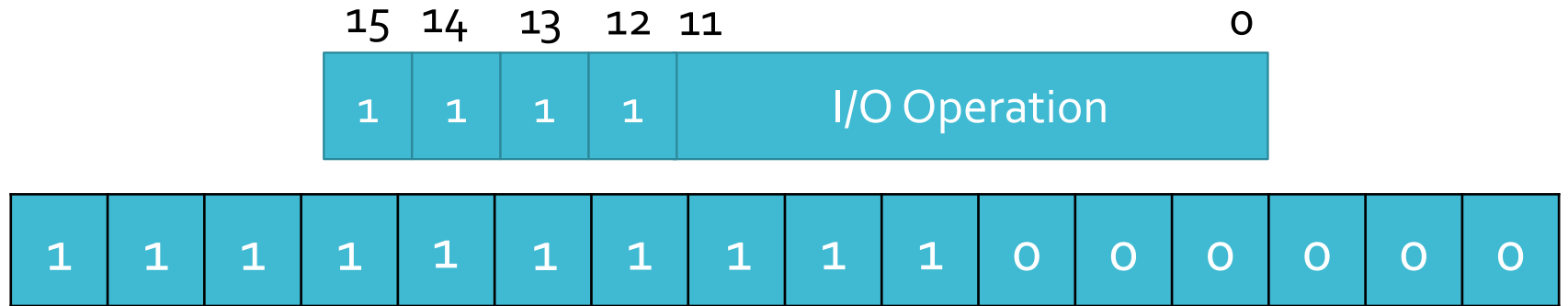
## 2. Register Reference Instruction



7010	SPA	Skip next instruction if AC is positive
7008	SNA	Skip next instruction if AC is negative
7004	SZA	Skip next instruction if AC is zero
7002	SZE	Skip next instruction if E is zero
7001	HLT	Halt computer

# Types of Computer Instructions

## 3. Input – Output Instruction



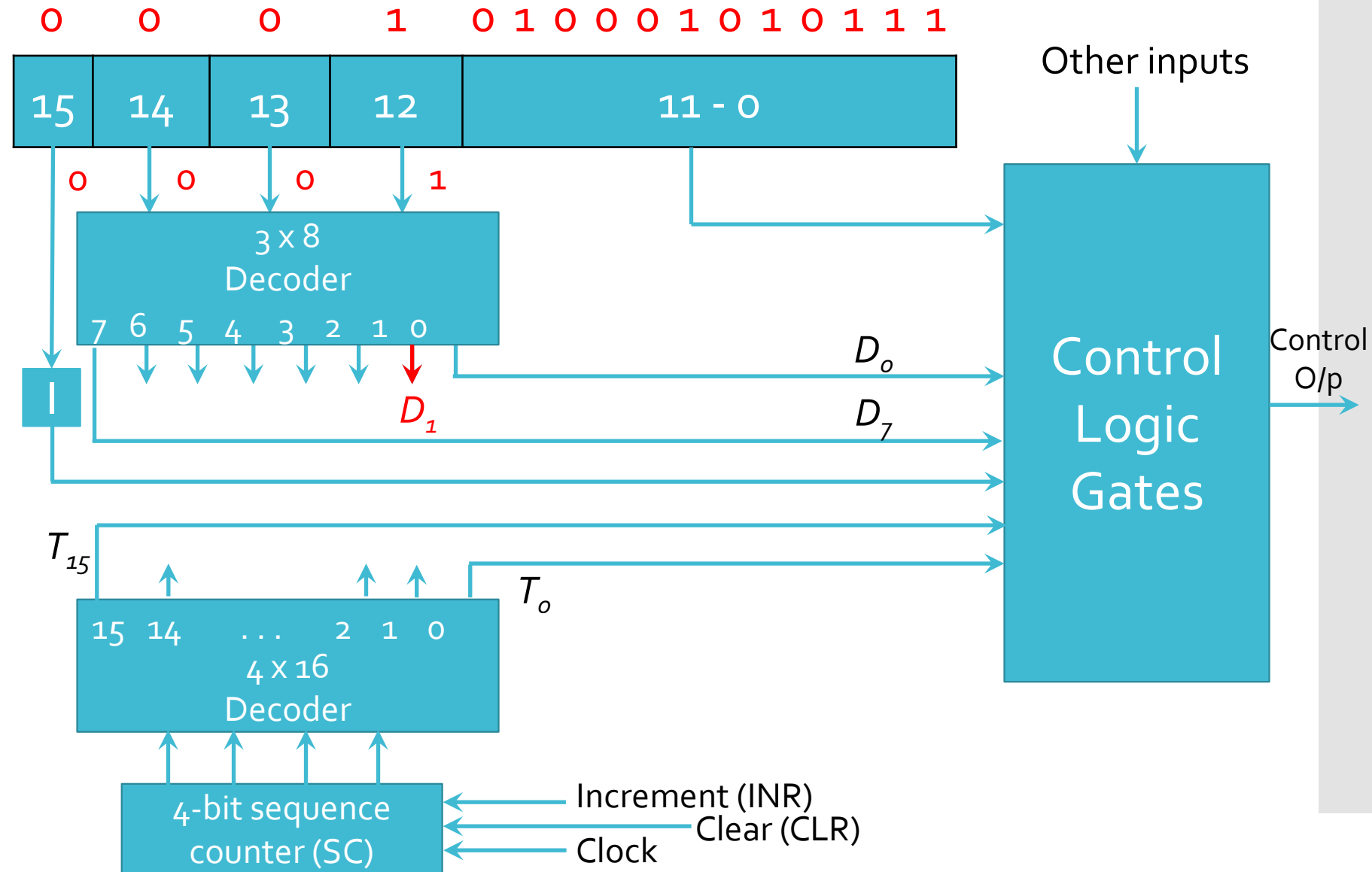
F800	INP	Input character to AC
F400	OUT	Output character from AC
F200	SKI	Skip on input flag
F100	SKO	Skip on output flag
F080	ION	Interrupt on
F040	IOF	Interrupt off



# Instruction Set Completeness

- Instruction set is said to be complete if it includes sufficient number of instructions in each of the following categories:
  1. Arithmetic, logical and shift instructions
  2. Instructions for moving information to and from memory and processor registers
  3. Program control instructions together with instructions that check status conditions
  4. Input and output instructions

# Control Unit of Basic Computer



# Control Unit

- Components of Control unit are
  1. Two decoders
  2. A sequence counter
  3. Control logic gates
- An instruction read from memory is placed in the instruction register (IR).
- In control unit the IR is divided into three parts: I bit, the operation code (12-14)bit, and bits 0 through 11.
- The operation code in bits 12 through 14 are decoded with a 3 x 8 decoder.
- Bit-15 of the instruction is transferred to a flip-flop designated by the symbol I.

## Control Unit

- The eight outputs of the decoder are designated by the symbols  $D_0$  through  $D_7$ .
- Bits 0 through 11 are applied to the control logic gates.
- The 4-bit sequence counter can count in binary from 0 through 15. The outputs of counter are decoded into 16 timing signals  $T_0$  through  $T_{15}$ .
- The sequence counter SC can be incremented or cleared synchronously.
- Most of the time, the counter is incremented to provide the sequence of timing signals out of 4 X 16 decoder.
- Once in awhile, the counter is cleared to 0, causing the next timing signal to be  $T_0$ .

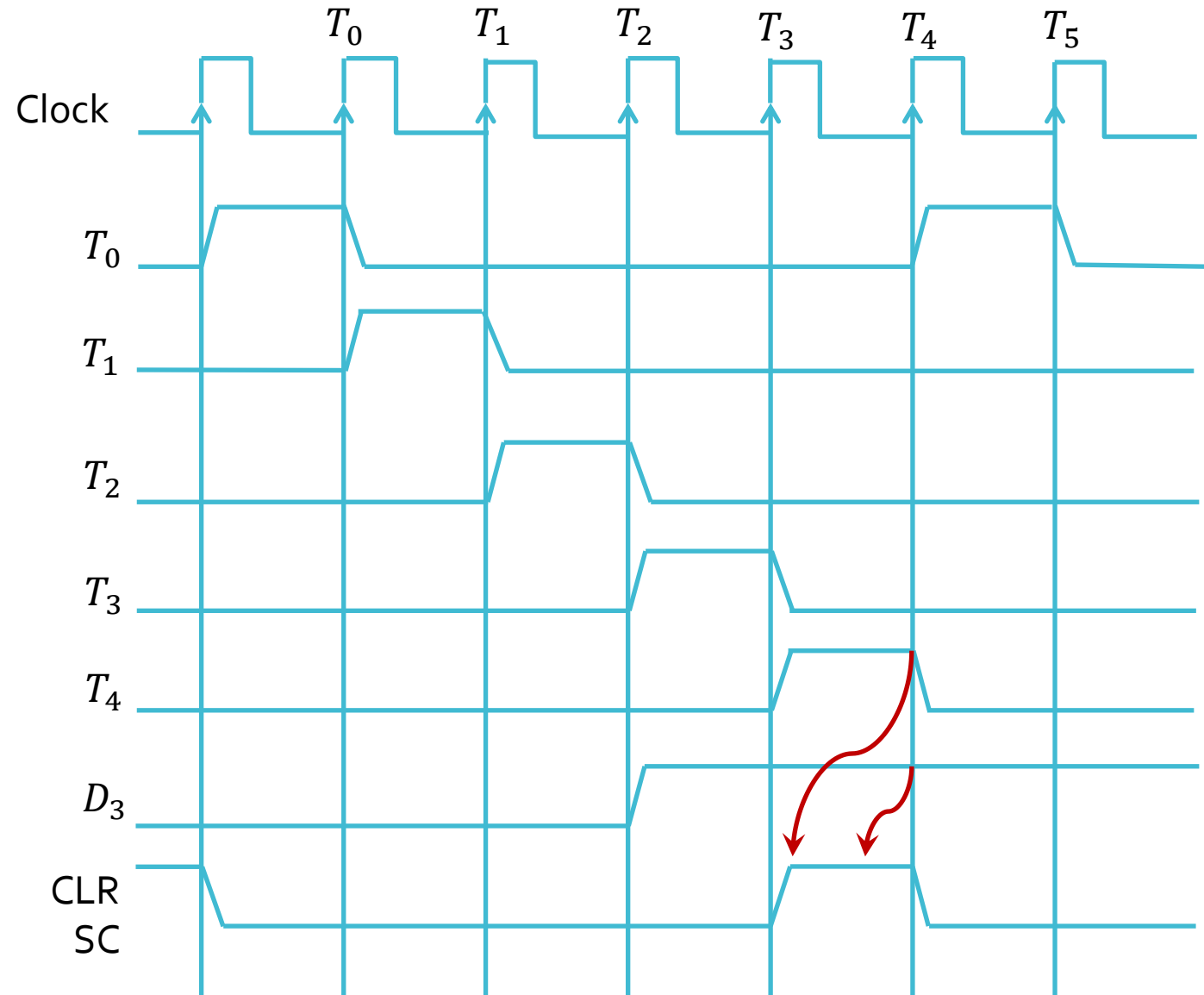
# Control Unit

- As an example, consider the case where SC is incremented to provide timing signals  $T_0, T_1, T_2, T_3$  and  $T_4$  in sequence. At time  $T_4$ , SC is cleared to 0 if decoder output  $D_3$  is active. This is expressed symbolically by the statement

$$D_3 T_4: SC \leftarrow 0$$

- Initially, the CLR input of SC is active.
- The first positive transition of the clock clears SC to 0, which in turn activates the timing  $T_0$  out of the decoder.
- $T_0$  is active during one clock cycle.
- The positive clock transition labeled  $T_0$  in the diagram will trigger only those registers whose control inputs are connected to timing signal  $T_0$ .
- SC is incremented with every positive clock transition, unless its CLR input is active.
- This procedure produces the sequence of timing signals  $T_0, T_1, T_2, T_3$  and  $T_4$ , and so on. If SC is not cleared, the timing signals will continue with  $T_5, T_6$ , up to  $T_{15}$  and back to  $T_0$ .

Timing Cycle for  
 $D_3 T_4: SC \leftarrow 0$



## Control Unit

- The last three waveforms shows how SC is cleared when  $D_3T_4 = 1$ .
- Output  $D_3$  from the operation decoder becomes active at the end of timing signal  $T_2$ .
- When timing signal  $T_4$  becomes active, the output of the AND gate that implements the control function  $D_3T_4$  becomes active.
- This signal is applied to the CLR input of SC.
- On the next positive clock transition the counter is cleared to 0.
- This causes the timing signal  $T_0$  to become active instead of  $T_5$  that would have been active if SC were incremented instead of cleared.

# Control Organization

- **Hardwired Control**
  - The control logic is implemented with gates, flips-flops, decoders and other digital circuits.
  - It can be optimized to produce a fast mode of operation.
  - It requires changes in the wiring among the various components if the design has to be modified or changed.
- **Microprogrammed Control**
  - The control information is stored in a control memory.
  - The control memory is programmed to initiate the required sequence of micro-operations.
  - Any required changes or modifications can be done by updating the microprogram in control memory.



# Instruction Cycle

- A program residing in the memory unit of the computer consists of a sequence of instructions. In the basic computer each instruction cycle consists of the following phases:
  1. Fetch an instruction from memory.
  2. Decode the instruction.
  3. Read the effective address from memory if the instruction has an indirect address.
  4. Execute the instruction.
- After step 4, the control goes back to step 1 to fetch, decode and execute the next instruction.
- This process continues unless a HALT instruction is encountered.

# Instruction Cycle

## ■ Fetch & Decode

- PC is loaded with the address of the first instruction in the program.
- The micro-operations for fetch and decode phases are as follows:

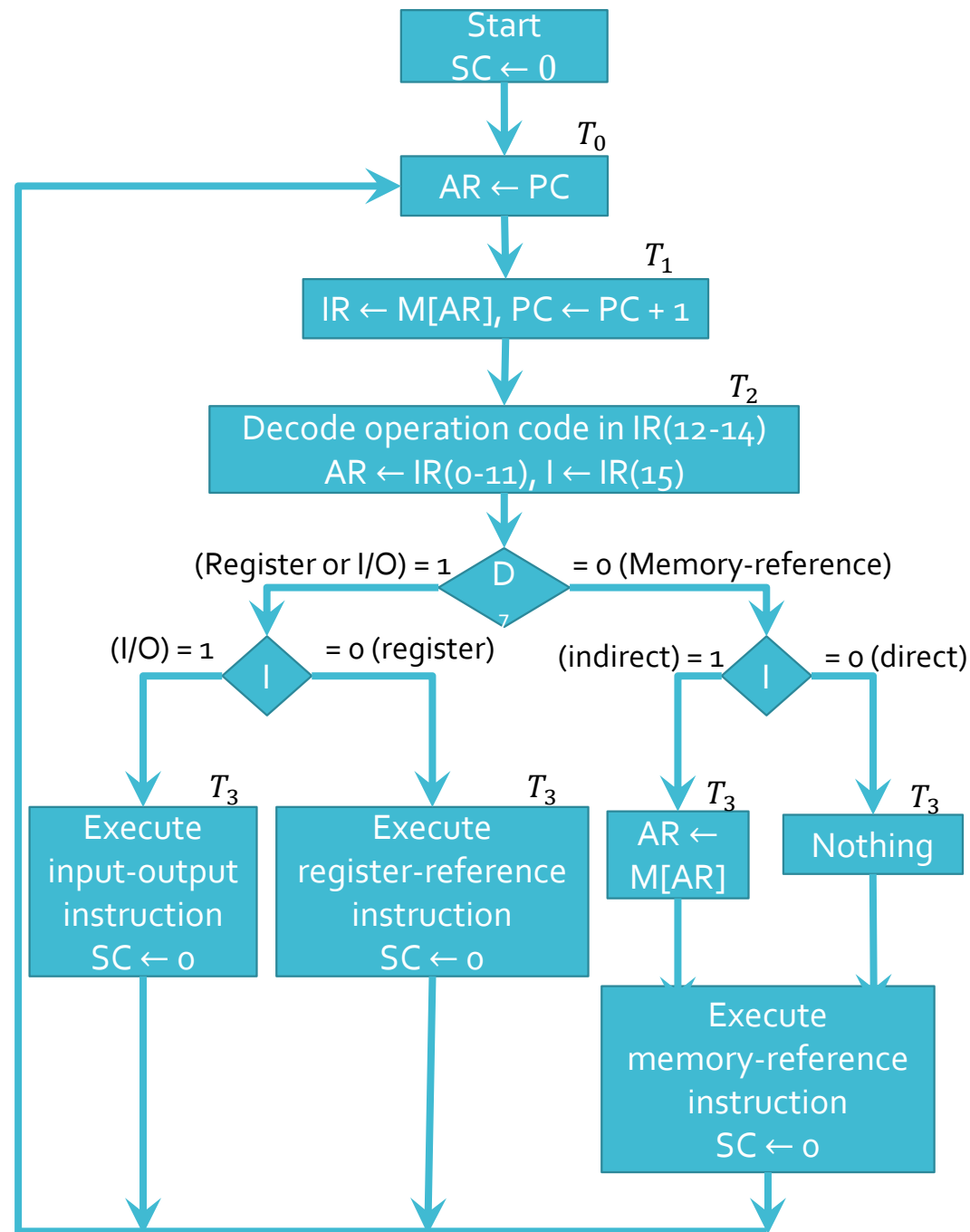
$$T_0 : AR \leftarrow PC$$

$$T_1 : IR \leftarrow M[AR], PC \leftarrow PC + 1$$

$$T_2 : D_0, \dots, D_7 \leftarrow \text{Decode } IR(12 - 14), AR \leftarrow IR(0 - 11), I \leftarrow IR(15)$$

# Instruction Cycle

- Determine the type of instruction
  - During time  $T_3$ , the control unit determines the type of instruction i.e. Memory reference, Register reference or Input-Output instruction.
  - If  $D_7 = 1$  then instruction must be register reference or input-output else memory reference instruction.
- Instruction Cycle Flowchart



# Register Reference Instruction

$D_7I'T_3 = r$  (common to all register reference instructions)

$IR(i) = B_i$  [bit in  $IR(0-11)$  that specifies the operation]

CLA	$rB_{11}$	$AC \leftarrow 0$	Clear AC
CLE	$rB_{10}$	$E \leftarrow 0$	Clear E
CMA	$rB_9$	$AC \leftarrow AC'$	Complement AC
CME	$rB_8$	$E \leftarrow E'$	Complement E
CIR	$rB_7$	$AC \leftarrow \text{shr } AC, AC(15) \leftarrow E, E \leftarrow AC(0)$	Circulate right
CIL	$rB_6$	$AC \leftarrow \text{shl } AC, AC(0) \leftarrow E, E \leftarrow AC(15)$	Circulate left
INC	$rB_5$	$AC \leftarrow AC + 1$	Increment AC
SPA	$rB_4$	If $(AC(15) = 0)$ then $(PC \leftarrow PC + 1)$	Skip if AC is positive
SNA	$rB_3$	If $(AC(15) = 1)$ then $(PC \leftarrow PC + 1)$	Skip if AC is negative
SZA	$rB_2$	If $(AC = 0)$ then $(PC \leftarrow PC + 1)$	Skip if AC is zero
SZE	$rB_1$	If $(E = 0)$ then $(PC \leftarrow PC + 1)$	Skip if E is zero
HLT	$rB_0$	$S \leftarrow 0$ ( $S$ is a start-stop flip-flop)	Halt Computer

# Memory Reference Instructions

## 1. AND: AND to AC

This is an instruction that performs the AND logic operation on pairs of bits in AC and the memory word specified by the effective address. The result of the operation is transferred to AC.

$D_0T_4: DR \leftarrow M[AR]$

$D_0T_5: AC \leftarrow AC \wedge DR, SC \leftarrow 0$

# Memory Reference Instructions

## 2. ADD: ADD to AC

This instruction adds the content of the memory word specified by the effective address to the value of AC. The sum is transferred into AC and the output carry  $C_{out}$  is transferred to the E (extended accumulator) flip-flop.

$D_1T_4$ :  $DR \leftarrow M[AR]$

$D_1T_5$ :  $AC \leftarrow AC + DR, E \leftarrow C_{out}, SC \leftarrow 0$

## Memory Reference Instructions

### 3. LDA: Load to AC

This instruction transfers the memory word specified by the effective address to AC.

$D_2T_4: DR \leftarrow M[AR]$

$D_2T_5: AC \leftarrow DR, SC \leftarrow 0$



## Memory Reference Instructions

### 4. STA: Store AC

This instruction stores the content of AC into the memory word specified by the effective address.

$$D_3T_4: M[AR] \leftarrow AC, SC \leftarrow 0$$

# Memory Reference Instructions

## 5. BUN: Branch Unconditionally

This instruction transfers the program to instruction specified by the effective address. The BUN instruction allows the programmer to specify an instruction out of sequence and the program branches (or jumps) unconditionally.

$$D_4T_4: PC \leftarrow AR, SC \leftarrow 0$$

# Memory Reference Instructions

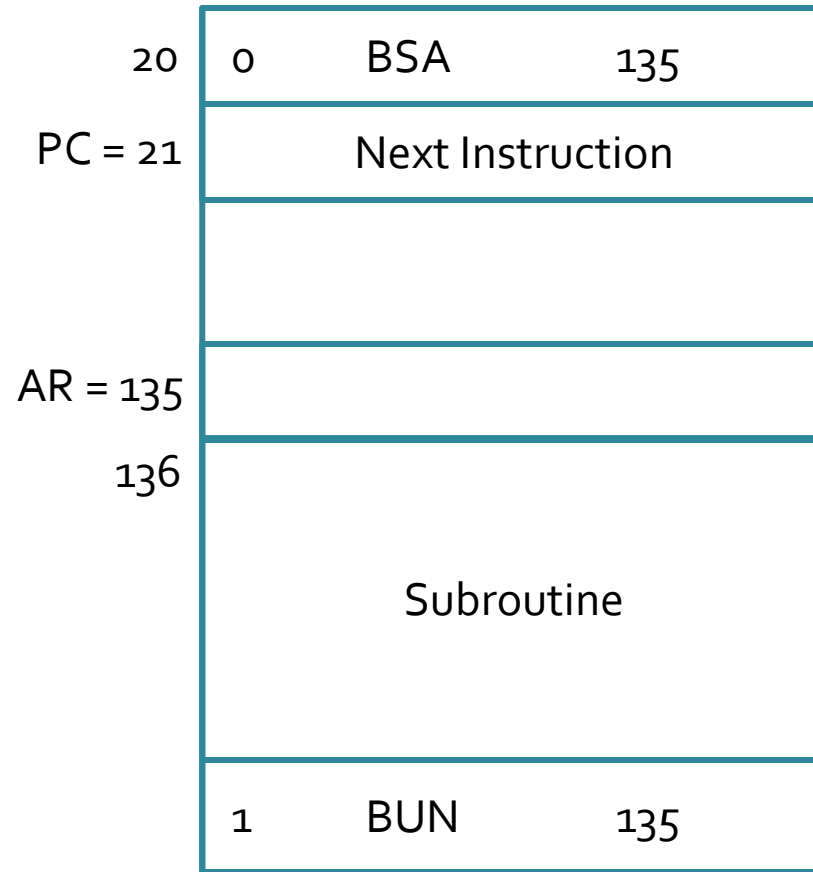
## 6. BSA: Branch and Save Return Address

This instruction is useful for branching to a portion of the program called a subroutine or procedure. When executed, the BSA instruction stores the address of the next instruction in sequence (which is available in PC) into a memory location specified by the effective address.

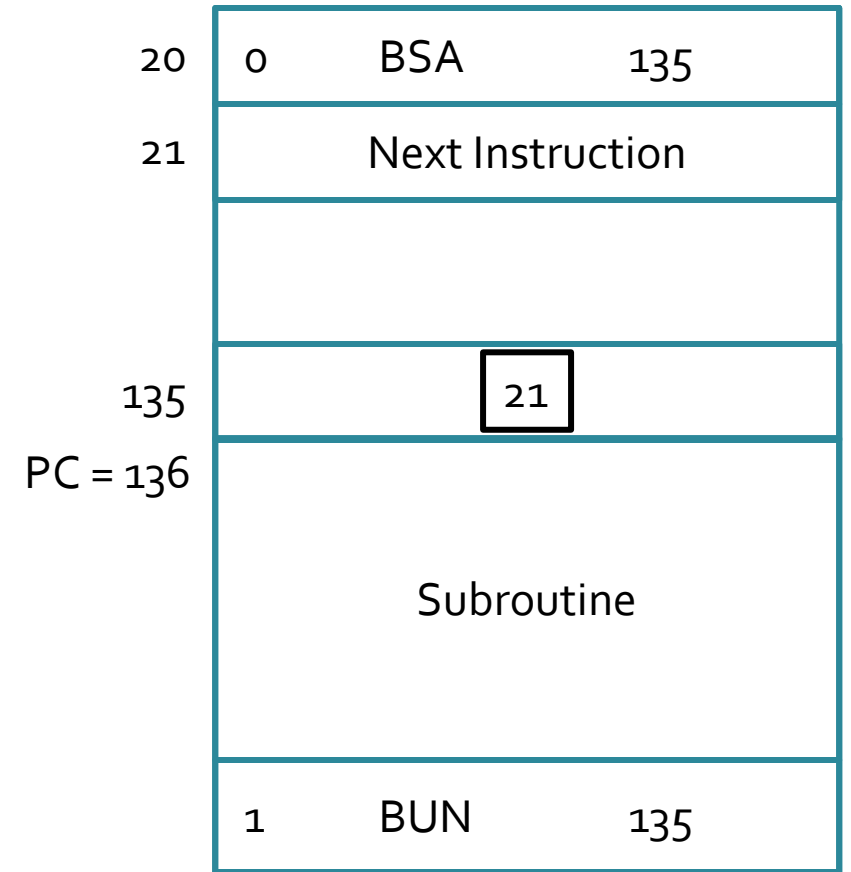
$$D_5T_4: M[AR] \leftarrow PC, AR \leftarrow AR + 1$$

$$D_5T_5: PC \leftarrow AR, SC \leftarrow 0$$

BSA



Memory, PC and AR at Time  $T_4$



Memory and PC after execution

$D_5T_4: M[135] \leftarrow 21, AR \leftarrow 135 + 1$

$D_5T_5: PC \leftarrow 136, SC \leftarrow 0$

# Memory Reference Instructions

## 7. ISZ: Increment and Skip if Zero

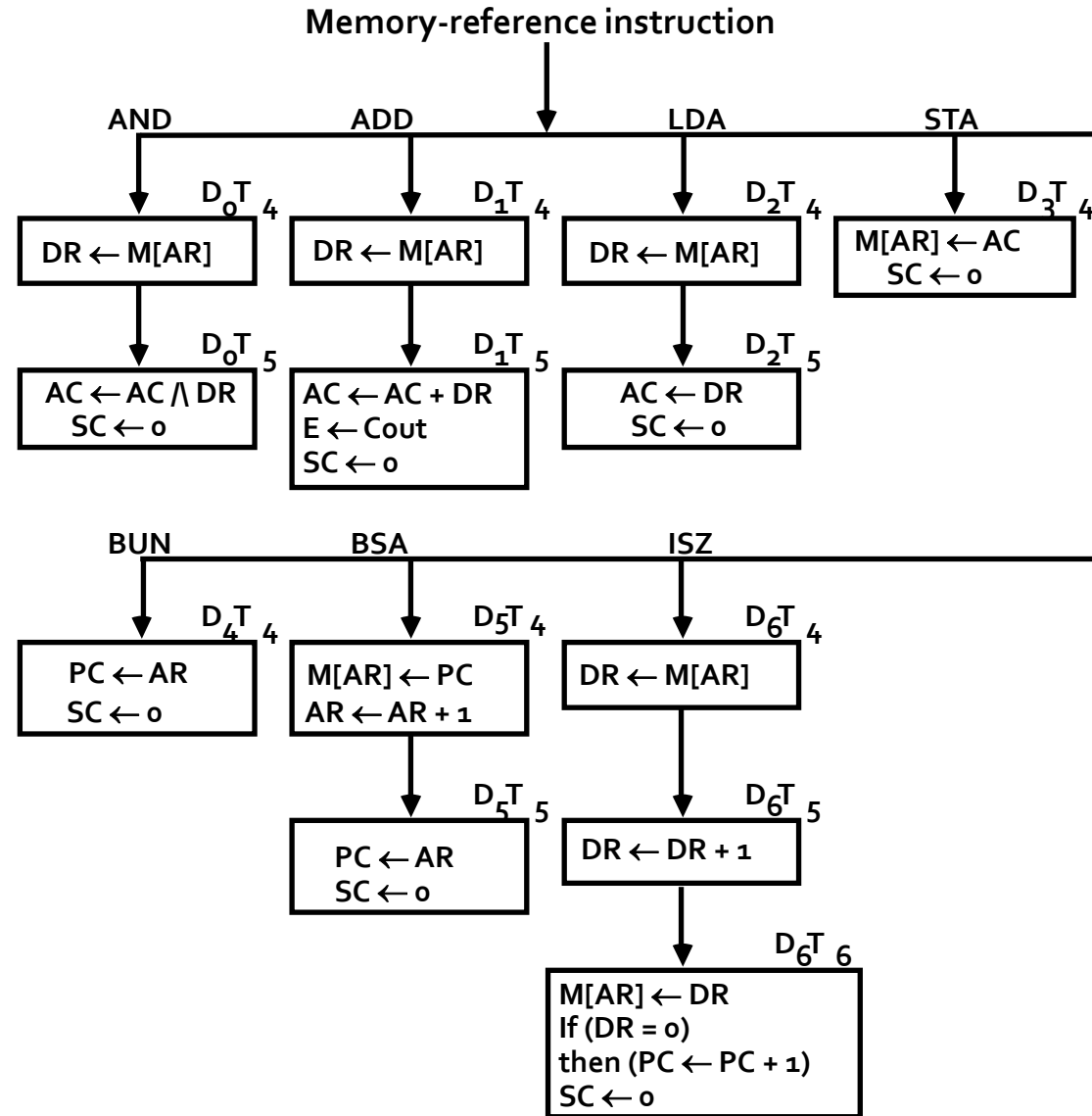
These instruction increments the word specified by the effective address, and if the incremented value is equal to 0, PC is incremented by 1. Since it is not possible to increment a word inside the memory, it is necessary to read the word into DR, increment DR, and store the word back into memory.

$D_6T_4: DR \leftarrow M[AR]$

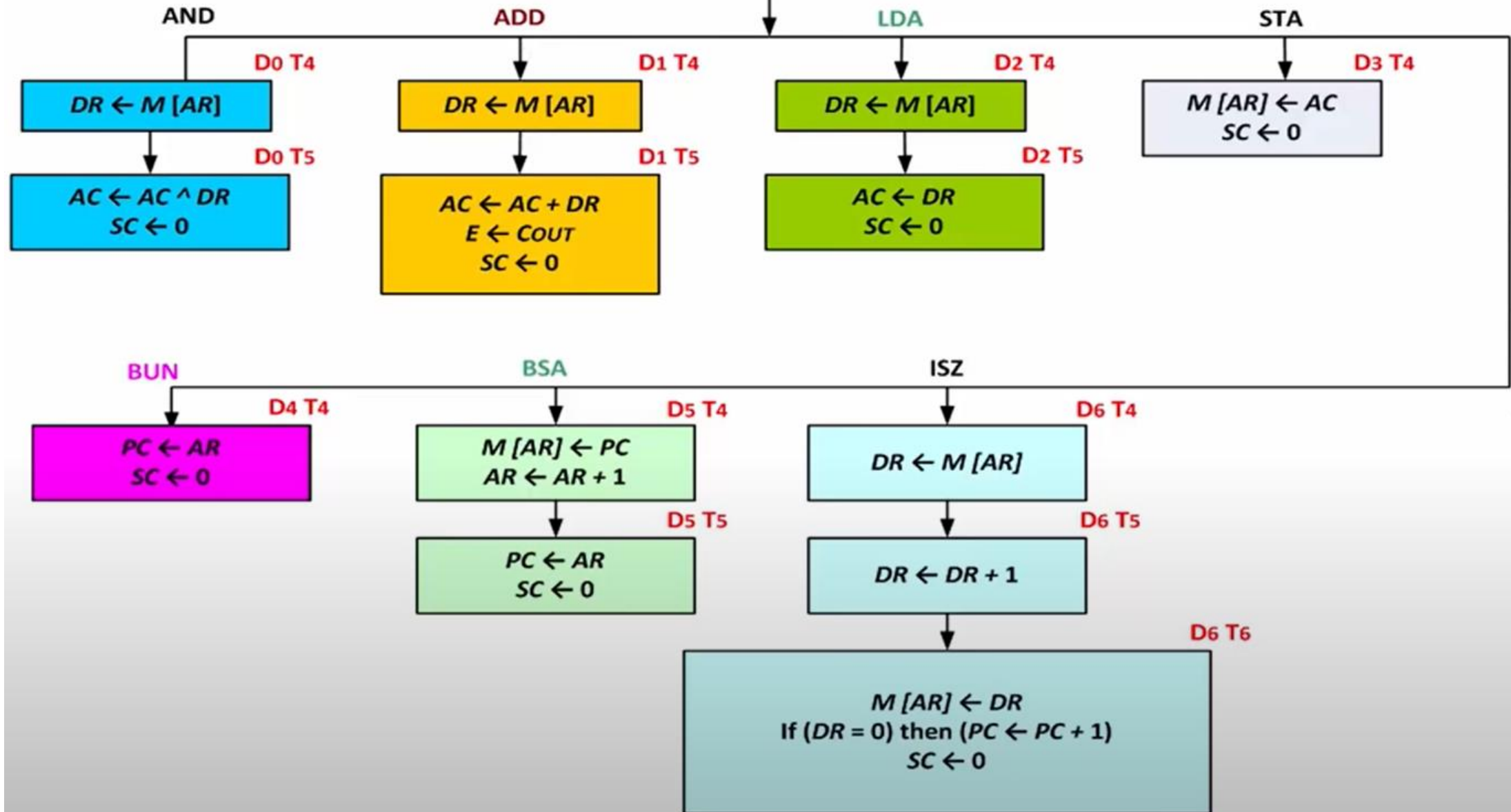
$D_6T_5: DR \leftarrow DR + 1$

$D_6T_6: M[AR] \leftarrow DR, \text{ if } (DR = 0) \text{ then } (PC \leftarrow PC + 1),$   
 $SC \leftarrow 0$

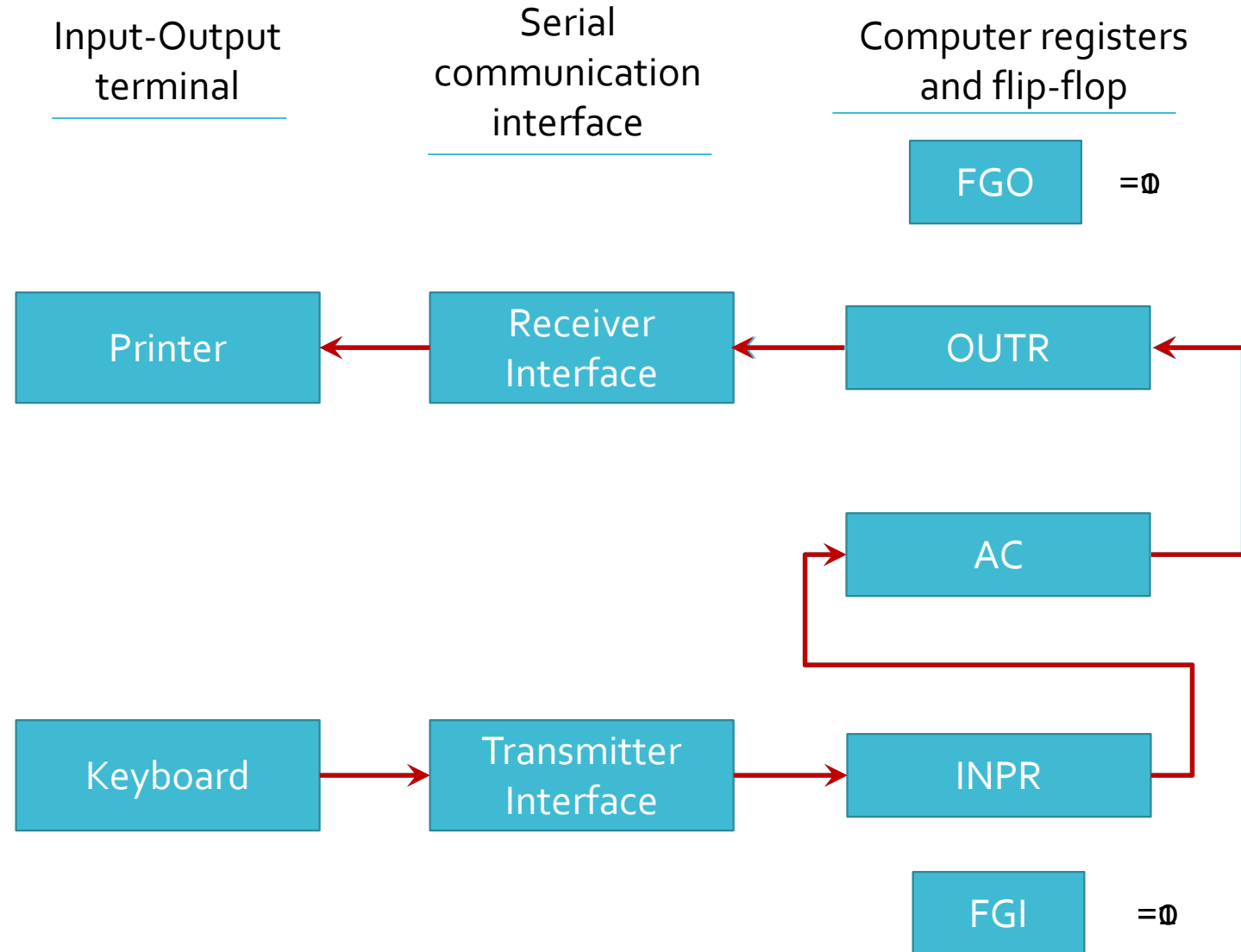
# Flowchart for Memory Reference Instructions



## Memory-reference instruction



# Input-Output of basic computer





# Input-Output of basic computer

- A computer can serve no useful purpose unless it communicates with the external environment.
- To exhibit the most basic requirements for input and output communication, we will use a terminal unit with a keyboard and printer.
- The terminal sends and receives serial information and each quantity of information has eight bits of an alphanumeric code.
- The serial information from the keyboard is shifted into the input register INPR.
- The serial information for the printer is stored in the output register OUTR.
- These two registers communicate with a communication interface serially and with the AC in parallel.

## Process of input information transfer

- Initially, the input flag FGI is cleared to 0. When a key is struck in the keyboard, an 8-bit alphanumeric code is shifted into INPR and the input flag FGI is set to 1.
- As long as the flag is set, the information in INPR cannot be changed by striking another key. The computer checks the flag bit; if it is 1, the information from INPR is transferred in parallel into AC and FGI is cleared to 0.
- Once the flag is cleared, new information can be shifted into INPR by striking another key.

## Process of outputting information

- The output register OUTF works similarly but the direction of information flow is reversed.
- Initially, the output flag FOF is set to 1. The computer checks the flag bit; if it is 1, the information from AC is transferred in parallel to OUTF and FOF is cleared to 0. The output device accepts the coded information, prints the corresponding character, and when the operation is completed, it sets FOF to 1.
- The computer does not load a new character into OUTF when FOF is 0 because this condition indicates that the output device is in the process of printing the character.

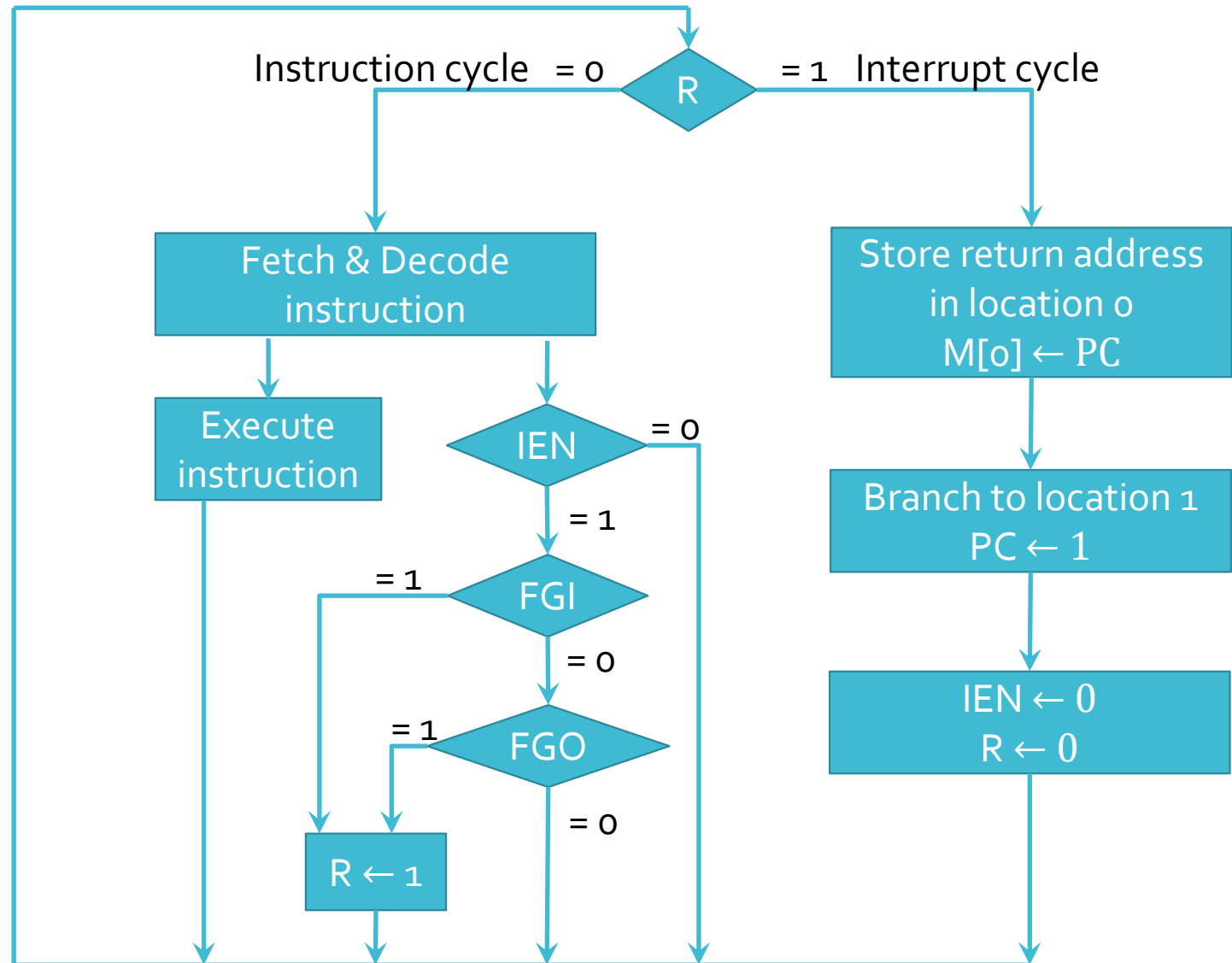
# Input-Output Instruction

$D_7IT_3 = p$  (common to all input-output instructions)

$IR(i) = B_i$  [bit in  $IR(6-11)$  that specifies the operation]

INP	$pB_{11}$	$AC(0-7) \leftarrow INPR, FGI \leftarrow 0$	Input Character
OUT	$pB_{10}$	$OUTR \leftarrow AC(0-7), FGO \leftarrow 0$	Output Character
SKI	$pB_9$	If ( $FGI = 1$ ) then ( $PC \leftarrow PC + 1$ )	Skip on input flag
SKO	$pB_8$	If ( $FGO = 1$ ) then ( $PC \leftarrow PC + 1$ )	Skip on output flag
ION	$pB_7$	$IEN \leftarrow 1$	Interrupt enable on
IOF	$pB_6$	$IEN \leftarrow 0$	Interrupt enable off

# Interrupt Cycle



# Interrupt Cycle

- The interrupt cycle is a hardware implementation of a branch and save return address operation.
- An interrupt flip-flop R is included in the computer.
- When  $R = 0$ , the computer goes through an instruction cycle.

# Interrupt Cycle

- During the execute phase of the instruction cycle IEN is checked by the control.
- If it is 0, it indicates that the programmer does not want to use the interrupt, so control continues with the next instruction cycle.
- If IEN is 1, control checks the flag bits.
- If both flags are 0, it indicates that neither the input nor the output registers are ready for transfer of information.
- In this case, control continues with the next instruction cycle. If either flag is set to 1 while IEN = 1, flip-flop R is set to 1.
- At the end of the execute phase, control checks the value of R, and if it is equal to 1, it goes to an interrupt cycle instead of an instruction cycle.

## Register transfer statements for Interrupt cycle

- The flip-flop is set to 1 if  $IEN = 1$  and either FGI or FGO are equal to 1. This can happen with any clock transition except when timing signals  $T_0$ ,  $T_1$  or  $T_2$  are active.
- The condition for setting flip-flop  $R = 1$  can be expressed with the following register transfer statement:

$$T_0' T_1' T_2' (IEN) (FGI + FGO): R \leftarrow 1$$

- The symbol + between FGI and FGO in the control function designates a logic OR operation. This is AND with IEN and  $T_0' T_1' T_2'$ .



## Register transfer statements for Interrupt cycle

- The fetch and decode phases of the instruction cycle must be modified and Replace  $T_0, T_1, T_2$  with  $R'T_0, R'T_1, R'T_2$
- Therefore the interrupt cycle statements are :

$RT_0 : AR \leftarrow 0, TR \leftarrow PC$

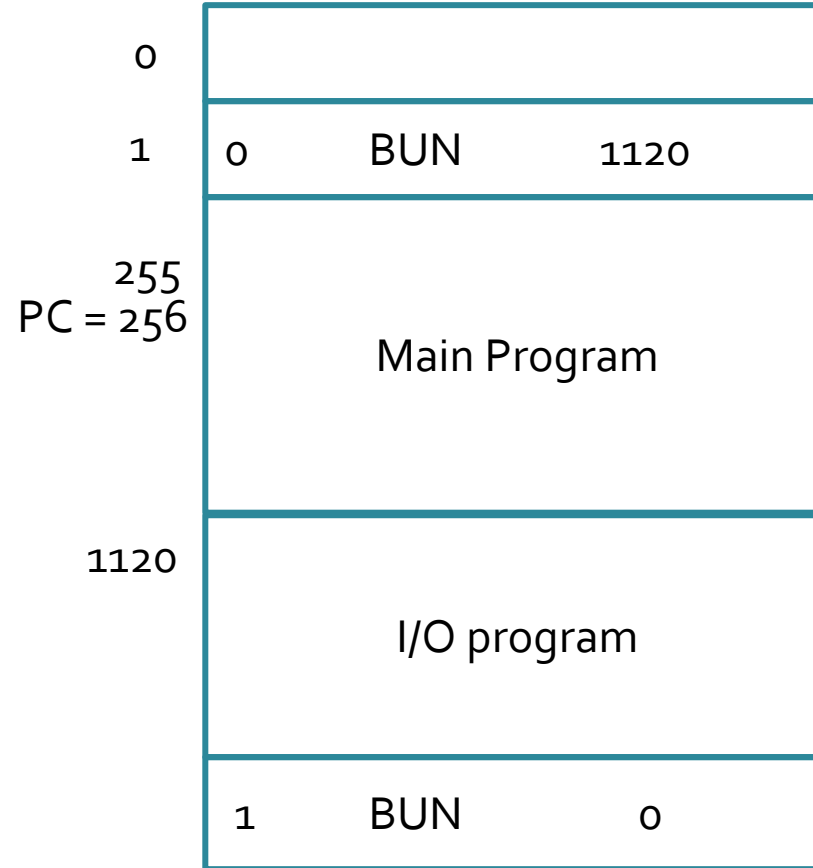
$RT_1 : M[AR] \leftarrow TR, PC \leftarrow 0$

$RT_2 : PC \leftarrow PC + 1, IEN \leftarrow 0, R \leftarrow 0, SC \leftarrow 0$

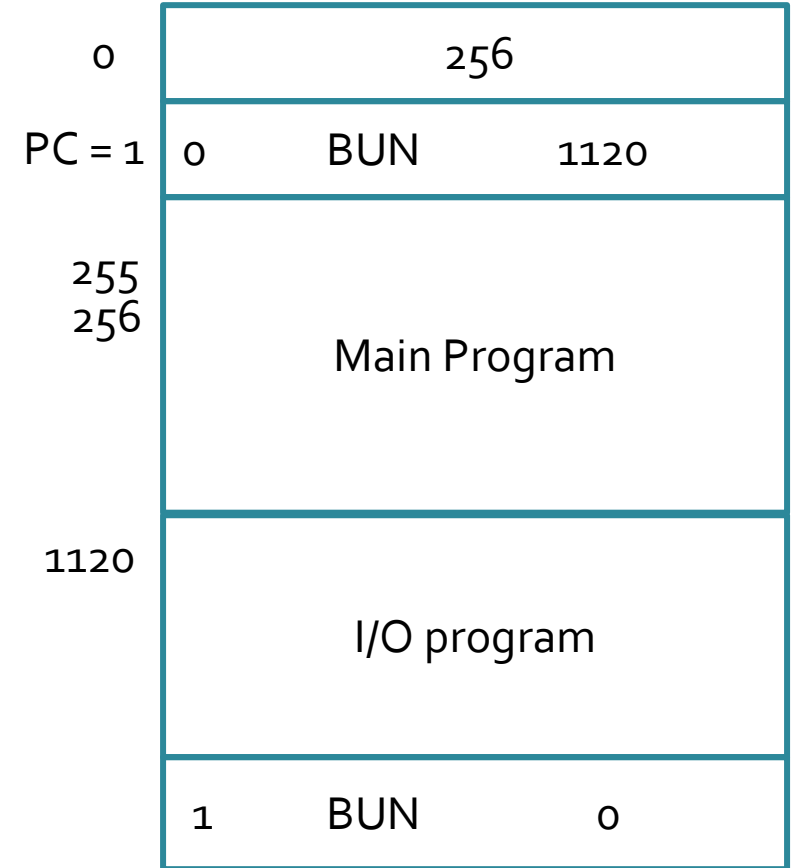
## Register transfer statements for Interrupt cycle

- During the first timing signal AR is cleared to 0, and the content of PC is transferred to the temporary register TR.
- With the second timing signal, the return address is stored in memory at location 0 and PC is cleared to 0.
- The third timing signal increments PC to 1, clears IEN and R, and control goes back to  $T_0$  by clearing SC to 0.
- The beginning of the next instruction cycle has the condition  $RT_0$  and the content of PC is equal to 1. The control then goes through an instruction cycle that fetches and executes the BUN instruction in location 1.

# Demonstration of Interrupt Cycle



Before Interrupt



After Interrupt

# Complete Computer Description (Micro- operations)

Fetch	$R'T_0:$	$AR \leftarrow PC$
	$R'T_1:$	$IR \leftarrow M[AR], PC \leftarrow PC + 1$
Decode	$R'T_2:$	$D_0, \dots, D_7 \leftarrow \text{Decode } IR(12 \sim 14),$ $AR \leftarrow IR(0 \sim 11), I \leftarrow IR(15)$
Indirect Interrupt	$D_7'IT_3:$	$AR \leftarrow M[AR]$
	$T_0'T_1'T_2'(IEN)(FGI + FGO):$	$R \leftarrow 1$
	$RT_0:$	$AR \leftarrow 0, TR \leftarrow PC$
	$RT_1:$	$M[AR] \leftarrow TR, PC \leftarrow 0$
	$RT_2:$	$PC \leftarrow PC + 1, IEN \leftarrow 0, R \leftarrow 0, SC \leftarrow 0$
Memory-Reference		
AND	$D_0T_4:$	$DR \leftarrow M[AR]$
	$D_0T_5:$	$AC \leftarrow AC \wedge DR, SC \leftarrow 0$
ADD	$D_1T_4:$	$DR \leftarrow M[AR]$
	$D_1T_5:$	$AC \leftarrow AC + DR, E \leftarrow C_{out}, SC \leftarrow 0$
LDA	$D_2T_4:$	$DR \leftarrow M[AR]$
	$D_2T_5:$	$AC \leftarrow DR, SC \leftarrow 0$
STA	$D_3T_4:$	$M[AR] \leftarrow AC, SC \leftarrow 0$
BUN	$D_4T_4:$	$PC \leftarrow AR, SC \leftarrow 0$
BSA	$D_5T_4:$	$M[AR] \leftarrow PC, AR \leftarrow AR + 1$
	$D_5T_5:$	$PC \leftarrow AR, SC \leftarrow 0$
ISZ	$D_6T_4:$	$DR \leftarrow M[AR]$
	$D_6T_5:$	$DR \leftarrow DR + 1$
	$D_6T_6:$	$M[AR] \leftarrow DR, \text{ if}(DR=0) \text{ then } (PC \leftarrow PC + 1),$ $SC \leftarrow 0$

# Complete Computer Description (Micro- operations)

## Register-Reference

$D_7I'T_3 = r$   
 $IR(i) = B_i$

$r:$

CLA

$rB_{11}:$

CLE

$rB_{10}:$

CMA

$rB_9:$

CME

$rB_8:$

CIR

$rB_7:$

CIL

$rB_6:$

INC

$rB_5:$

SPA

$rB_4:$

SNA

$rB_3:$

SZA

$rB_2:$

SZE

$rB_1:$

HLT

$rB_0:$

(Common to all register-reference instr)  
( $i = 0, 1, 2, \dots, 11$ )

$SC \leftarrow 0$

$AC \leftarrow 0$

$E \leftarrow 0$

$AC \leftarrow AC'$

$E \leftarrow E'$

$AC \leftarrow shr\ AC, AC(15) \leftarrow E, E \leftarrow AC(0)$

$AC \leftarrow shl\ AC, AC(0) \leftarrow E, E \leftarrow AC(15)$

$AC \leftarrow AC + 1$

If( $AC(15) = 0$ ) then ( $PC \leftarrow PC + 1$ )

If( $AC(15) = 1$ ) then ( $PC \leftarrow PC + 1$ )

If( $AC = 0$ ) then ( $PC \leftarrow PC + 1$ )

If( $E = 0$ ) then ( $PC \leftarrow PC + 1$ )

$S \leftarrow 0$

## Input-Output

$D_7IT_3 = p$   
 $IR(i) = B_i$

$p:$

INP

$pB_{11}:$

OUT

$pB_{10}:$

SKI

$pB_9:$

SKO

$pB_8:$

ION

$pB_7:$

IOF

$pB_6:$

(Common to all input-output instructions)  
( $i = 6, 7, 8, 9, 10, 11$ )

$SC \leftarrow 0$

$AC(0-7) \leftarrow INPR, FGI \leftarrow 0$

$OUTR \leftarrow AC(0-7), FGO \leftarrow 0$

If( $FGI = 1$ ) then ( $PC \leftarrow PC + 1$ )

If( $FGO = 1$ ) then ( $PC \leftarrow PC + 1$ )

$IEN \leftarrow 1$

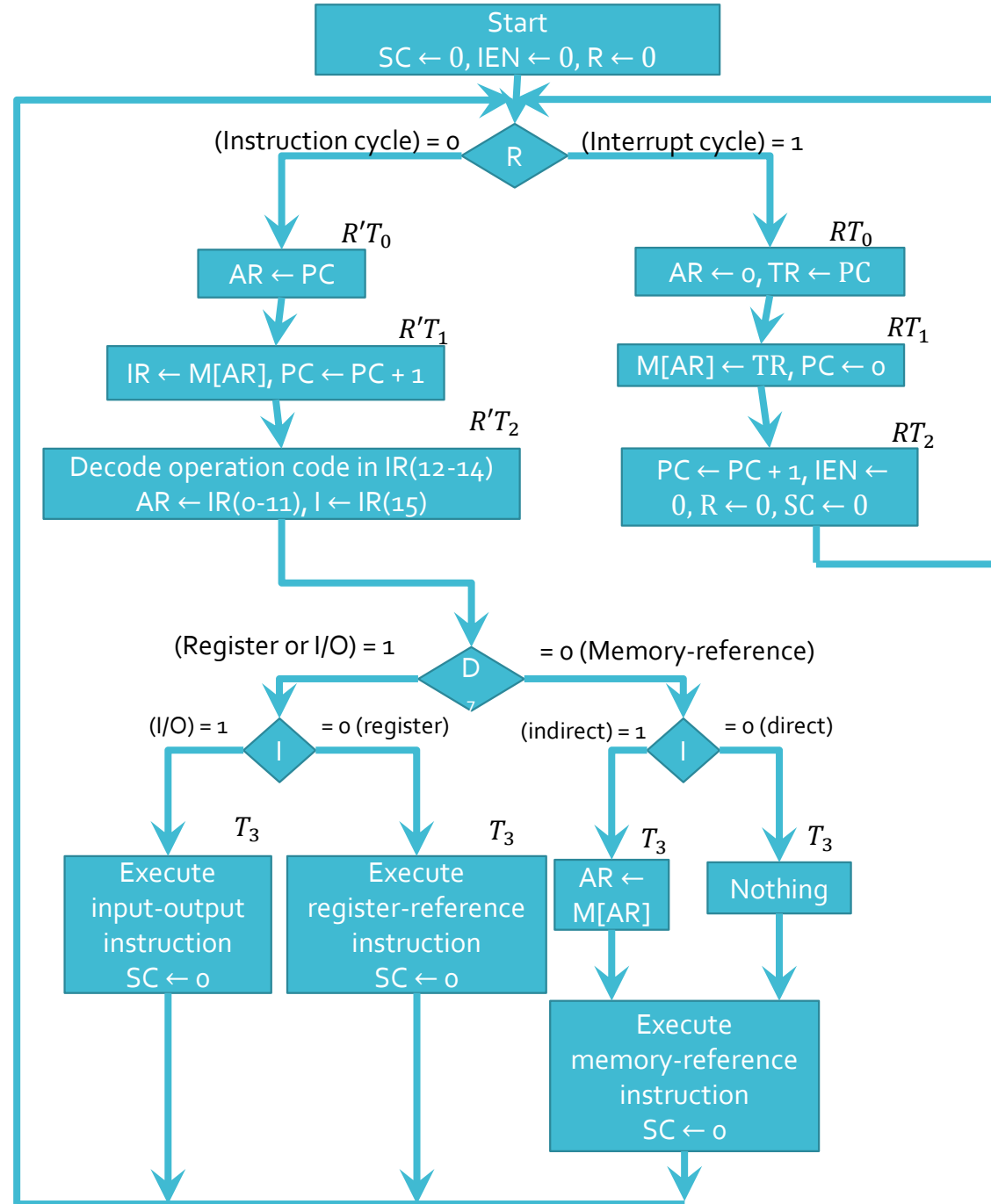
$IEN \leftarrow 0$

# Design of Basic Computer

- Hardware Components of Basic Computer
  - A memory unit:  $4096 \times 16$ .
  - Registers: AR, PC, DR, AC, IR, TR, OUTR, INPR, and SC
  - Flip-Flops(Status): I, S, E, R, IEN, FGI, and FGO
  - Decoders: a  $3 \times 8$  Opcode decoder & a  $4 \times 16$  timing decoder
  - Common bus: 16 bits
  - Adder and Logic circuit: Connected to AC
- Control Logic Gates:
  - Input Controls of the nine registers
  - Read and Write Controls of memory
  - Set, Clear, or Complement Controls of the flip-flops
  - $S_2, S_1, S_0$  Controls to select a register for the bus
  - AC, and Adder and Logic circuit

# Design of Basic Computer

- Basic Computer





# Design of Accumulator Unit

- In order to design the logic associated with AC, it is necessary to extract all the statements that change the content of AC.

$D_0T_5: AC \leftarrow AC \wedge DR, SC \leftarrow 0$

AND with *DR*

$D_1T_5: AC \leftarrow AC + DR, SC \leftarrow 0$

ADD with *DR*

$D_2T_5: AC \leftarrow DR$

Transfer from *DR*

$pB_{11}: AC(0-7) \leftarrow INPR, FGI \leftarrow 0$

Transfer from *INPR*

$rB_9: AC \leftarrow AC'$

Complement

$rB_7: AC \leftarrow shr\ AC, AC(15) \leftarrow E$

Shift right

$rB_6: AC \leftarrow shl\ AC, AC(0) \leftarrow E$

Shift left

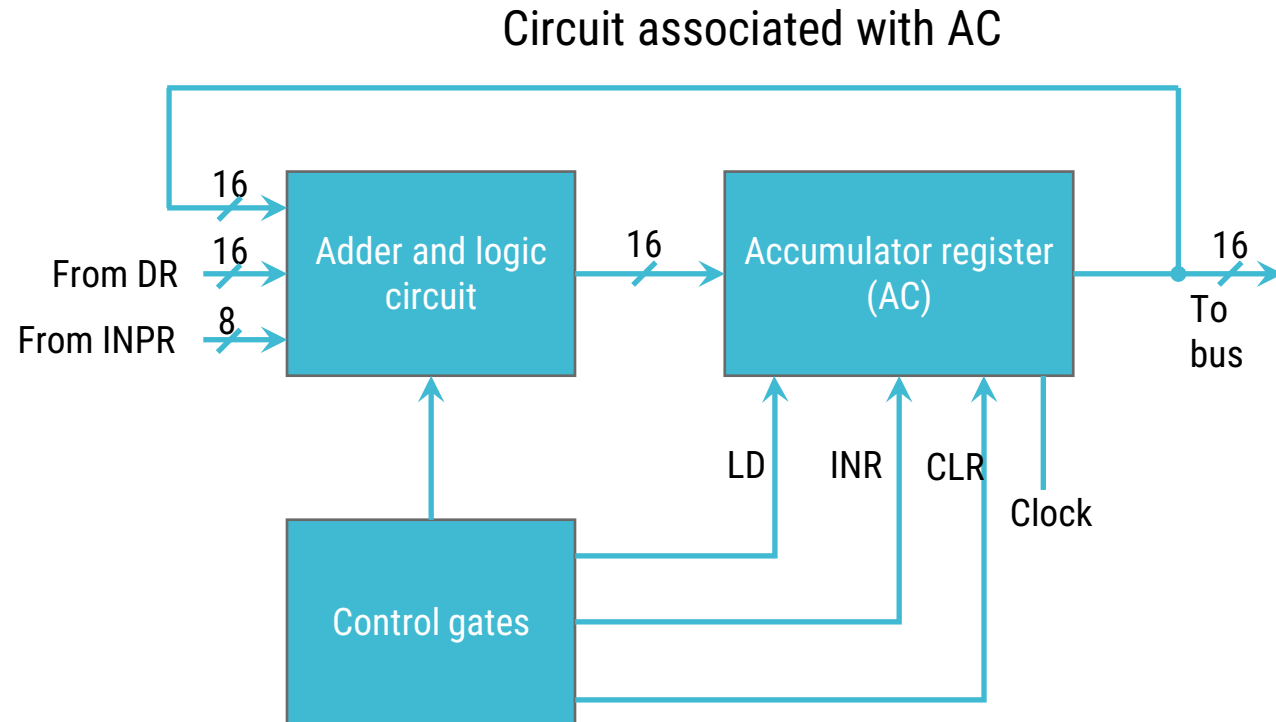
$rB_{11}: AC \leftarrow 0$

Clear

$rB_5: AC \leftarrow AC + 1$

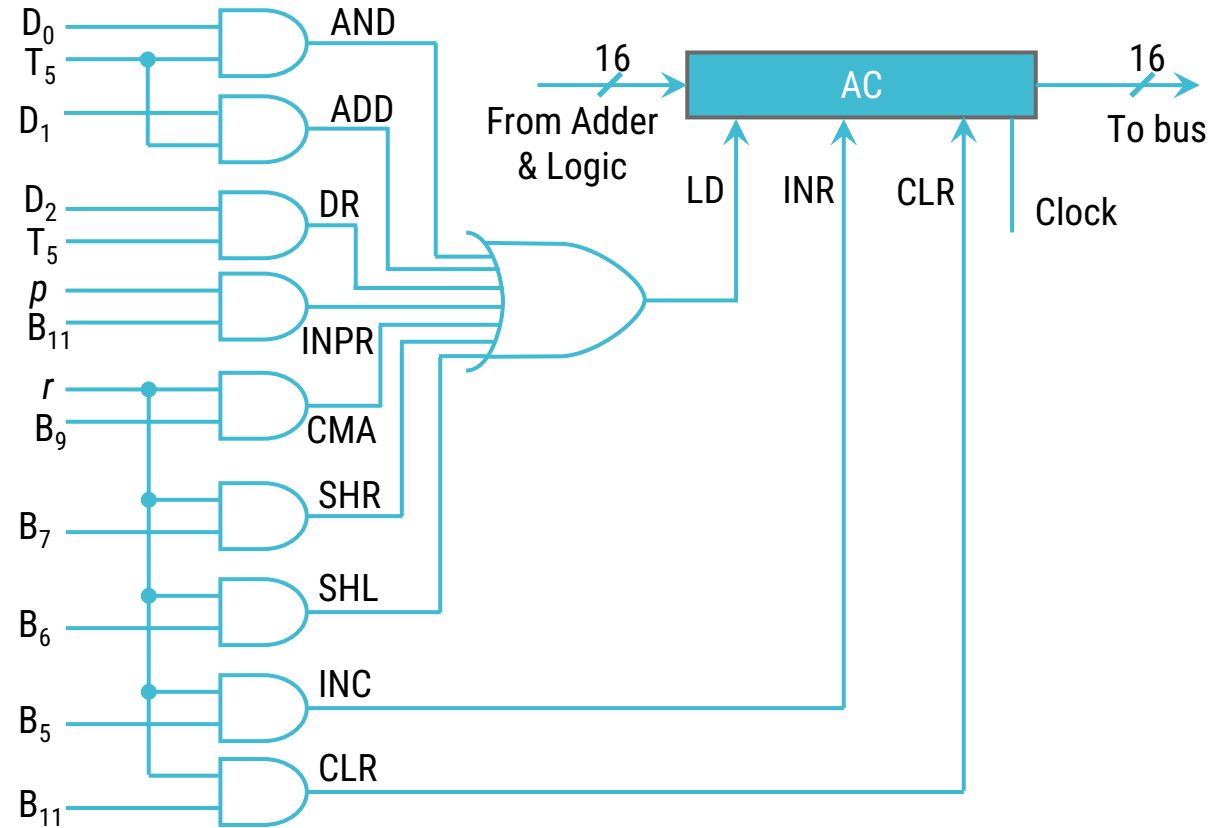
Increment

# Design of Accumulator Logic



# Design of Accumulator Logic

## Gate structure for controlling LD, INR and CLR of AC



Thank You