

- **Name:** Vivek Khimani (Freshmen)
- **Project Title:** Understanding the Apollo Guidance Computer (AGC).
- **Project Focus:** The primary focus of the project is to provide a detailed account of the AGC architecture and compare it with the system used in modern computers. The paper will explain the significant architectural aspects like- memory model, instruction set in the machine code and its interpretation, instruction encoding, distribution and functions of registers, I/O devices and their instruction sets, and some of the unusual features of AGC architecture (when compared to the modern computers).
- **School:** Drexel University
- **Degree:** BS in Computer Science (BSCS)
- **Course and Section:** CS 164, Section C (Honors)
- **Professor:** Dr Brian Stuart
- **Presentation Type:** Research Paper

# **Table of Contents**

## **1. General Introduction**

1.1 The Apollo Mission.....	3
1.2 The Apollo Guidance Computer.....	3

## **2. Understanding the Architecture**

2.1 Introduction.....	3
2.2 Instruction Set.....	4
2.3 Memory Model.....	4
2.4 Load, Store, Arithmetic, Logic Instructions.....	5
2.5 Negative Numbers Representation.....	6
2.6 RAM and ROM.....	8
2.7 Control Flow Instructions.....	9
2.8 Primary Registers.....	10
2.9 Editing Registers.....	11
2.10 I/O Channels.....	11
2.11 I/O Channels Instructions.....	11
2.12 Shadow Registers.....	12
2.13 Interrupts.....	12
2.14 Interrupts Instructions.....	13
2.15 Instructions Encoding.....	13
2.16 Unusual Features of AGC Architecture.....	15
2.17 Citations.....	16

# **1. General Introduction:**

## **1.1.The Apollo Mission:**

**Apollo** was the project conducted by United States National Aeronautics and Space Administration (NASA) between the 1960s and '70s, which was dedicated to **President John F. Kennedy's** national goal of *landing first man on the Moon and returning him safely to the Earth*. This was finally accomplished on **July 20, 1969** when **Neil Armstrong** (along with **Buzz Aldrin** and **Michael Collins**) became the first man to step on the moon. Undoubtedly, the team of scientists and Apollo astronauts are the real backbone of this success, this project report is based on the *Apollo Guidance Computer (Designed and programmed at MIT)*, which was first used in the **Apollo 7** (first successful crewed mission after the Apollo 1 disaster). *Supporting Source: Britannica (Citation at the End).*

## **1.2.The Apollo Guidance Computer:**

As soon as the mission was declared by President Kennedy, MIT was given a contract in 1961 to create a computer that would support such a mission. It took them a span of **5 years (1961-1966)** and a cost of **200,000 USD** each to build a total of **42 AGCs** that supported the Apollo moon landings between 1969-1972. In the mid-1960s it wasn't possible to put any computer on the aircraft because the first mini computers were of the size of a **small fridge, too heavy, too power hungry, and too slow** for the real-time scientific calculations. But, the AGC was **compacted to a size of suitcase (55\*33\*15cm)**, with a weight of **32 kg**, and consumed about **55W**. This was a huge achievement in that era (although it was huge compared to our computers). *Factual source: [www.history.nasa.gov/computers/Ch2-1.html](http://www.history.nasa.gov/computers/Ch2-1.html).*

# **2. Understanding the Architecture:**

## **2.1.Introduction:**

*Computer Architecture* can be defined as a specification detailing how a set of software and hardware technology standards interact to form a computer system or platform (A definition by Techopedia). Before digging deep into the AGC architecture, let's compare some of the basic features that clearly distinguishes the capabilities of the AGC compared to the modern computer we use today:

- The **clock speed** (*put simply*, a rate at which processor can complete a processing cycle) of AGC was **1.024 MHz**, which is almost **2344 times** less than the processor (Intel Core i5-6200) I am using on my computer to type this paper. Also, the modern processors are way more efficient because of which they can get **more work done per clock cycle** compared to the **older processors**.
- All data on this computer is stored in form a **15-bit word**.

- Originally, it supported **2 KW of RAM** and **36 KW of ROM** which was increased as and when required by the software.

## 2.2. Instruction Set:

The **Instruction Set** can be basically defined as set of commands for the CPU in **Machine Language**. The AGC instruction set varies widely when compared to the modern-day computers. It can be compared in the following manner:

- The **armv8** instruction set for the modern computers is one of the most complex instruction sets designed for unbeatable performance. It comprises of **400 instructions**
- While **subleq** is considered as the **simplest instruction model** which shows that a **single instruction** can be enough to solve a problem.
- The **AGC instruction set** was in between these two which comprised of **36 instructions** for varied range of functions.
- In that era, **more complex instruction**, required **high code density**, and **higher complexity of CPU**.
- To **avoid this complexity** the **AGC Instruction set** was **tactfully** designed in a way that it was just enough for the mission and **used minimal memory**.

But, to precisely understand the logic behind instruction, it is extremely important to understand the **Memory Model** used in the **AGC**. As the instructions are chiefly **stored** and **written** in the memory, it is one of the most important **cornerstones** of not only the instruction set, but also the **Computer Architecture** as a whole.

## 2.3. Memory Model:

As described earlier, the **Memory Model** is one of the most important features in a computer because the **architecture** is largely based on the **availability of memory**, which in turn affect the **software** and **hardware**. In 1960s, designing an efficient memory model was one of the greatest challenges faced by the makers of AGC because there was a limited access to memory. Ultimately, they ended up with the following model:

- Memory consisted of **4096 cells**, each numbered from **000** to **FFF** in **hexadecimal**.
- Each cell can contain a **maximum of 15-bit value** which is from **0000** to **7FFF** in **hexadecimal**.
- Almost all the changes taking place in the memory had to go through the **15-bit accumulator (Register A)** which was a part of the **memory itself**.
- AGC had a **single address space** for **code** and **data** which made it a **Von Neumann Machine**.
- We can **COPY, ADD, SUBTRACT**, and **MULTIPLY** data **between** an **accumulator** and **AGC**.
- **Different data** in the **memory** can have **different meanings** based on the method in which they are **interpreted**.
- **PC (Program Counter)** was one of the **registers**, which used to **hold** the **address of the instruction** which was to be **executed next**. *Put simply*, it was responsible to **control** the **execution flow** in the AGC.

Let's further look at the **detailed instruction set** in the AGC and their functioning.

## 2.4.Load, Store, Arithmetic, and Logic Instructions:

Before jumping to the individual instructions and their meanings, it is important to understand the **syntax** used for the interpretation. The **same syntax** will be used throughout the paper to explain the different set of instructions:

- [k] -- are represented as the cardholders for the **memory address**.
- 'a' -- represents the **argument** (can be also interpreted as 'accumulator')
- 'b' -- this will show up in the instructions which requires **double word values** (double the 15 bits available in the accumulator). It is a **register** which is **mostly used along with the accumulator** to store the **double word values**.

ld a, [k]	<b>LOADS</b> the value from [k] block in the memory to <b>ACCUMULATOR</b> . (this is why it makes sense to consider 'a' as accumulator)
add a, [k]	<b>ADDS</b> the value from [k] block in the memory to the value in <b>ACCUMULATOR</b> .
ld [k], a	<b>STORES</b> the value from accumulator to the [k] block in the memory.
xchg a, [k]	<b>SWAPS</b> the values between accumulator and [k] block in the memory.
sub a, [k]	<b>SUBTRACTS</b> the value from [k] from the value in accumulator and stores the result in accumulator. (This can produce <b>negative results</b> , which are explained in the next section).
ldc a, [k]	<b>NEGATES (REVERSAL OF ALL THE BITS)</b> in the given memory block [k] and <b>LOADS</b> it in the accumulator.
inc [k]	<b>ADDS ONE</b> to the value in [k] block of the memory <b>WITHOUT</b> assigning it in the accumulator.
aug [k]	<b>ADDS ONE</b> to the <b>POSITIVE VALUE</b> in [k] and <b>SUBTRACTS ONE</b> from the <b>NEGATIVE VALUE</b> in [k].
dim [k]	<b>SUBTRACTS ONE</b> from the <b>POSITIVE VALUES</b> in [k] and <b>ADDS ONE</b> to the <b>NEGATIVE VALUES</b> in [k].
mul [k]	<b>MULTIPLIES</b> the number from [k] block with that in accumulator and then stores the result in the <b>TWO</b> registers 'a' (accumulator) and 'b'. (This is where 'b' register comes into the picture because <b>multiplication result</b> cannot be stored in <b>15-bit accumulator alone</b> . So, the <b>higher bits of the product</b> are stored in 'a' and <b>lower bits of the product</b> are stored in 'b').
div [k]	<b>DIVIDES</b> the value from [k] block by the value in accumulator and stores the <b>QUOTIENT</b> in 'a' register and <b>REMAINDER</b> in 'b' register.

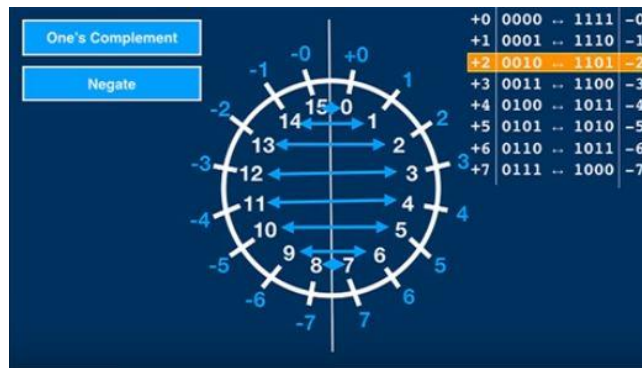
ld ab, [k]	LOADS the values from [k] block and ONE BLOCK BELOW THE [k] block to 'a' and 'b' registers as DOUBLE WORD.
ldc ab, [k]	LOADS the NEGATED or COMPLEMENTED value from [k] block and ONE BLOCK BELOW THE [k] block to 'a' and 'b' registers as DOUBLE WORD.
xchg ab, [k]	SWAPS the value from [k] block and ONE BLOCK BELOW THE [k] block with the values in 'a' and 'b' registers.
add ab, [k]	ADDS the value from [k] block and ONE BLOCK BELOW THE [k] block TO the values in 'a' and 'b' registers.
xchg b, [k]	SWAPS the value from [k] block in the memory with the value in 'b' register.
ld a, [k1+[k2]]	READS the value from [k2] block first, ADDS it to [k1] value. LOADS the value from the RESULTANT numbered block in the memory to A. (This is how we can execute "INDIRECT INDEXING" in the AGC).
ld a, [[k]]	READS THE VALUE FROM [k] block and adds it to 0. LOADS the value from the RESULTANT numbered block in the memory to 'a' register. (This is how we can shift our Program Counter to a specific location in the memory. This method can be indirectly used as a "pointer").

## 2.5.Negative Number Representation:

AGC uses **ONE's COMPLEMENT** to represent the **NEGATIVE NUMBERS**. The representation in this format can be simply done by **reversing the bits** of a **given positive number**.

- However, these were some of the possible drawbacks,
  - A. The **one's complement** resulted in **two values of zero (+0 and -0)** which practically doesn't make a lot of sense.
  - B. Addition of various numbers can result into **positive** or **negative** overflow based on the values of numbers being added.
  - C. It was only possible to use this method for **decimal numbers upto 7**.
- But, there was also a **brief logic** behind using **one's complement**,
  - It was possible to represent 1 to 15 **decimal numbers** using **4 bits**. So the numbers **0 to 7** represent **+ve unsigned number**, while **8 to 15** represent **-ve unsigned number**.
  - Therefore, this **simple reversal of bits** and the **concept of compliments** can be understood using a **circle (following diagram)**, which in turns makes it **easier to understand** the **concept of carry and overflow**.

**NOTE:** The **concept of circle** (which will follow) is just used to explain the **concept of addition, carry, and overflows** in AGC. The **actual operations are done in the form of bits**. But, the same concepts apply. (Example: Incorrect bits are produced in overflow conditions which produces an unexpected result)



Source: <https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=xx7Lfh5SKUQ&t=2480s> (10:31)

- Using this circle, let's understand an example of **SIMPLE ADDITION**:
  - $(-5) + (2)$   $\#(-5)$  is represented as 10 using the complimentary value from the circle].
  - $(10) + (2)$
  - $12 == (-3)$   $\#[$ Again, use the circle!]
  - Therefore, **one's complement works perfectly for such simple additions.**
- Now, let's look at an example of **END-AROUND CARRY**:
  - $(6) - (4)$
  - $(6) + (-4)$
  - $(6) + (11)$   $\#[$ Using the complement from the circle.]
  - 17  $\#[$ This doesn't exist on the circle because it gets completed on 15. So, a **completion of circle represents CARRY**]
  - $1 + \text{CARRY}$   $\#[$ 17 corresponds to 1 after completing the circle. And we include **carry**, which is **added** as 1]
  - 2  $\#[$ This gives us the correct result]

**BUT, THESE RESULTS DON'T APPLY IN THE CASE OF NUMBERS WHICH RESULT INTO AN OVERFLOW!**

- Positive Overflow:** The condition in which **the result of addition of two positive numbers does not fit into positive (unsigned) number space on the circle.**
  - $(7) + (1)$
  - (8)  $\#[$ This represents (-7) on the circle, which is INCORRECT.
  - This is called a **positive overflow.**
- Negative Overflow:** The condition in which **the result of addition of two negative numbers does not fit into negative number space on the circle.**
  - $(-7) + (-1)$
  - $(8) + (14)$   $\#[$ When we consider the values from the circle.
  - $6 + \text{CARRY}$   $\#[$ This represent (7) on the circle, which is INCORRECT.
  - This is called a **negative overflow.**

Remember, OVERFLOW condition doesn't mean that AGC will produce incorrect results in such cases. There's a solution for the overflow conditions too. When accumulator receives an overflowed value, it stores that value like any other value. But, it has an additional bit which stores the information about overflow condition. For example, (7) in the negative overflow example, will be stored with an EXTRA OVERFLOW BIT. So, while storing this value in a memory block, first the accumulator sends (7) which is stored. Then, it writes +1 or -1 in the memory block depending on the positive or negative overflow. This acts as a signed carry and is stored in a higher order block (the block above). Therefore, these TWO BLOCKS TOGETHER store a negative value in form of a DOUBLE WORD result in the memory.

## 2.6.RAM and ROM:

- Original memory was comprised of **4096 words** in total (It was increased as per the needs of software).
- This original memory was composed of:
  - **1072 words of RAM.**
  - **3072 words of ROM.**
- However, the RAM and ROM were further divided in specific manner to provide efficient functionality of the machine.
- **DIVISION OF RAM:**
  - a. **768 words of FIXED RAM, 256 words of BANKED RAM.**
  - b. The **7 words of the registers** are the **parts of FIXED RAM.**
  - c. The **BANKED RAM has 8 (0 to 7) banks stacked over it.** The **register EB** is used to **switch between these banks.** When **EB is POINTED (using double index)** to a specific number from 0 to 7, that bank occupies the BANKED RAM area.
  - d. The **FIXED RAM** in the **RAM** area is not occupied by anything else but the **banks 0,1, and 2** (these are from the same 0 to 7 banks in the banked RAM area).
- **DIVISION OF ROM:**
  - a. **1024 words of BANKED ROM, 2048 words of FIXED ROM.**
  - b. The **BANKED ROM has 32 banks stacked over it.** The **register FB** is used to **switch between these banks.** The same **pointing or indexing process as EB** is to be used.
  - c. However, **more than 32 banks of ROM were added last minute which was called SUPERBANK.** This **SUPERBANK can be switched in the place of UPPER MOST 8 banks when all of them have been used** and later can be **used at the same locations** as those of the **existing 8 banks.** This makes a total of **40 banks of BANKED ROM.**
  - d. The **FIXED ROM** in the **ROM** area is occupied by the **BANKS number 2 and 3** which cannot be changed (these are from the same 0 to 40 banks in the banked ROM area).

**THIS FLEXIBILITY OF SWITCHING THE RAM AND ROM BANKS FORMS AN IMPORTANT PART OF THE CONTROL FLOW INSTRUCTIONS!**



## 2.7.Control Flow Instructions:

Normally, the instructions are executed in a **sequential manner**. The "**Program Counter**" (which is responsible for the execution of instruction), is incremented everytime an instruction is executed. This results in a **sequential execution of the code**. However, there are a few **control flow instructions** which can alter this normal flow of execution to provide the makers with **increased functionality**. The **syntax** is the same as **load, store, arithmetic, and logic** instructions.

<b>jmp [k]</b>	<b>LOADS the ARGUEMENT [k] in the Program Counter (PC) register, which means that EXECUTION WILL CONTINUE AT THAT ADDRESS ([k]).</b>
<b>jz [k]</b>	<b>IMPLEMENTS the JUMP INSTRUCTION, ONLY IF register 'a' has the value zero, otherwise it continues with the next instruction.</b>
<b>jlez [k]</b>	<b>ONLY IMPLEMENTS the JUMP INSTRUCTION, ONLY IF register 'a' has -ve or zero, otherwise it continues the next instruction.</b>
<b>ccs a</b>	<b>COUNT, COMPARE, and SKIP: A set of FOUR commands out of which THREE are CONDITIONAL JUMP COMMANDS (<math>a &gt; +0</math>; <math>a = +0</math>; <math>a &lt; -0</math>) and the FOURTH one is <code>ld a, [k]</code> command (with condition <math>= -0</math>). So if any ONE of the FIRST THREE conditions are satisfied, the PC eliminates the next two from them and jumps to "<code>ld a, [k]</code>" instruction along with the JMP (out of FIRST THREE) instructions. Therefore, these instructions are used for LOOPS whose conditions are based on 'a'.</b>
<b>call [k]</b>	<b>Similar to JMP but in this case, PC is incremented first (so it can move to the next instruction) and the incremented PC is copied to LR (Link Register). And than "call arguement"([k]) is copied to Program Counter (PC) so that execution can continue from there.</b>
<b>ret</b>	<b>It is used at the end of the "call" instruction. It contains the address of LR so that once it is issued, the data from LR is copied to PC and the execution can be continued from wherever it was left (due to "call"). Hence, "ret" is always used with "call".</b>
<b>xchg lr, [k]</b>	<b>Used when user wants to call something within a call instruction. This stores the existing LR information (for the main call) in the [k] memory block and performs ANOTHER CALL INSIDE (which overwrites the LR). Once the LR from another call is "ret" to PC and execution continues, the LR is EXCHANGED again from the memory block and "ret" is used to return the main LR value to PC and overwrites it. This is similar to the principle of "nested if" in modern coding languages.</b>
<b>ld eb, a</b>	<b>EB is the register numbered 003 on the memory which can be used to switch the RAM banks. So, when you LOAD a value in "a" from 000 to 007 into "eb", it will LOAD that numbered bank into BANKED RAM section.</b>
<b>ld fb, a</b>	<b>FB is the register numbered 004 on the memory which can be used to switch the ROM banks. So, when you LOAD a value in "a" from 000 to 007 into "fb", it will LOAD that numbered bank into the BANKED ROM section.</b>

**ALERT:** If my PC LOADS some BANK into the BANKED RAM or the BANKED ROM section due to the above command, and then if the next instruction (function call for example) refers to an EXISTING bank, the function call will not work on the updated bank and the remaining instructions for the existing bank would not work. So, the

makers included "callf" function which helps us to change FB and PC structure simultaneously and solve this issue.

<b>callf</b>	It is similar to existing "xchg ab, [k]" instruction because what it has to do is to <b>CHANGE FB and PC together</b> . So, for this to happen, we will have to <b>LOAD the values for FB and PC into "A" and "B" first</b> , and then "callf" will load these values in FB and PC from "A" and "B".
<b>retf</b>	This function is used with "callf" to <b>GET BACK the existing values of "FB" and "PC"</b> .

**BB (Both Banks) register:** Two banks register (FB and Eb) hold 5 bits (32 banks) and 3 bits (8 banks) respectively. Other bits are ZERO. There is another register BB (Both Banks) which has the information combined from BOTH THE BANK REGISTERS.

<b>callfbb</b>	<b>DOUBLE WORD INSTRUCTION</b> that can <b>UPDATE PC and BOTH BANKS (FB and EB) altogether</b> . It works on the same "xchg ab" principle, but <b>LOADS PC and BB into A and B</b> . This function gives us access to the subroutines whose variables are often stored on different banks.
<b>retfbb</b>	Used with "callfbb" to get back the existing values of "BB" and "PC".

**NOTE:** This instruction explains us the **UNUSUAL ORDERING FOR THE BANK REGISTERS**. They were ordered in the following order in the memory. EB, FB, PC, BB. Therefore, when "callf" or "callfbb" instructions are given the **DOUBLE WORD INSTRUCTION** can be **LOADED** into **FB and PC (for callf)** and **PC and BB (for callfbb)**. As **BOTH THE RAM banks can be switched with ROM bank and PC** using "callfbb", so "EB" register is not used to store any **DOUBLE WORD VALUE**.

## 2.8.Primary Registers:

There are **eight primary registers** which are assigned **first eight blocks in the memory (000 to 007)**. This feature allows **greater flexibility** in the instruction set. For example: While **LOADING** some value in register 'a' from 'b', we can treat 'b' as the memory block by using the **NORMAL LOAD INSTRUCTION**. However, the registers have **specific functions** and a **specific order (one of the reasons behind this was seen in CONTROL FLOW INSTRUCTIONS)**.

<u>Register</u>	<u>Memory Location</u>	<u>Function</u>
A	000	Used as a <b>Primary Accumulator</b> .
B	001	Used with 'a' to store <b>Double Word Values</b> .
LR	002	Link Register- <b>Stores the Tem.</b>
EB	003	Used to <b>switch between RAM BANKS</b> in the banked RAM area.
FB	004	Used to <b>switch between ROM BANKS</b> in the banked ROM area.
PC	005	<b>Controls and keeps a track of execution</b> of the instructions.

BB	006	<b>Both Banks-</b> Stores <b>combined information of FB and EB</b> . Used in "callfbb" instruction to switch <b>EB, FB, and PC altogether</b> .
0000	007	<b>Zero Register-</b> When we <b>READ FROM IT</b> we get <b>ZERO</b> , and when we <b>WRITE TO IT</b> the value is <b>DISCARDED</b> .

## 2.9.Editing Registers:

After the **primary register (000 to 007)**, memory contains **eight more "shadow registers"** (will be understood after the INTERRUPTS). Thereafter, four "editing registers" (010 to 013) make up for different **shift and rotate functions**.

<u>Register</u>	<u>Memory Location</u>	<u>Function</u>
ROR	010	When reading a 15-bit value <b>cause the bits to move right by one space and the last bit (from the right) will be rotated and become the left most bit</b> .
SHR	011	<b>Shifts all bits by one place to the right and discards the last bit (from the right). And replaces the left most bits with a 0 bit.</b>
ROL	012	When reading a 15-bit value, this will <b>cause the bits to move left by one space and the last bit (from the left) will be rotated and become the right most bit</b> .
SHR7	013	<b>Shifts all bits by SEVEN places to the right and discards the last SEVEN bits (from the right). And it replaces the SEVEN LEFTMOST BITS with SEVEN ZERO BITS.</b>

## 2.10. I/O Channels:

A computer has **CPU** at the centre which is connected to **memory (already discussed)** at one end and other **peripherals which form the Input/Output (I/O Channel)**. The I/O channels are **not a part of memory**, but they have a **different address space**. There are **512 I/O channels** labelled from **000 to 1FF**. Each of them is **15-bit in size**, similar to **memory**. "in" and "out" instructions can **read from** and can **write words to** I/O channels. These channels contain **15 individual control bits from different devices**. These control bits are used to **control the devices**.

## 2.11. I/O Channels Instructions:

in a, [kc]	Provides an <b>INPUT</b> to the I/O channels.
out [kc], a	Generates an <b>output</b> from the I/O channels.
outl [kc], a	<b>SENDS INDIVIDUAL</b> bits for the control of devices.

<b>out&amp; [kc], a</b>	<b>CLEARs INDIVIDUAL bits to turn off the devices or reversal.</b>
<b>in  a, [kc]</b>	<b>RECEIVES INDIVIDUAL bits from other devices (which in turn receives bits from users).</b>
<b>in&amp; a, [kc]</b>	<b>CLEARs the received individual bits.</b>
<b>in^ a, [kc]</b>	<b>DOES not take an input if two inputs are same.</b>

**NOTE:** All the above instructions are **ONLY RESTRICTED TO I/O channels**. The **ONLY BOOLEAN OPERATION** for the **memory and accumulator** is represented below:

1. **and a, [k]**

## 2.12. Shadow Registers:

These are the registers in the memory which are placed **after the primary registers**.

<u>Register</u>	<u>Memory Location</u>	<u>Function</u>
A'	008	Used by <b>software if needed</b> .
B'	009	Used by <b>software if needed</b> .
LR'	00A	Used by <b>software for specific needs</b> .
00B	00B	There is no shadow register like <b>EB'</b> .
00C	000C	There is no shadow register like <b>FB'</b> .
PC'	00D	<b>Temporarily stores PC in case of an interrupt (will be explained in the next section).</b>
BB'	00E	Used by <b>software if needed</b> .
IR'	00F	<b>Temporarily stores IR in case of an interrupt (will be explained in the next section).</b>

## 2.13. Interrupts:

When **I/O devices** need **attention of the CPU** they can **INTERRUPT** normal execution. There is a **register called IR**, which **stores the value (or OPCODE) in the given PC**. When an **interrupt is caused**, the **PC at that point is copied into shadowed memory location PC'** and **IR is copied to IR'**. The **interrupt causes the PC to jump to some specified location (which depends on the type of an interrupt)**. "**iret**" instruction is used after the interrupt to **copy back the PC' and IR' into the respective PC and IR registers** so the **normal execution can continue**. So, the **PC' and IR'** from the **shadowed registers** are **automatically used by computer in case of an interrupt**. However, **OVERFLOW CONDITION FLAG** cannot be **saved or restored**. Therefore, **during an OVERFLOW**, the **interrupts will be DISABLED until the next STORE INSTRUCTION (which terminates the overflow)**.

## 2.14. Interrupt Instructions:

There are various instructions in AGC which can be used to **control the interrupts**.

<b>iret</b>	Used <b>after an interrupt</b> to <b>copy back</b> the <b>PC'</b> and <b>IR'</b> into <b>PC</b> and <b>IR</b> so that <b>normal execution of the code can continue</b> .
<b>int k</b>	<b>PAUSE interrupts in SOFTWARE</b> .
<b>cli</b>	<b>Enables INTERRUPT globally</b> .
<b>sti</b>	<b>Disables INTERRUPT globally</b> .

## 2.15. Instruction Encoding:

**Instruction Encoding** means representing entire INSTRUCTION as a BINARY VALUE. For example: In **ld a, [k]** instruction, the **FIRST THREE BITS** are **OPCODE** and represent **ld a**; and the **remaining bits (12 bits)** represent the **memory address [k] in binary**. Following this, we can **ONLY** have a total of **EIGHT** primary instructions as follows:

OPCODE	ADDRESS	INSTRUCTION
000	remaining memory address (12 bits)	call k
001	remaining memory address (12 bits)	ccs [k]
010	remaining memory address (12 bits)	inc [k]
011	remaining memory address (12 bits)	ld a, [k]
100	remaining memory address (12 bits)	ldc a, [k]
101	remaining memory address (12 bits)	ld [k], a
110	remaining memory address (12 bits)	add a, [k]
111	remaining memory address (12 bits)	and a, [k]

These are the only possible set of instructions if we use **FIRST THREE BITS** for **OPCODE**. The **ADDRESS ENCODING** helps in representing the remaining instructions:

- **RAM address always starts with 00.**
- **ROM address start with anything except 00.**

Going back to the table mentioned above,

1. The STORE INSTRUCTION (ld [k], a) is possible only on **RAM**. So the **next two bits after specified opcode** are filled with **00 (for RAM)**. And it has to be filled with the **remaining TEN address bits instead of TWELVE**. This makes room for another **THREE INSTRUCTIONS USING STORE OPCODE (101) in the beginning**. A set of **four instructions** can be represented in the following manner:

OPCODE	ADDRESS	INSTRUCTION
101	00 + 10 bits memory address.	INDEX (this will be explained later)
101	01 + 10 bits memory address.	xchg ab, [k]
101	10 + 10 bits memory address.	ld [k], a
101	11 + 10 bits memory address.	xchg a, [k]

2. Similarly, the INCREMENT instruction is also the **RAM only instruction**. This helps us to form **one more set of instructions in following manner**:

OPCODE	ADDRESS	INSTRUCTION
010	00 + 10 bits memory address.	add k, [ab]
010	01 + 10 bits memory address.	xchg b, [k]
010	10 + 10 bits memory address.	inc [k]
010	11 + 10 bits memory address.	add [k], a

3. Similarly, **CCS instruction** shares an **OPCODE** with **JUMP** which is **ROM only instruction**:

OPCODE	ADDRESS	INSTRUCTION
001	00 + 10 bits memory address.	ccs k
001	Any except 00 + 10 bits memory address.	jmp

4. Further, **jumps** to the bank registers aren't practically possible, so the **call opcode** is shared with **sti, cli, and EXTEND** instructions in following manner:

OPCODE	ADDRESS	INSTRUCTION
000	remaining memory address (12 bits)	call k
000	000000000010 (calls LR-002 on memory)	return
000	000000000011 (calls EB-003 on memory)	sti
000	000000000100 (calls FB-004 on memory)	cli
000	000000000110 (calls BB-006 on memory)	EXTEND

**HERE, EXTEND IS THE PREFIX WHICH IS CAPABLE TO CHANGE THE MEANING OF THE OPCODE OF NEXT INSTRUCTION, WHICH GIVES RISE TO A WHOLE NEW SET OF INSTRUCTIONS THAT CAN BE ENCODED.**

**NOTE:**

1. **INDEX ADDRESSING** is achieved by using INDEX PREFIX (in the 101-opcode group mentioned above). This consists of two instruction words as follows:
  - A. INDEX
  - B. `ld a, [k]`
 Represented in the following manner:

OPCODE	ADDRESS	INSTRUCTION
101	00 (only RAM)	INDEX
011	RAM or ROM	<code>ld a, [k]</code>

Hence, **INDEX** is an actual instruction. When the above-mentioned instructions are **executed together**, they are **equivalent to `ld a, [k1 + [k2]]`** instruction, where **k1- index address and k2- memory address**.

- If an **INTERRUPT** is generated while **indexing**, the **IR'** contains **effective instruction code** which can be **restored at the end of an interrupt handler**.

2. **"iret"- INDEX ENCODING WITH SPECIAL MEANING:**

- **"iret"** is used to **return to the original PC with the same OPCODE value when an INTERRUPT is generated**. This is done by **restoring the original OPCODE value from IR'** which uses the **principle of INDEX instruction**. Therefore, **both use the same OPCODE**.

OPCODE	ADDRESS	INSTRUCTION
101	00 (only RAM)	INDEX
101	000000001111 (for IR'-00F on memory)	<code>iret</code>

## 2.16. Unusual Features of AGC Architecture:

Considering the **memory constraints, limitations, and requirements** the architecture used in the AGC was undoubtedly one of the best in 1960s. However, there were some **unusual features** which makes the architecture questionable.

1. **One's complement** was used for the representation of negative numbers instead of **two's complement**. This was one of the main reasons behind the **overflows** caused while adding few numbers. Nevertheless, there was an extra bit in the accumulator to store an overflow flag which could be later resolved by adding or subtracting 1 based on the type of the overflow. But, the fact that overflow flag cannot be saved or disabled branches to various other loopholes.
2. It could have been possible to **save, disable, or interrupt** the overflow flag if the makers would have added a **static register for this function**.

3. **Store instruction** can skip a word under certain circumstances like an overflow.
4. **CCS instruction** can skip several words altogether and this can be dangerous when the instruction following the ccs is a **prefix**. (For example: **EXTEND** is one of the most important prefixes which is capable of changing the interpretation or meaning of the opcode while encoding another set of instructions except the first few primary instructions).
5. There are **special memory cells (four cells)** allocated for **shift and rotate function** which can be operated only while writing into them. There could have been **instructions for shift and rotate** which could have saved some memory (which was too limited).
6. Most of the **Boolean instruction** worked only on the **I/O channels** except the **and instruction** (which worked between the memory and accumulator).
7. **INDEX prefix or INDEXING in general** is done by adding the value to IR register. This causes an interrupt in the normal flow of execution because the **altered IR value** does not match the value of memory block which is pointed by PC. (Remember, IR register contains the value (opcode) of the memory cell which is represented by PC) But, indexing causes addition of different values in IR register which causes an interrupt. However, this was resolved by **restoring the primary value of IR** which was stored in **IR' register**. This primary value is stored back in IR after the indexing, so the normal flow of execution is continued.
8. **Stack** isn't provided in the architecture because of which **indexing** is used as and when needed. Moreover, **indexing** is also done by using a set of instructions.

## 2.17. Citation:

- O'Brien, Frank. "The Executive and Interpreter." *The Apollo Guidance Computer: Architecture and Operation*, Springer-Praxis, 2010.
- "Digital Apollo: Human and Machine in Six Lunar Landings." *Digital Apollo: Human and Machine in Six Lunar Landings*, by David A. Mindell, The MIT Press, 2008.
- "Chapter 10 Next-Generation---Block 2 (Architecture)." *Journey to the Moon: the History of the Apollo Guidance Computer*, by Eldon C. Hall, American Institute of Aeronautics and Astronautics, 1996, pp. 117–128.
- Tomayko, James. "The Apollo Guidance Computer." NASA, NASA, [www.history.nasa.gov/computers/Ch2-1.html](http://www.history.nasa.gov/computers/Ch2-1.html).
- Britannica, The Editors of Encyclopædia. "Apollo." *Encyclopædia Britannica*, Encyclopædia Britannica, Inc., 3 Aug. 2018, [www.britannica.com/science/Apollo-space-program](http://www.britannica.com/science/Apollo-space-program).
- Media.ccc.de, director. *The Ultimate Apollo Guidance Computer Talk. YouTube*, YouTube, 28 Dec. 2017, [www.youtube.com/watch?v=xx7Lfh5SKUQ](https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=xx7Lfh5SKUQ). From 5:50 to 28:10.