# CMSC 313 COMPUTER ORGANIZATION & ASSEMBLY LANGUAGE PROGRAMMING

Lecture 2, Fall 2014

## **TOPICS TODAY**

- Bits of Memory
- Data formats for negative numbers
- Modulo arithmetic & two's complement
- Floating point formats (briefly)
- Characters & strings

# **BITS OF MEMORY**

## Random Access Memory (RAM)

- A single byte of memory holds 8 binary digits (bits).
- Each byte of memory has its own address.
- A 32-bit CPU can address 4 gigabytes of memory, but a machine may have much less (e.g., 256MB).
- For now, think of RAM as one big array of bytes.
- The data stored in a byte of memory is not typed.
- The assembly language programmer must remember whether the data stored in a byte is a character, an unsigned number, a signed number, part of a multi-byte number, ...

## **Common Sizes for Data Types**

- A byte is composed of 8 bits. Two nibbles make up a byte.
- Halfwords, words, doublewords, and quadwords are composed of bytes as shown below:



Principles of Computer Architecture by M. Murdocca and V. Heuring

## **5.2 Instruction Formats**

- Byte ordering, or *endianness*, is another major architectural consideration.
- If we have a two-byte integer, the integer may be stored so that the least significant byte is followed by the most significant byte or vice versa.
  - In *little endian* machines, the least significant byte is followed by the most significant byte.
  - *Big endian* machines store the most significant byte first (at the lower address).

Big-endian systems store the most significant byte of a word in the smallest address and the least significant byte is stored in the largest address

Little-endian systems, in contrast, store the least significant byte in the smallest address.





### **5.2 Instruction Formats**

- As an example, suppose we have the hexadecimal number 12345678.
- The big endian and small endian arrangements of the bytes are shown below.

Address>	00	01	10	11
Big Endian	12	34	56	78
Little Endian	78	56	34	12

## **5.2 Instruction Formats**

- Big endian:
  - Is more natural.
  - The sign of the number can be determined by looking at the byte at address offset 0.
  - Strings and integers are stored in the same order.
- Little endian:
  - Makes it easier to place values on non-word boundaries.
  - Conversion from a 16-bit integer address to a 32-bit integer address does not require any arithmetic.

## **NEGATIVE NUMBERS**

## **SIGNED INTEGER FORMATS**

- Signed magnitude
- One's complement
- Two's complement
- Excess (biased)

## SIGNED MAGNITUDE

- Store sign in leftmost bit, 1 = negative
- Example (8-bits):

37 = 0010 0101-37 = 1010 0101

## **ONE'S COMPLEMENT**

- Negate by *flipping* each bit
- Example (8-bits):

 $37 = 0010 \ 0101$  $-37 = 1101 \ 1010$ 

## **TWO'S COMPLEMENT**

- Negate by flipping each bit and adding 1
- Example (8-bits):

 $37 = 0010 \ 0101$  $1101 \ 1010$ + 1

$$1101 \ 1011 = -37$$

## **EXCESS (BIASED)**

- Add bias to two's complement
- Example (8-bit excess 128):

### **Example: Convert -123**

#### Signed Magnitude

 $123_{10} = 64 + 32 + 16 + 8 + 2 + 1 = 0111 \ 1011_2$ -123<sub>10</sub> => 1111 \ 1011\_2

#### One's Complement (flip the bits)

 $-123_{10} \implies 1000 \ 0100_2$ 

#### Two's Complement (add 1 to one's complement)

 $-123_{10} \implies 1000 \ 0101_{2}$ 

#### • Excess 128 (add 128 to two's complement)

 $-123_{10} \implies 0000 \ 0101_{2}$ 

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# **PICKING A FORMAT**

How do you

- check for negative numbers?
- test if a number is zero?
- add & subtract positive & negative numbers?
- determine if an overflow has occurred?
- check if one number is larger than another?

*Implemented in hardware: simpler = better* 

#### **3-bit Signed Integer Representations**

Decimal	Unsigned	Sign Mag	1's Comp	2's Comp	Excess 4
7	111				
6	110				
5	101				
4	100				
3	011	011	011	011	111
2	010	010	010	010	110
1	001	001	001	001	101
0	000	000/100	000/111	000	100
-1		101	110	111	011
-2		110	101	110	010
-3		111	100	101	001
-4				100	000

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 Binary addition is as easy as it gets. You need to know only four rules:

> 0 + 0 = 0 0 + 1 = 11 + 0 = 1 1 + 1 = 10

- The simplicity of this system makes it possible for digital circuits to carry out arithmetic operations.
  - We will describe these circuits in Chapter 3.

# Let's see how the addition rules work with signed magnitude numbers . . .

- Example:
  - Using signed magnitude binary arithmetic, find the sum of 75 and 46.
- First, convert 75 and 46 to binary, and arrange as a sum, but separate the (positive) sign bits from the magnitude bits.
- $\begin{array}{ccc} 0 & 1001011 \\ 0 + 0101110 \end{array}$

- Example:
  - Using signed magnitude binary arithmetic, find the sum of 75 and 46.
- Once we have worked our way through all eight bits, we are done.

		1 1 1
0		1001011
0	+	0101110
0		1111001

In this example, we were careful to pick two values whose sum would fit into seven bits. If that is not the case, we have a problem.

- Example:
  - Using signed magnitude binary arithmetic, find the sum of 107 and 46.
- We see that the carry from the seventh bit overflows and is discarded, giving us the erroneous result: 107 + 46 = 25.



- The signs in signed magnitude representation work just like the signs in pencil and paper arithmetic.
  - Example: Using signed magnitude binary arithmetic, find the sum of - 46 and - 25.

			1	1				
1		0	1	0	1	1	1	0
1	+	0	0	1	1	0	0	1
1		1	0	0	0	1	1	1

 Because the signs are the same, all we do is add the numbers and supply the negative sign when we are done.

- Mixed sign addition (or subtraction) is done the same way.
  - Example: Using signed magnitude binary arithmetic, find the sum of 46 and - 25.

• The sign of the result gets the sign of the number that is larger.

– Note the "borrows" from the second and sixth bits.

- Signed magnitude representation is easy for people to understand, but it requires complicated computer hardware.
- Another disadvantage of signed magnitude is that it allows two different representations for zero: positive zero and negative zero.
- For these reasons (among others) computers systems employ *complement systems* for numeric value representation.

### 8-bit Two's Complement Addition

	$54_{10} = 0011$	0110	$44_{10} = 0010 1100$
+	$-48_{10} = 1101$	0000	$+ -48_{10} = 1101 \ 0000$
	$6_{10} = 0000$	0110	$-4_{10} = 1111 \ 1100$

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## **Two's Complement Overflow**

- An overflow occurs if adding two positive numbers yields a negative result or if adding two negative numbers yields a positive result.
- Adding a positive and a negative number never causes an overflow.
- Carry out of the most significant bit does not indicate an overflow.
- An overflow occurs when the carry into the most significant bit differs from the carry out of the most significant bit.

## **Two's Complement Overflow Examples**

	<b>162</b> <sub>10</sub>	≠	1010	0010
+	<b>108</b> <sub>10</sub>	Ξ	0110	1100
	<b>54</b> 10	=	0011	0110

	-10310	=	1001	1001
+	<b>-48</b> <sub>10</sub>	Ξ	1101	0000
	-15110	≠	0110	1001

## **Two's Complement Sign Extension**

Decimal	8-bit	16-bit
+5	0000 0101	0000 0000 0000 0101
-5	1111 1011	1111 1111 1111 1011

• Why does sign extension work?

-x is represented as 
$$2^8 - x$$
 in 8-bit  
-x is represented as  $2^{16} - x$  in 16-bit  
 $2^8 - x + ??? = 2^{16} - x$   
??? =  $2^{16} - 2^8$   
1 0000 0000 0000 = 65536  
- 1 0000 0000 = 256

 $1111 \ 1111 \ 0000 \ 0000 = 65280$ 

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# **MODULO ARITHMETIC**

## Is Two's Complement "Magic"?

- Why does adding positive and negative numbers work?
- Why do we add 1 to the one's complement to negate?

• Answer: Because modulo arithmetic works.

- Definition: Let a and b be integers and let m be a positive integer. We say that a ≡ b (mod m) if the remainder of a divided by m is equal to the remanider of b divided by m.
- In the C programming language,  $a \equiv b \pmod{m}$  would be written
  - a % m == b % m
- We use the theorem:

If  $a \equiv b \pmod{m}$  and  $c \equiv d \pmod{m}$ then  $a + c \equiv b + d \pmod{m}$ .

#### A Theorem of Modulo Arithmetic

**Thm:** If  $a \equiv b \pmod{m}$  and  $c \equiv d \pmod{m}$  then  $a + c \equiv b + d \pmod{m}$ .

Example: Let m = 8, a = 3, b = 27, c = 2 and d = 18.

$$3 \equiv 27 \pmod{8}$$
 and  $2 \equiv 18 \pmod{8}$ .  
 $5 \equiv 45 \pmod{8}$ .

**Proof:** Write  $a = q_a m + r_a$ ,  $b = q_b m + r_b$ ,  $c = q_c m + r_c$  and  $d = q_d m + r_d$ , where  $r_a$ ,  $r_b$ ,  $r_c$  and  $r_d$  are between 0 and m - 1. Then,

$$a + c = (q_a + q_c)m + r_a + r_c$$
  

$$b + d = (q_b + q_d)m + r_b + r_d = (q_b + q_d)m + r_a + r_c.$$
  
Thus,  $a + c \equiv r_a + r_c \equiv b + d \pmod{m}.$ 

#### Consider Numbers Modulo 256

	512	$\equiv$	256	$\equiv$	-256	$\equiv$	0	=	$000 \ 0000_2$	C
	513	$\equiv$	257	$\equiv$	-255	$\equiv$	1	=	000 0001 <sub>2</sub>	C
	514	$\equiv$	258	$\equiv$	-254	$\equiv$	2	=	$000 \ 0010_2$	C
a - (n * int(a/n)).	527	≡	271	≡	-241	≡	15	=	: 000 1111 <sub>2</sub> :	C
	639	$\equiv$	383	$\equiv$	-129	$\equiv$	127	=	111 1111 $_2$	C
	640	$\equiv$	384	$\equiv$	-128	$\equiv$	128	=	000 00002	1
									÷	
	655	≡	399	$\equiv$	-113	$\equiv$	143	=	000 1111 $_2$	1
	755	=	499	=	-13	=	243	=	: 111 0011 <sub>2</sub>	1
	767	≡	511	≡	-1	≡	255	=	: 111 1111 <sub>2</sub>	1

If  $0000\ 0000_2$  thru  $0111\ 1111_2$  represents 0 thru 127 and  $1000\ 0000_2$  thru  $1111\ 1111_2$  represents -128 thru -1, then the most significant bit can be used to determine the sign.

#### Some Answers

- In 8-bit two's complement, we use addition modulo 2<sup>8</sup> = 256, so adding 256 or subtracting 256 is equivalent to adding 0 or subtracting 0.
- To negate a number x,  $0 \le x \le 128$ :

$$-x = 0 - x \equiv 256 - x = (255 - x) + 1 = (1111\ 1111_2 - x) + 1$$

Note that 1111  $1111_2 - x$  is the one's complement of x.

• Now we can just add positive and negative numbers. For example:

$$3 + (-5) \equiv 3 + (256 - 5) = 3 + 251 = 254 \equiv 254 - 256 = -2$$

or two negative numbers (as long as there's no overflow):

$$(-3) + (-5) \equiv (256 - 3) + (256 - 5) = 504 \equiv 504 - 512 = -8.$$

# FLOATING POINT NUMBERS

 Floating-point numbers allow an arbitrary number of decimal places to the right of the decimal point.

- For example:  $0.5 \times 0.25 = 0.125$ 

- They are often expressed in scientific notation.
  - For example:

 $0.125 = 1.25 \times 10^{-1}$ 

 $5,000,000 = 5.0 \times 10^{6}$ 

- Computers use a form of scientific notation for floating-point representation
- Numbers written in scientific notation have three components:



• Computer representation of a floating-point number consists of three fixed-size fields:



• This is the standard arrangement of these fields.

Note: Although "significand" and "mantissa" do not technically mean the same thing, many people use these terms interchangeably. We use the term "significand" to refer to the fractional part of a floating point number.



- The one-bit sign field is the sign of the stored value.
- The size of the exponent field determines the range of values that can be represented.
- The size of the significand determines the precision of the representation.

## **IEEE-754 32-bit Floating Point Format**

- sign bit, 8-bit exponent, 23-bit mantissa
- normalized as 1.xxxxx
- leading 1 is hidden
- 8-bit exponent in excess 127 format
  - $\diamond$  NOT excess 128
  - $\diamond$  0000  $\,$  0000 and 1111  $\,$  1111 are reserved
- +0 and -0 is zero exponent and zero mantissa
- 1111 1111 exponent and zero mantissa is infinity

- Example: Express -3.75 as a floating point number using IEEE single precision.
- First, let's normalize according to IEEE rules:

$$-3.75 = -11.11_2 = -1.111 \times 2^1$$

The bias is 127, so we add 127 + 1 = 128 (this is our exponent)



Since we have an implied 1 in the significand, this equates to

 $-(1).111_2 \ge 2^{(128-127)} = -1.111_2 \ge 2^1 = -11.11_2 = -3.75.$ 

- Using the IEEE-754 single precision floating point standard:
  - An exponent of 255 indicates a special value.
    - If the significand is zero, the value is  $\pm$  infinity.
    - If the significand is nonzero, the value is NaN, "not a number," often used to flag an error condition.
- Using the double precision standard:
  - The "special" exponent value for a double precision number is 2047, instead of the 255 used by the single precision standard.

## **CHARACTERS & STRINGS**

- Calculations aren't useful until their results can be displayed in a manner that is meaningful to people.
- We also need to store the results of calculations, and provide a means for data input.
- Thus, human-understandable characters must be converted to computer-understandable bit patterns using some sort of character encoding scheme.

- As computers have evolved, character codes have evolved.
- Larger computer memories and storage devices permit richer character codes.
- The earliest computer coding systems used six bits.
- Binary-coded decimal (BCD) was one of these early codes. It was used by IBM mainframes in the 1950s and 1960s.

- In 1964, BCD was extended to an 8-bit code, Extended Binary-Coded Decimal Interchange Code (EBCDIC).
- EBCDIC was one of the first widely-used computer codes that supported upper and lowercase alphabetic characters, in addition to special characters, such as punctuation and control characters.
- EBCDIC and BCD are still in use by IBM mainframes today.

Chapter 2: Data Representation

	00	NUL	20	DS	40	SP	60	_	80		A0		C0	{	E0	\
	01	SOH	21	SOS	41		61	/	81	a	A1	$\sim$	C1	А	E1	
EDUDIU	02	STX	22	FS	42		62		82	b	A2	S	C2	В	E2	S
	03	ETX	23		43		63		83	c	A3	t	C3	С	E3	T
Charaotar	04	PF	24	BYP	44		64		84	d	A4	u	C4	D	E4	U
Character	05	HT	25	LF	45		65		85	e	A5	v	C5	E	E5	V
	06	LC	26	ETB	46		66		86	f	A6	W	C6	F	E6	W
Codo	07	DEL	27	ESC	47		67		87	g	A7	Х	C7	G	E7	X
Loue	08		28		48		68		88	h	A8	у	C8	Η	E8	Y
	09		29		49		69		89	i	A9	Z	C9	Ι	E9	Z
	0A	SMM	2A	SM	4A	¢	6A	•	8A		AA		CA		EA	
• EBCDIC is an 8-bit	0B	VT	2B	CU2	4B		6B	,	8B		AB		CB		EB	
	0C	FF	2C		4C	<	6C	%	8C		AC		CC		EC	
code.	0D	CR	2D	ENQ	4D	(	6D	_	8D		AD		CD		ED	
	0E	SO	2E	ACK	4E	+	6E	>	8E		AE		CE		EE	
	0F	SI	2F	BEL	4F	Ι	6F	?	8F		AF		CF		EF	
	10	DLE	30		50	&	70		90		B0		D0	}	F0	0
	11	DC1	31		51		71		91	j	B1		D1	J	F1	1
	12	DC2	32	SYN	52		72		92	k	B2		D2	Κ	F2	2
	13	TM	33		53		73		93	1	<b>B</b> 3		D3	L	F3	3
STV Start of taxt DS Deader Stop DC	14	RES	34	PN	54		74		94	m	B4		D4	Μ	F4	4
DLE Data Link Escape PF Punch Off DC	15	NL	35	RS	55		75		95	n	B5		D5	Ν	F5	5
BS Backspace DS Digit Select DC ACK Acknowledge PN Punch On CI	16	BS	36	UC	56		76		96	0	B6		D6	0	F6	6
SOH Start of Heading SM Set Mode CU	17	IL	37	EOT	57		77		97	р	B7		D7	Р	F7	7
ENQ Enquiry LC Lower Case CU ESC Escape CC Cursor Control SY	18	CAN	38		58		78		98	q	B8		D8	Q	F8	8
BYP Bypass CR Carriage Return IF	19	EM	39		59		79		99	r	B9		D9	R	F9	9
RES Restore FF Form Feed ET	1A	CC	3A		5A	!	7A	:	9A		BA		DA		FA	
SI Shift In TM Tape Mark NA	1B	CU1	3B	CU3	5B	\$	7B	#	9B		BB		DB		FB	
DEL Delete FS Field Separator SC	1C	IFS	3C	DC4	5C	•	7C	@	9C		BC		DC		FC	
SUB Substitute HT Horizontal Tab IG NL New Line VT Vertical Tab IR	1D	IGS	3D	NAK	5D	)	7D	'	9D		BD		DD		FD	
LF Line Feed UC Upper Case IU	1E	IRS	3E		5E	;	7E	=	9E		BE		DE		FE	
	1F	IUS	3F	SUB	5F	7	7F	"	9F		BF		DF		FF	

Principles of Computer Architecture by M. Murdocca and V. Heuring

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- Other computer manufacturers chose the 7-bit ASCII (American Standard Code for Information Interchange) as a replacement for 6-bit codes.
- While BCD and EBCDIC were based upon punched card codes, ASCII was based upon telecommunications (Telex) codes.
- Until recently, ASCII was the dominant character code outside the IBM mainframe world.

## **ASCII Character Code**

- ASCII is a 7-bit code, commonly stored in 8-bit bytes.
- "A" is at  $41_{16}$ . To convert upper case letters to lower case letters, add  $20_{16}$ . Thus "a" is at  $41_{16}$  +  $20_{16} = 61_{16}$ .
- The character "5" at position  $35_{16}$  is different than the number 5. To convert character-numbers into number-numbers, subtract  $30_{16}$ :  $35_{16}$   $30_{16}$  = 5.

00 NUL	10 DLE	20	SP	30	0	40	@	50	Р	60	`	70	р	
01 SOH	11 DC1	21	!	31	1	41	А	51	Q	61	а	71	q	
02 STX	12 DC2	22	"	32	2	42	В	52	R	62	b	72	r	
03 ETX	13 DC3	23	#	33	3	43	С	53	S	63	с	73	S	
04 EOT	14 DC4	24	\$	34	4	44	D	54	Т	64	d	74	t	
05 ENQ	15 NAK	25	%	35	5	45	E	55	U	65	e	75	u	
06 ACK	16 SYN	26	&	36	6	46	F	56	V	66	f	76	v	
07 BEL	17 ETB	27	1	37	7	47	G	57	W	67	g	77	W	
08 BS	18 CAN	28	(	38	8	48	Η	58	Х	68	h	78	Х	
09 HT	19 EM	29	)	39	9	49	Ι	59	Y	69	i	79	у	
0A LF	1A SUB	2A	*	3A	:	4A	J	5A	Ζ	6A	j	7A	Z	
0B VT	1B ESC	2B	+	3B	;	4B	Κ	5B	[	6B	k	7B	{	
0C FF	1C FS	2C	,	3C	<	4C	L	5C	\	6C	1	7C	1	
0D CR	1D GS	2D	-	3D	=	4D	Μ	5D	]	6D	m	7D	}	
0E SO	1E RS	2E		3E	>	4E	Ν	5E	۸	6E	n	7E	$\sim$	
OF SI	1F US	2F	/	3F	?	4F	0	5F	_	6F	0	7F	DEL	
								•						
NUL Nul	1		FF	FF Form feed						CAN Cancel				
SOH Star	t of headin	g	CR	Ca	rriage	e retui	n			EM	End o	of med	lium	
STX Star	t of text		SO	Sh	ift ou	t				SUB	Subst	itute		
ETX End	l of text		SI	Sh	ift in					ESC	Escap	be		
EOT End	l of transmi	ssion	DL	E Da	ata lin	k esca	ape			FS	File s	eparat	tor	
ENQ Enq	uiry		DC	1 De	evice of	contro	ol 1			GS	Group	p sepa	rator	
ACK Ack	nowledge		DC	2 De	evice of	contro	ol 2			RS	Reco	rd sep	arator	
BEL Bell	l		DC	3 De	evice of	contro	ol 3			US	Unit s	separa	tor	
BS Bac	kspace		DC	4 De	evice of	contro	ol 4			SP	Space	e		
HT Hor	izontal tab		NA	K Ne	egativ	e acki	nowle	dge		DEL	Delete			
LF Line	e feed		SY	N Sy	nchro	nous								
VT Ver	rtical tab ETB End of transmission block													

- Many of today's systems embrace Unicode, a 16bit system that can encode the characters of every language in the world.
  - The Java programming language, and some operating systems now use Unicode as their default character code.
- The Unicode codespace is divided into six parts. The first part is for Western alphabet codes, including English, Greek, and Russian.

- The Unicode codespace allocation is shown at the right.
- The lowest-numbered Unicode characters comprise the ASCII code.
- The highest provide for user-defined codes.

Character Types	Language	Number of Characters	Hexadecimal Values		
Alphabets	Latin, Greek, Cyrillic, etc.	8192	0000 to 1FFF		
Symbols	Dingbats, Mathematical, etc.	4096	2000 to 2FFF		
СЈК	Chinese, Japanese, and Korean phonetic symbols and punctuation.	4096	3000 to 3FFF		
Han	Unified Chinese, Japanese, and Korean	40,960	4000 to DFFF		
	Han Expansion	4096	E000 to EFFF		
User Defined		4095	F000 to FFFE		

Chapter 2: Data Representation

Unicode
Character
Code

2-33																	
	0000 NUI	. 0020	SP	0040	@	0060	`	0080	Ctrl	00A0	NBS	00C0	À	00E0	à		
	0001 SOF	0021	!	0041	А	0061	а	0081	Ctrl	00A1	i	00C1	Á	00E1	á		
	0002 STX	0022	"	0042	В	0062	b	0082	Ctrl	00A2	¢	00C2	Â	00E2	â		
	0003 ETX	0023	#	0043	С	0063	с	0083	Ctrl	00A3	£	00C3	Ã	00E3	ã		
linicode	0004 EOT	0024	\$	0044	D	0064	d	0084	Ctrl	00A4	¤	00C4	Ä	00E4	ä		
Unicouc	0005 ENC	0025	$\tilde{\%}$	0045	Ē	0065	e	0085	Ctrl	00A5	¥	00C5	Å	00E5	å		
	0006 ACI	x 0026	&	0046	F	0066	f	0086	Ctrl	00A6	ļ	00C6	Æ	00E6	æ		
Charastar	0007 BEL	0027	'	0047	G	0067	g	0087	Ctrl	00A7	§	00C7	С	00E7	c		
Character	0008 BS	0028	(	0048	H	0068	ĥ	0088	Ctrl	00A8		00C8	È	00E8	è		
	0009 HT	0029	)	0049	Ι	0069	i	0089	Ctrl	00A9	©	00C9	É	00E9	é		
<b>-</b> -	000A LF	002A	*	004A	J	006A	i	008A	Ctrl	00AA	<u>a</u>	00CA	Ê	00EA	ê		
Codo	000B VT	002B	+	004B	Κ	006B	k	008B	Ctrl	00AB	«	00CB	Ë	00EB	ë		
Loue	000C FF	002C	,	004C	L	006C	1	008C	Ctrl	00AC	٦	00CC	Ì	00EC	ì		
	000D CR	002D	-	004D	М	006D	m	008D	Ctrl	00AD	_	00CD	Í	00ED	í		
	000E SO	002E		004E	Ν	006E	n	008E	Ctrl	00AE	R	00CE	Î	00EE	î		
	000F SI	002F	/	004F	0	006F	0	008F	Ctrl	00AF	-	00CF	Ï	00EF	ï		
	0010 DLE	0030	0	0050	Р	0070	р	0090	Ctrl	00B0	0	00D0	Ð	00F0	ſ		
	0011 DC1	0031	1	0051	Q	0071	q	0091	Ctrl	00B1	±	00D1	Ñ	00F1	ñ		
	0012 DC2	0032	2	0052	Ŕ	0072	r	0092	Ctrl	00B2	2	00D2	Ò	00F2	ò		
	0013 DC3	0033	3	0053	S	0073	S	0093	Ctrl	00B3	3	00D3	Ó	00F3	ó		
	0014 DC4	0034	4	0054	Т	0074	t	0094	Ctrl	00B4	1	00D4	Ô	00F4	ô		
	0015 NAI	K 0035	5	0055	U	0075	u	0095	Ctrl	00B5	μ	00D5	Õ	00F5	õ		
Unicode is a 16-	0016 SYN	0036	6	0056	V	0076	v	0096	Ctrl	00B6	ŗ	00D6	Ö	00F6	ö		
	0017 ETB	0037	7	0057	W	0077	W	0097	Ctrl	00B7	•	00D7	×	00F7	÷		
bit code.	0018 CAN	1 0038	8	0058	Х	0078	х	0098	Ctrl	00B8	×	00D8	Ø	00F8	ø		
	0019 EM	0039	9	0059	Y	0079	у	0099	Ctrl	00B9	1	00D9	Ù	00F9	ù		
	001A SUE	003A	:	005A	Ζ	007A	Z	009A	Ctrl	00BA	<u>o</u>	00DA	Ú	00FA	ú		
	001B ESC	003B	;	005B	[	007B	{	009B	Ctrl	00BB	»	00DB	Û	00FB	û		
	001C FS	003C	<	005C	\	007C	Ι	009C	Ctrl	00BC	1/4	00DC	Ü	00FC	ü		
	001D GS	003D	=	005D	]	007D	}	009D	Ctrl	00BD	1/2	00DD	Ý	00FD	Þ		
	001E RS	003E	>	005E	٨	007E	$\sim$	009E	Ctrl	00BE	3/4	00DE	ý	00FE	þ		
	001F US	003F	?	005F	_	007F	DEL	009F	Ctrl	00BF	i	00DF	S	00FF	ÿ		
	NUL Null	•	S	OH Sta	art of h	eading		C	AN C	ancel		SP	Sp	ace			
	STX Star	t of text	E	EOT End of transmission					M E	nd of m	nedium	n DEI	De	elete			
	ETX End	D	C1 De	1 Device control 1					ubstitut	e	Ctrl	Co	ontrol				
	ENQ Enq	uiry	D	C2 De	2 Device control 2 H					scape		FF	Fo	rm feed			
	ACK Ack	nowledge	e D	C3 De	Device control 3					File separator CR Carriage return					eturn		
	BEL Bell	0	D	C4 De	Device control 4 GS					Group separator SO Shift out							
	BS Bac	BS Backspace NAK N					egative acknowledge RS					Record separator SI Shift in					
	HT Hor	izontal ta	b N	> NBS Non-breaking space U						nit sepa	arator	DLE	E Da	ta link e	escape		
	LF Line	feed	E	ГВ Еп	d of tr	ansmiss	ion bl	ock SY	YN S	ynchror	nous ic	lle VT	Ve	rtical ta	b		
Principles of Computer Architecture by M. Murc	occa and \	. Heurin	g							(	0 1999	9 M. Mu	irdoc	ca and	V. Heu	uring	

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## **MEMORY HAS NO TYPE!**

A single byte in memory might be

- a character
- an unsigned number
- a signed number
- part of a multi-byte integer in little endian
- part of a multi-byte integer in big endian
- part of a multi-byte floating point number

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## NEXT TIME

- Basic Intel i-386 architecture
- "Hello World" in Linux assembly
- Addressing modes