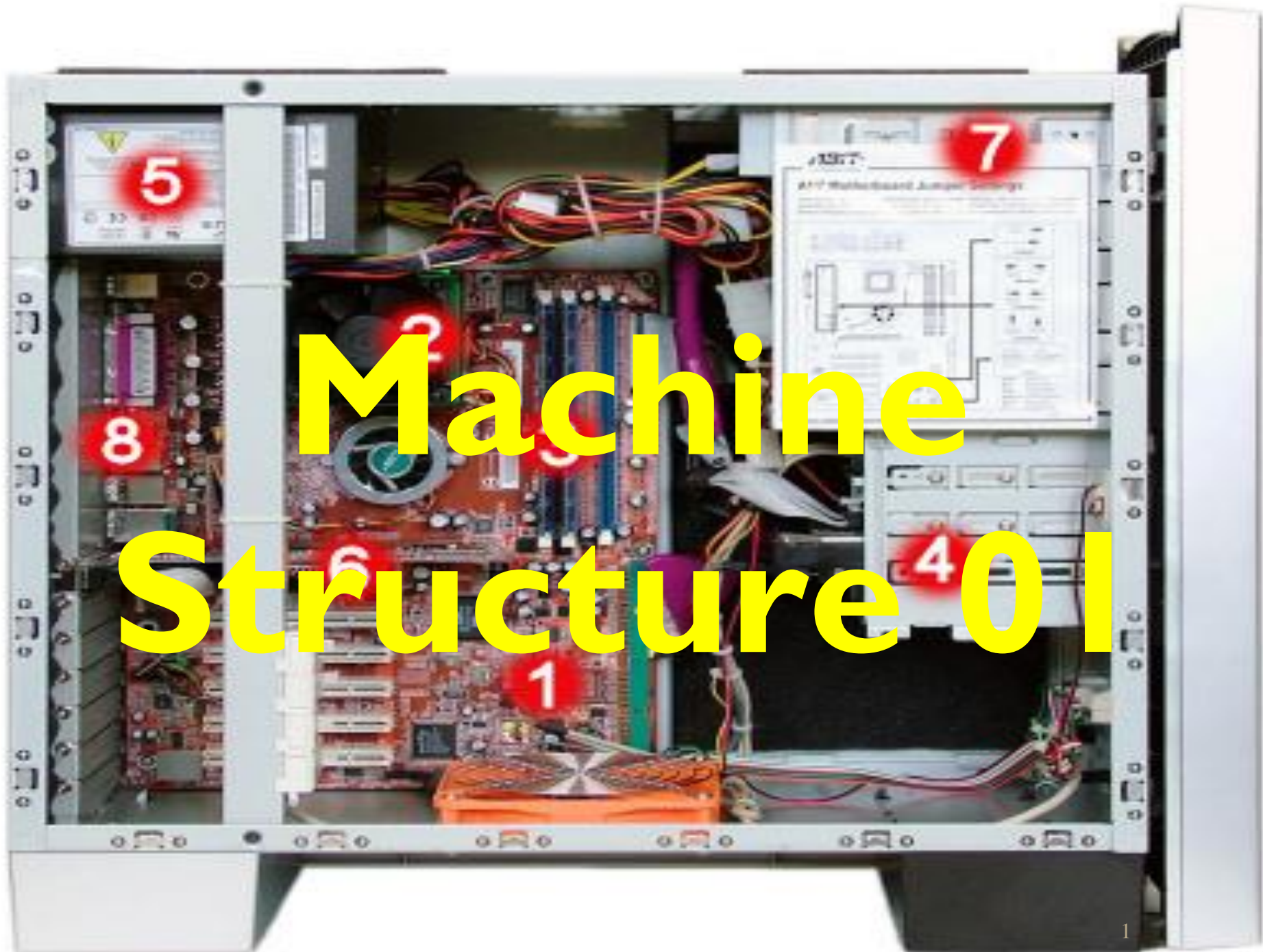
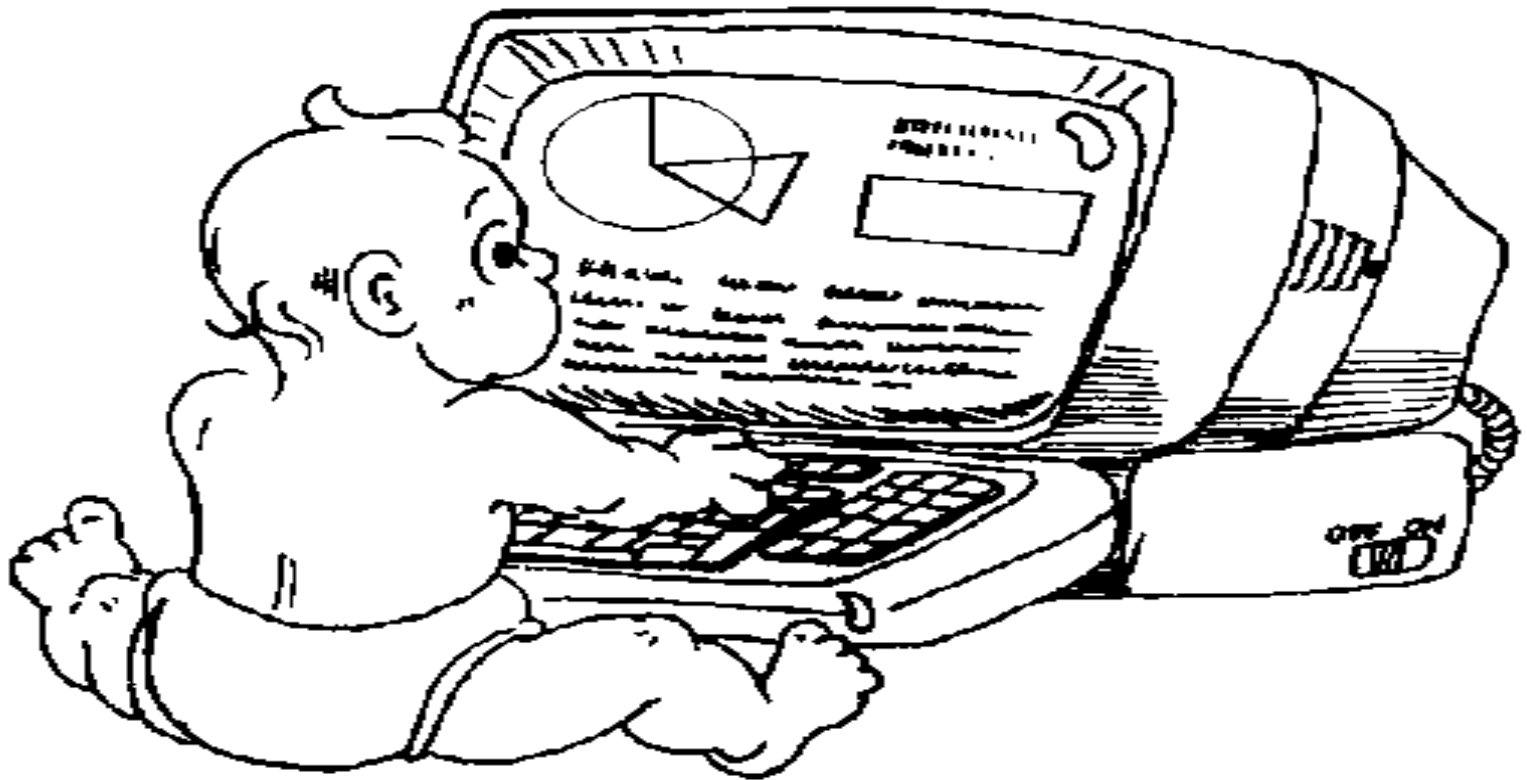


Machine Structure 01



Aim of this course

- **Not to turn you into machine structure experts**
- **Rather, to give you a general knowledge and tools for your future profession!**



Chapter 01

Number systems and information representation

Number systems and information representation

- Introduction
- Decimal system
- Binary, octal and hexadecimal systems
- Converting from one numbering system to another
- Arithmetic operations in binary, octal and hexadecimal
- Floating-point numbers
- Character coding

• **If you don't understand something...**



Don't hesitate to speak up!

Objectives of the chaptre

- Understanding what a numbering system is.
- Learn how to convert from one system to another.
- A Learn to perform arithmetic operations in binary.

Introduction

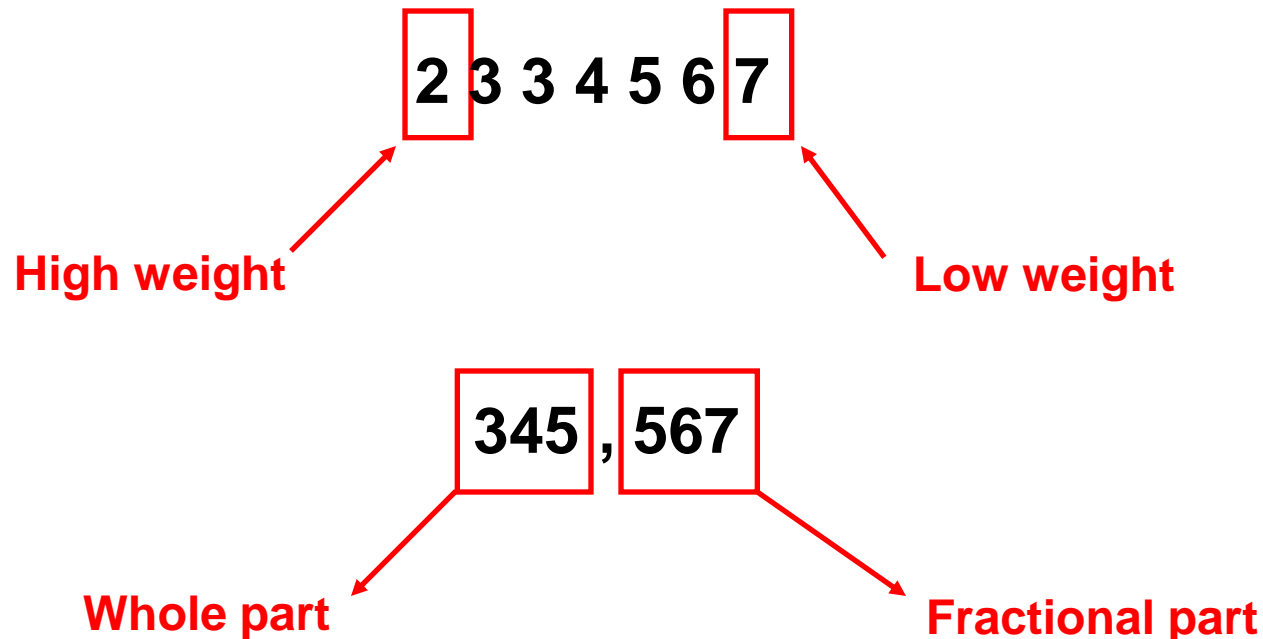
- We have become accustomed to representing numbers using ten different symbols : **0 , 1 , 2 , 3 , 4 , 5 , 6 , 7 , 8 , 9**
- This system is called the **decimal** system (**deci** means ten).
- There are, however, other forms of numeration for machine that operate using a number of distinct symbols.

Example :

- **binary** system (**bi** : two),
- **octal** system (**oct** : eight),
- **hexadecimal** system (**hexa** : sixteen).
- In fact, any number of different symbols can be used (not necessarily numbers; letters can be used).
- In a numeration system: the number of distinct symbols is called **the base** of the numeration system..

Decimal system

- Ten different symbols (numbers) are used : **0 , 1 , 2 , 3 , 4 , 5 , 6 , 7 , 8 , 9**
- Any combination of the symbols **0 , 1 , 2 , 3 , 4 , 5 , 6 , 7 , 8 , 9** gives us a number.
- **Example :**



Polynomial expansion of a number in the decimal system

- Given the number 1978, this number can be written in the following form:

$$1978 = 1000 + 900 + 70 + 8$$

$$1978 = 1 * 1000 + 9 * 100 + 7 * 10 + 8 * 1$$

$$1978 = 1 * 10^3 + 9 * 10^2 + 7 * 10^1 + 8 * 10^0$$

This form is called **the polynomial form**.

A **real number** can also be written in **polynomial form**

$$1978,265 = 1 * 10^3 + 9 * 10^2 + 7 * 10^1 + 8 * 10^0 + 2 * 10^{-1} + 6 * 10^{-2} + 5 * 10^{-3}$$

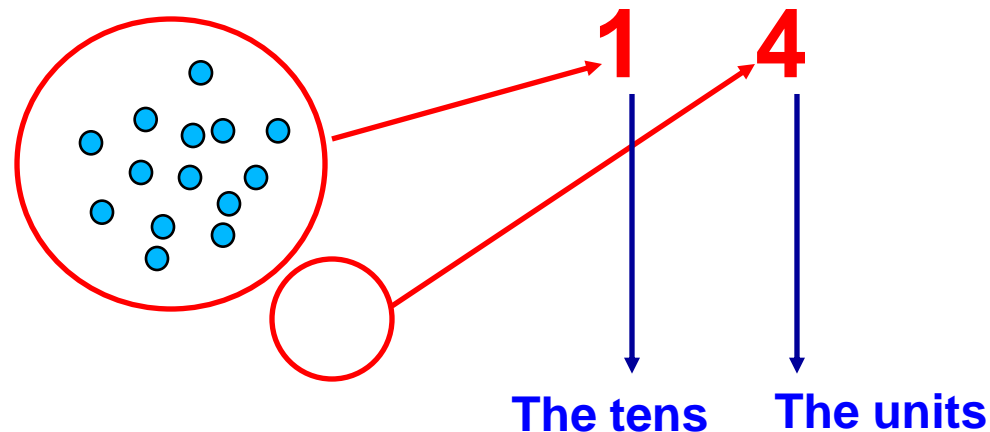
Decimal counting

- On a **single** position : **0 , 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, ..., 9 = $10^1 - 1$**
- On **two** positions : **00 , 01, 02, ..., 99 = $10^2 - 1$**
- On **three** positions : **000, 001, ..., 999 = $10^3 - 1$**
- On **n** positions :
 - minimum 0
 - maximum $10^n - 1$
 - number of combinations 10^n

Binary system (base-2 system)

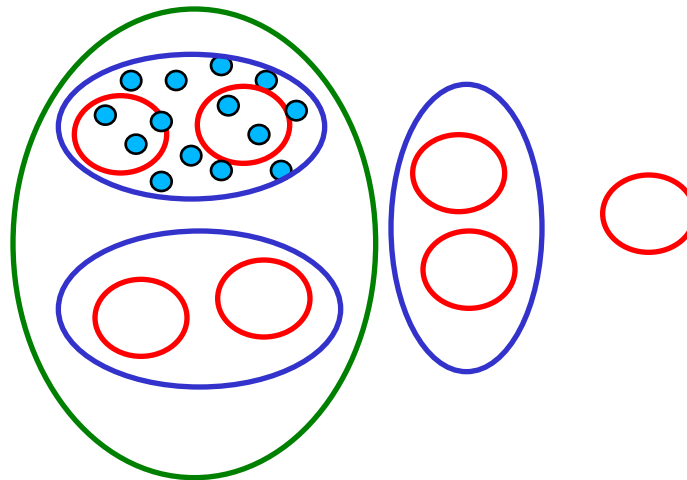
An illustrative example

- Let's suppose we have 14 tokens.
- If we form groups of 10 tokens.
- We'll get only 1 group of 10 and have 4 tokens left..



We still have 14 tokens

- Now we're going to form groups of 2 tokens: **we get 7 groups**
- The 7 groups are then grouped 2 by 2 to form **3 groups**.
- These are also grouped 2 by 2 : **we obtain only 1 group**



Number of tokens remaining outside the groups : **0**

Number of groups containing **2** tokens : **1**

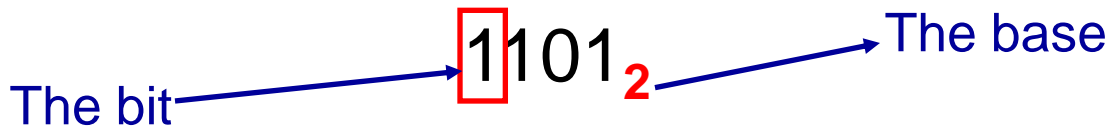
Number of groups containing **2** groups of **2** tokens : **1**

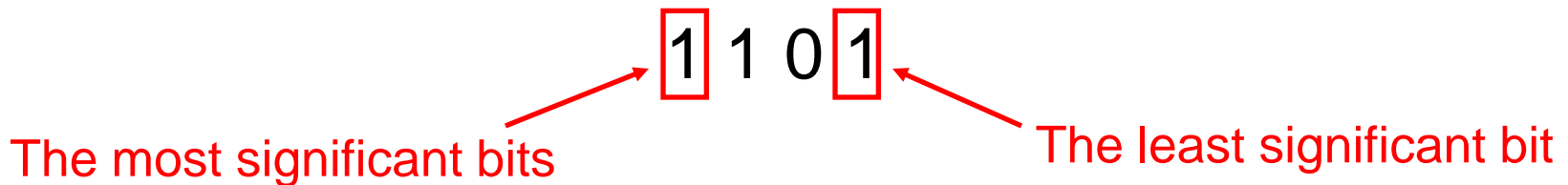
Number of groups containing groups of **2** groups of **4** tokens : **1**

If we combine the various figures, we obtain : 1110
1110 is the representation of 14 in base 2

Binary system

- In the binary system, **only 2 symbols** are used to express any value: **0** and **1**.

The bit  **1101**₂ The base

 **1** 1 0 **1** The most significant bits The least significant bit

A number in **base 2** can also be written in **polynomial form** :

$$1110_2 = 1*2^3 + 1*2^2 + 1*2^1 + 0*2^0$$

$$1110,101_2 = 1*2^3 + 1*2^2 + 1*2^1 + 0*2^0 + 1*2^{-1} + 0*2^{-2} + 1*2^{-3}$$

Binary counting

- On a **single bit** : 0 , 1
- On **2 bits** : 4 combinations = 2^2
- On **3 Bits** : 8 combinations = 2^3

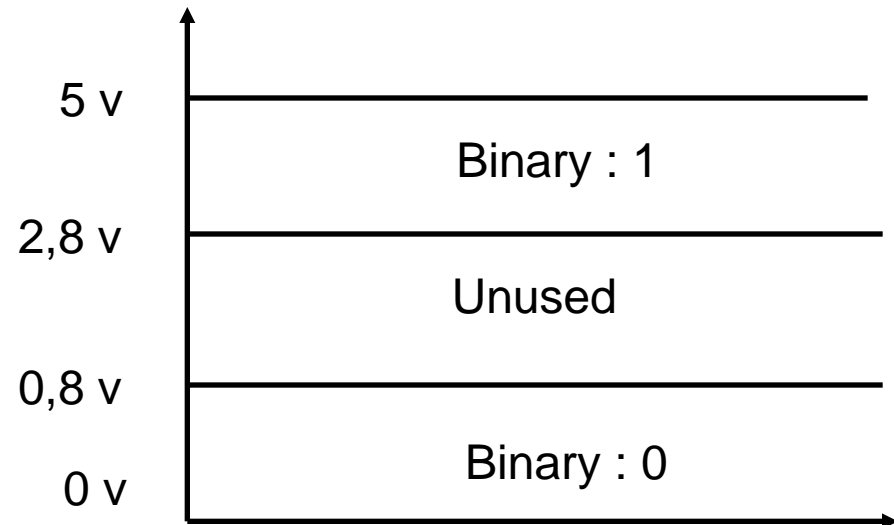
Binary	Decimal
00	0
01	1
10	2
11	3

Binary	Decimal
000	0
001	1
010	2
011	3
100	4
101	5
110	6
111	7

What is the system used in digital devices ?

- . Digital machines use the **binary system**.
- . In the binary system: only **2 symbols** are used: **0** and **1**.
- . It's easy to **represent these two symbols** in digital machines.
- . The 0 and 1 are represented by **two voltages**.

Binary	Voltage
0	0 V
1	5 V



The octal system (base 8)

- Eight (08) symbols are used in this system :

0 , 1 , 2 , 3 , 4 , 5 , 6 , 7

Example 1 :

$$127_8 = 1 \cdot 8^2 + 2 \cdot 8^1 + 7 \cdot 8^0$$

$$127,65_8 = 1 \cdot 8^2 + 2 \cdot 8^1 + 7 \cdot 8^0 + 6 \cdot 8^{-1} + 5 \cdot 8^{-2}$$

Example 2 :

The number (**1289**) does not exist in base 8, since symbols **8** and **9** do not belong to base 8.

The hexadecimal system (base 16)

- Sixteen (16) different symbols are used in this system :

Example :

$$\mathbf{BAC}_{16} = \mathbf{B} * 16^2 + \mathbf{A} * 16^1 + \mathbf{C} * 16^0$$

$$\mathbf{FAC}_{16} = \mathbf{F} * 16^2 + \mathbf{A} * 16^1 + \mathbf{C} * 16^0$$

Decimal	Hexadecimal
0	0
1	1
2	2
3	3
4	4
5	5
6	6
7	7
8	8
9	9
10	A
11	B
12	C
13	D
14	E
15	F

Summary

- In a **base X** : **X distinct symbols** are used to represent numbers..
- The value of each symbol must be strictly less than the **base X**.
- Each number in a **base X** can be written in its polynomial form.

Converting base X to base 10

- This conversation is quite simple since you just have to do the **polynomial expansion** of this number in the **base X**, and do **the sum** afterwards..

Example :

$$\mathbf{A3C}_{16} = 10 \cdot 16^2 + 3 \cdot 16^1 + 12 \cdot 16^0 = \mathbf{2620}_{10}$$

$$\mathbf{101}_2 = 1 \cdot 2^2 + 0 \cdot 2^1 + 1 \cdot 2^0 = \mathbf{5}_{10}$$

$$\mathbf{43}_5 = 4 \cdot 5^1 + 3 \cdot 5^0 = \mathbf{23}_{10}$$

Exercise

- Perform the following transformations to base 10 ?

$$(123)_6 = (?)_{10}$$

$$(45,76)_8 = (?)_{10}$$

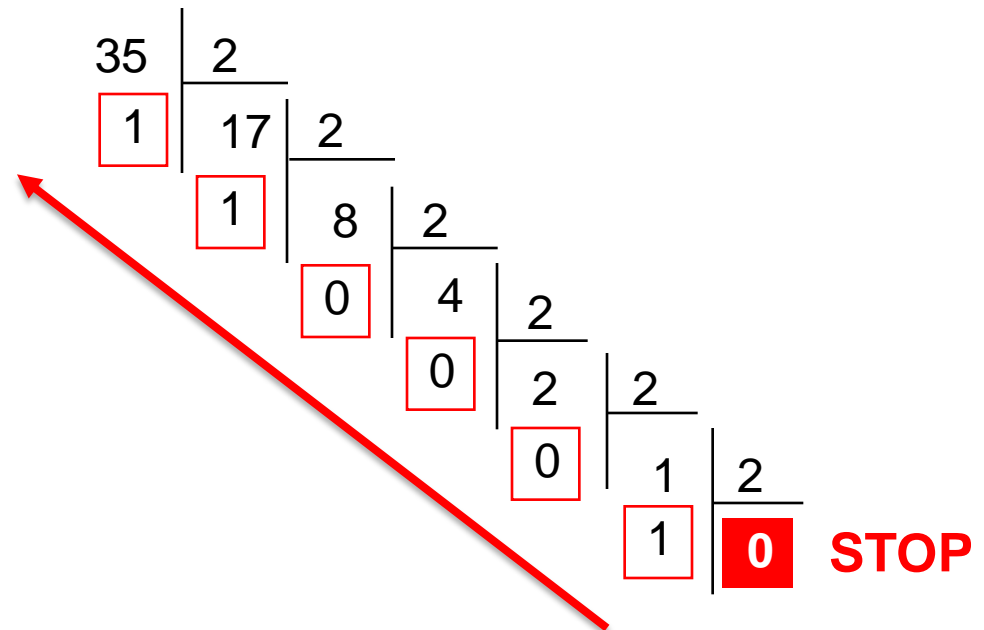
$$(1100,11)_2 = (?)_{10}$$

$$(1ABC)_{16} = (?)_{10}$$

Converting from base 10 to base 2

The principle is to make **successive divisions** of the number by 2 until a **quotient of zero** is obtained, and take the remainders of the divisions in **reverse order**.

Example 1 : $(35)_{10} = (?)_2$



A After division, we obtain :
 $(35)_{10} = (100011)_2$

Converting from base 10 to base 2 : case of a real number

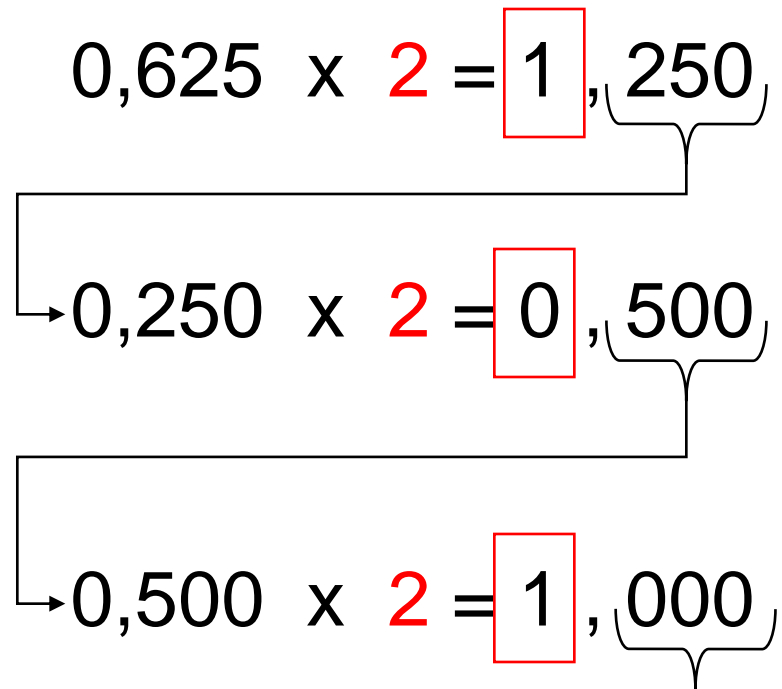
- A real number is made up of two parts: **the integer part** and **the fractional part**. We treat each part separately.
- **The integer part** is transformed **by successive divisions by 2**.
- **The fractional part** is transformed **by successive multiplication by 2**.

Converting from base 10 to base 2 : case of a real number

Example : $35,625 = (?)_2$

I.P = 35 = $(100011)_2$

F.P = 0,625 = $(?)_2$



STOP

Result : $35,625 = (100011,101)_2$

$(0,625) = (0,101)_2$

Converting from base 10 to base 2 : case of a real number

$$(0,6)_{10} = (?)_2$$

$$0,6 * 2 = 1,2$$

$$0,2 * 2 = 0,4$$

$$0,4 * 2 = 0,8$$

$$0,8 * 2 = 1,6$$



$$(0,6) = (0,1001)_2$$

Note :

The number of bits after the decimal point will determine precision.

Exercise :

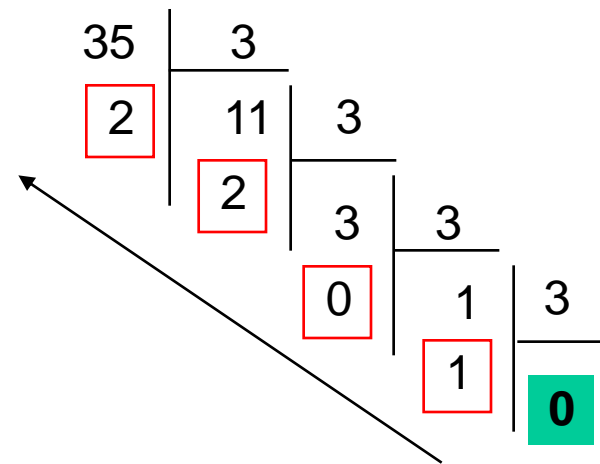
Perform the following transformations : $(23,65) = (?)_2$

$(18,190) = (?)_2$

Converting from decimal to base X

- The conversion is done by taking the remainders of **successive divisions** on the **base X** in the opposite direction

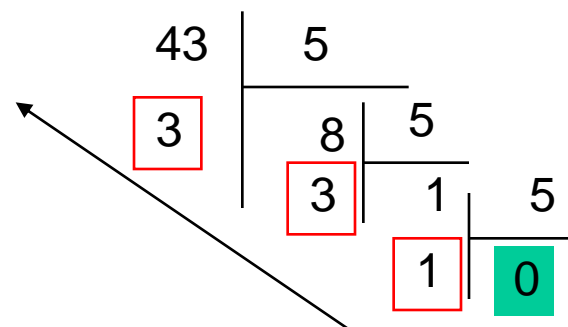
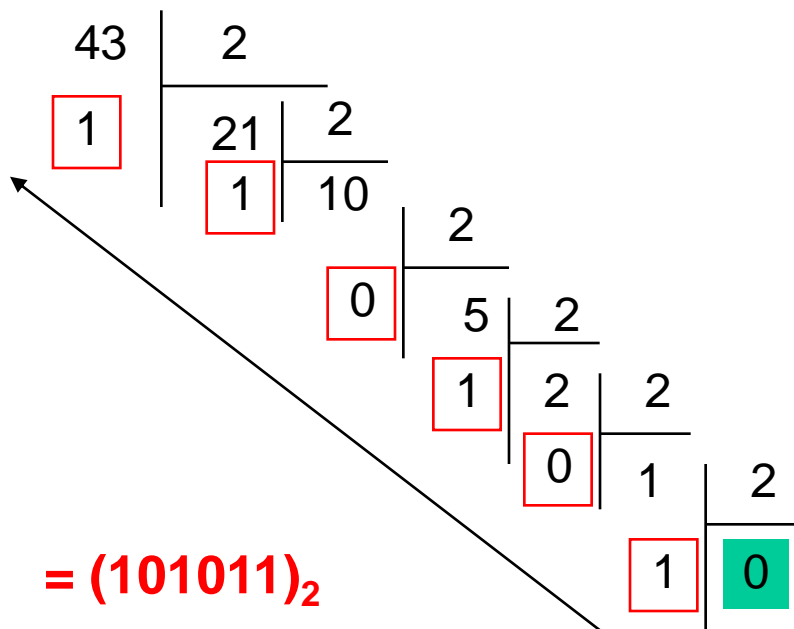
Example : $35 = (?)_3$



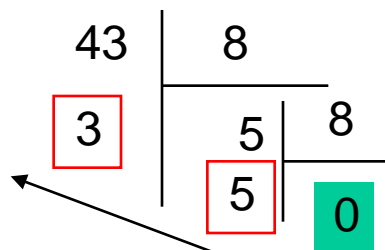
So : $35 = (10220)_3$

- Question :** Perform the following transformations :

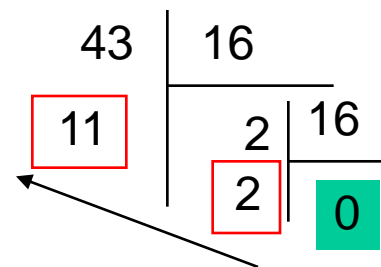
$$(43)_{10} = (?)_2 = (?)_5 = (?)_8 = (?)_{16}$$



= (133)₅



= (53)₈



= (2B)₁₆

Conversion : hexadecimal \rightarrow binary

- Each symbol of the **Hexadecimal** base is written on **4 bits in binary**
- The basic idea is to replace each **Hexadecimal** symbol by its **4-bit binary** value (**16 = 2⁴**)

$$0_{16} \rightarrow 0000_2$$

$$1_{16} \rightarrow 0001_2$$

$$2_{16} \rightarrow 0010_2$$

$$3_{16} \rightarrow 0011_2$$

$$4_{16} \rightarrow 0100_2$$

$$5_{16} \rightarrow 0101_2$$

$$6_{16} \rightarrow 0110_2$$

$$7_{16} \rightarrow 0111_2$$

$$8_{16} \rightarrow 1000_2$$

$$9_{16} \rightarrow 1001_2$$

$$A_{16} \rightarrow 1010_2$$

$$B_{16} \rightarrow 1011_2$$

$$C_{16} \rightarrow 1100_2$$

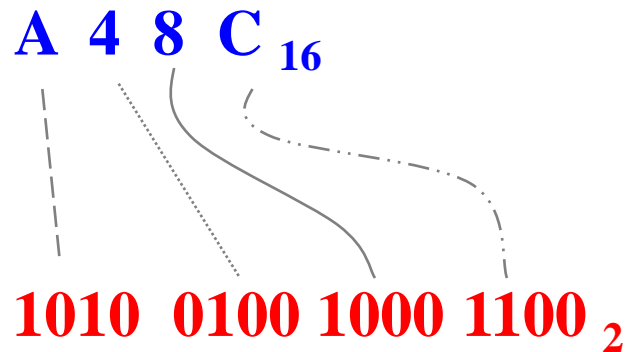
$$D_{16} \rightarrow 1101_2$$

$$E_{16} \rightarrow 1110_2$$

$$F_{16} \rightarrow 1111_2$$

Conversion : hexadecimal \rightarrow binary

Replace each **hexadecimal digit** with its **binary equivalent** (in 4 digits) :



Note : we can remove the 0 at the beginning of the number

Example : $39D_{16} =$ ~~X~~ 11 1001 1101₂

$$(345B)_{16} = (\underline{0011} \ \underline{0100} \ \underline{0101} \ \underline{1011})_2$$

$$(AB3,4F6)_{16} = (\underline{1010} \ \underline{1011} \ \underline{0011} \ , \ \underline{0100} \ \underline{1111} \ \underline{0110})_2$$

Conversion : binary → hexadecimal

- The basic idea is to make **groupings of 4 bits** starting from the least significant (**starting from the end of the number**).
- Then **replace each grouping** with the corresponding **Hexadecimal** value.

$$\begin{array}{cccc} \underline{1010} & \underline{0100} & \underline{1000} & \underline{1100}_2 \\ \text{A} & 4 & 8 & \text{C} \end{array}$$

$$1010010010001100_2 = \text{A48C}_{16}$$

Note :

Grouping is from right to left for the integer part and from left to right for the fractional part

Conversion : binary \rightarrow hexadecimal

Example : $\begin{array}{ccc} \underline{0011} & \underline{1001} & \underline{1011} \\ 3 & 9 & B \end{array}_2$

$$1110011011_2 = 39B_{16}$$

Example :

$$(11001010100110)_2 = (\underline{0011} \ \underline{0010} \ \underline{1010} \ \underline{0110})_2 = (32A6)_{16}$$

$$(110010100,10101)_2 = (\underline{0001} \ \underline{1001} \ \underline{0100}, \underline{1010} \ \underline{1000})_2 = (194,A8)_{16}$$

Conversion : octal → binary

- Each **symbol in the octal base** is written on **3 bits in binary**.
- The basic idea is to replace each **symbol in the octal base** with its value **in 3-bit binary** ($8 = 2^3$).

Octal	Binary
0	000
1	001
2	010
3	011
4	100
5	101
6	110
7	111

Examples :

$$(345)_8 = (\underline{011} \ \underline{100} \ \underline{101})_2$$

$$(65,76)_8 = (\underline{110} \ \underline{101}, \ \underline{111} \ \underline{110})_2$$

$$(35,34)_8 = (\underline{011} \ \underline{101}, \ \underline{011} \ \underline{100})_2$$

Conversion : binary \rightarrow Octal

- The basic idea is to group 3 bits together starting from the least significant bit.
- Then replace each grouping with the corresponding octal value.

Example :

$$(11001010010110)_2 = (\underline{011} \ \underline{001} \ \underline{010} \ \underline{010} \ \underline{110})_2 = (31226)_8$$

$$(110010100,10101)_2 = (\underline{110} \ \underline{010} \ \underline{100} \ , \ \underline{101} \ \underline{010})_2 = (624,52)_8$$

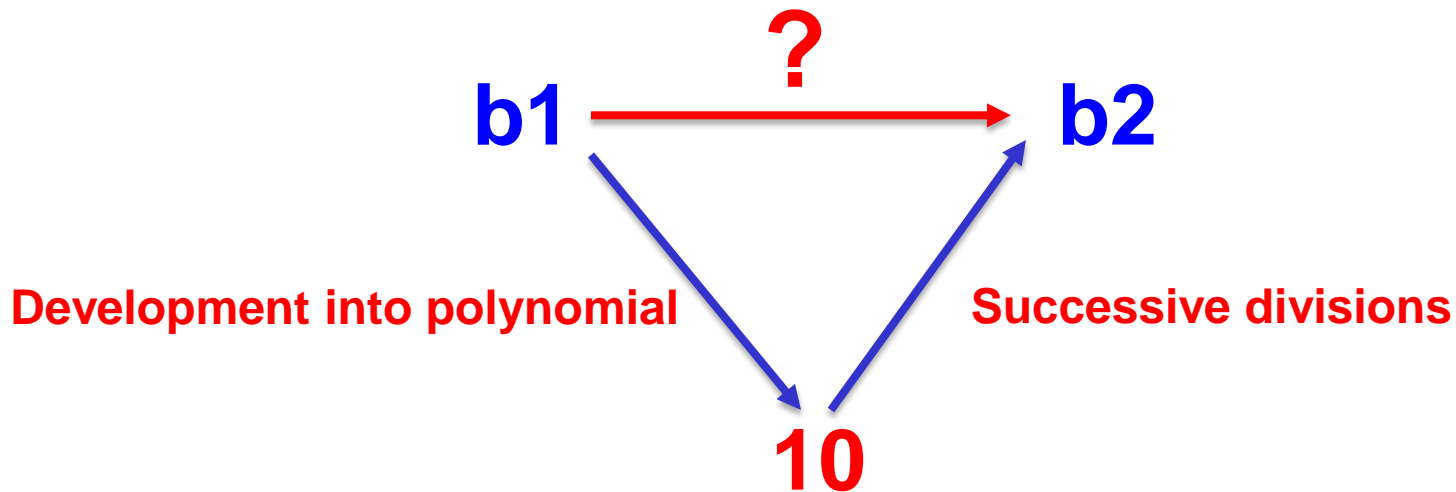
Note :

Grouping is from right to left for the integer part and from left to right for the fractional part.

Converting from base b1 to base b2

- There is no method for switching from one **base b1** to another **base b2** directly.
- The idea is to convert the number from **base b1** to **base 10** Next...

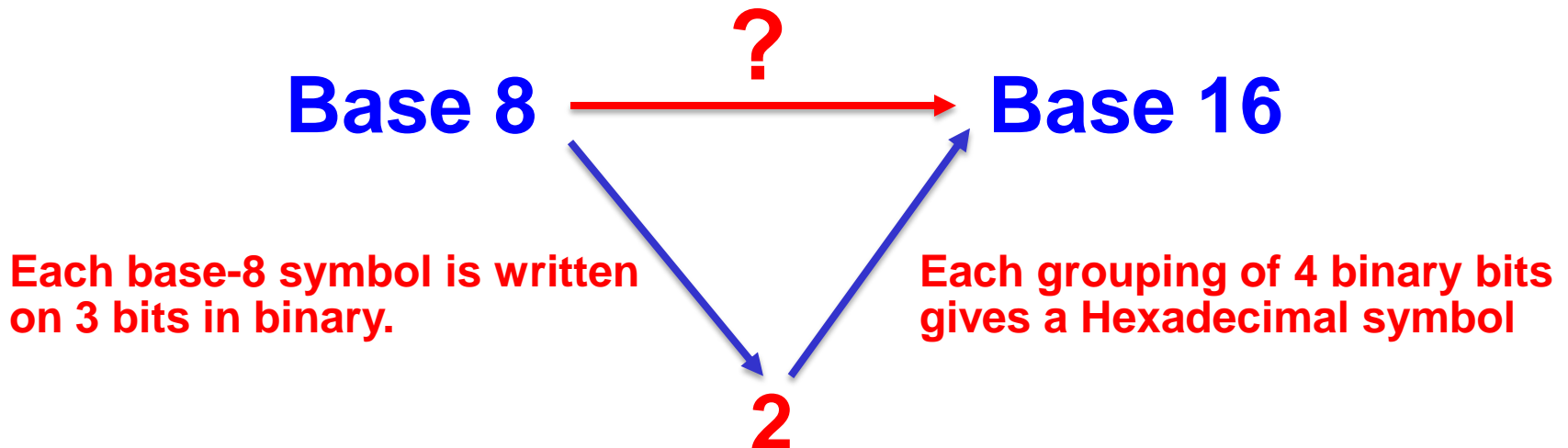
convert the result from **base 10** to **base b2**



Converting from base b1 to base b2

- If **b1** and **b2** are both **powers of 2**
- In this case, the number must be **converted** from **base b1** to **base 2**, Next...

convert the result from **base 2** to **base b2**

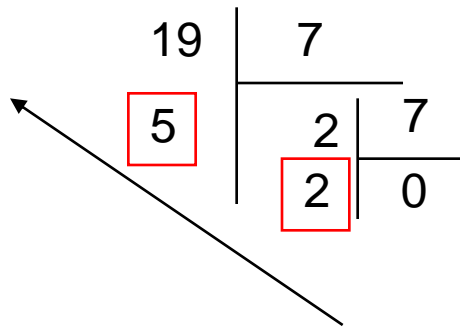


Example :

$$(34)_5 = (?)_7$$

$$34_5 = 3 \cdot 5^1 + 4 \cdot 5^0 = 15 + 4 = 19_{10}$$

$$19_{10} = (?)_7$$



$$19_{10} = 25_7 \quad \text{So} \quad 34_5 = 25_7$$

Exercise : perform the following transformations

$$(43)_6 = (?)_5 = (?)_8$$

$$(2A)_{16} = (?)_9$$

Binary coded decimal numbers (BCD)

- Conversion to natural binary is a time-consuming and tedious operation. To overcome this drawback, we use **the BCD code**, which has the advantages of both decimal and binary..
- In **the BCD code**, we **associate a four-bit** code word with each **symbol of the decimal** system.

Example : le nombre décimal **317,25** s'écrit en **BCD (8421)**

3	1	7,	2	5
↓	↓	↓	↓	↓
0011	0001	0111,	0010	0101

Binary coded decimal numbers (BCD)

- There are several **BCD codes** : the **8421**, the **6311**, **excess-3**, **2 out-of 5** and **code gray** (reflected binary).

<i>Decimal</i>	<i>BCD8421</i>	<i>BCD6311</i>	<i>Excess-3</i>	<i>2 out-of 5</i>	<i>Code Gray</i>
<i>0</i>	0000	0000	0011	00011	0000
<i>1</i>	0001	0001	0100	00101	0001
<i>2</i>	0010	0011	0101	00110	0011
<i>3</i>	0011	0100	0110	01001	0010
<i>4</i>	0100	0101	0111	01010	0110
<i>5</i>	0101	0111	1000	01100	0111
<i>6</i>	0110	1000	1001	10001	0101
<i>7</i>	0111	1001	1010	10010	0100
<i>8</i>	1000	1011	1011	10100	1100
<i>9</i>	1001	1100	1100	11000	1101

Binary arithmetic

The same calculation rules apply to all numbering systems; **binary** arithmetic **is similar** to **decimal** arithmetic.

Base 2 addition :

$$\begin{array}{r} + 0 \\ 0 \\ \hline 0 \end{array}$$

$$\begin{array}{r} + 0 \\ 1 \\ \hline 1 \end{array}$$

$$\begin{array}{r} + 1 \\ 0 \\ \hline 1 \end{array}$$

$$\begin{array}{r} + 1 \\ 1 \\ \hline 1\ 0 \end{array}$$

I set **0** and I retain **1**

Example :

$$\begin{array}{r} \\ \\ + \\ \hline = 1 \end{array}$$

Binary arithmetic

Subtraction in base 2 :

$$0 - 0 = 0$$

$$1 - 0 = 1$$

$$1 - 1 = 0$$

$0 - 1 \Rightarrow$ I lend a **1 to 0** which becomes **10**, without forgetting to subtract the **1** from the number on the left..

Example :

$$\begin{array}{r} \overset{1}{1} \overset{1}{1} \overset{1}{0} \\ - \underset{1}{0} \underset{1}{1} \\ \hline 0 1 \end{array}$$

$$\begin{array}{r} \overset{1}{1} \overset{1}{0} \\ - \underset{1}{0} \\ \hline 0 1 \end{array}$$

Binary arithmetic

Multiplication in base 2 :

Example :

$$\begin{array}{r} 1011 \\ \times 101 \\ \hline 1011 \\ 10110 \\ \hline 110111 \end{array}$$

Binary arithmetic

Division in base 2 :

Example :

$$\begin{array}{r|l} 110111 & 101 \\ 101 & 1011 \\ \hline 00111 & \\ 0101 & \\ \hline 000 & \end{array}$$

Or :

$$21 - 7 = 14$$

$$14 - 7 = 7$$

$$7 - 7 = 0$$

three operations the rest "0"
so the result is : **3**.

Exercise

- Perform the following operations and convert the result to a decimal each time :

$$✓ (1101,111)_2 + (11,1)_2 = (?)_2$$

$$✓ (43)_8 + (34)_8 = (?)_8$$

$$✓ (4B)_{16} + (F4)_{16} = (?)_{16}$$

$$✓ (AB1)_{16} - (2E7)_8 = (?)_{16}$$

Representation of negative integers

The signed integers

- To use an adder as a subtractor, you need a suitable representation of negative numbers.
- The simplest way to **represent the sign** is to **reserve one binary digit** for it, with the other bits representing the absolute value of the number.
- The convention used is to set the first bit (the strongest bit) to :
 - ❖ **0** : to find a **positive** number
 - ❖ **1** : for a **negative** number
- **Example :**
 - ❖ $(\mathbf{0} \ 0 \ 0 \ 1 \ 1 \ 0 \ 1 \ 1)_2 \rightarrow (27)_{10}$
 - ❖ $(\mathbf{1} \ 0 \ 0 \ 1 \ 1 \ 0 \ 1 \ 1)_2 \rightarrow (-27)_{10}$
- With this method, we can represent with 8 bits the interval of the following integers: $[-(2^7 - 1), (2^7 - 1)]$ either $[-127, +127]$
- More generally, **on n bits**, we have the interval : $[-(2^{n-1} - 1), (2^{n-1} - 1)]$

Representation of negative integers

Les entiers signés

Inconvenience : such a representation would require special sign processing, and different electronic circuits depending on whether you wanted to add or subtract.

$$\begin{array}{r} 7 \\ + (-5) \\ \hline \end{array}$$

$$+ 2$$

\neq

$$\begin{array}{r} 00000111 \\ + 10000101 \\ \hline \end{array}$$

$$10001100 \} (-12)_{10}$$

This result is false !

Solution : Use of another form of negative number representation, known as complement representation.

Representation of negative integers

Representation by complement

So there are 2 ways of representing negative numbers:

- Representation by ones' complement

$$\overline{N} = (2^n - 1) - N$$

- Representation by two's complement

$$N^* = 2^n - N$$

Representation of negative integers

Representation by complement

1 – Representation by ones' complement

- The 1's complement of a binary number is obtained by simply inverting the values of the bits making up the number : bits at **1** change to **0** and bits at **0** change to **1**.
- **Example :** Or the number coded on one byte (n = 8)

	0	0	1	1	0	0	1	0
	↓	↓	↓	↓	↓	↓	↓	↓
C1	1	1	0	0	1	1	0	1

Representation of negative integers

Representation by complement

2 – Representation by two's complement

- The 2's complement of a binary number is obtained by **adding 1** to the **1's complement**, obtained using the method previously explained.

Example : the number $(-74)_{10}$ coded on one byte ($n = 8$)

$$\begin{array}{rcll} (+74) \text{ in binary} & : & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 & \\ & & \downarrow & \downarrow & \downarrow & \downarrow & \downarrow & \downarrow & \downarrow & \downarrow & \text{(c à 1)} \\ \text{One's complément} & : & 1 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 & \\ & & & & & & & & & & + \\ & & & & & & & & & & 1 \\ \text{Two's complément} & : & 1 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 & \end{array}$$

$(-74)_{10}$ will coded $(1\ 0\ 1\ 1\ 0\ 1\ 1\ 0)_2$

But $(74)_{10}$ will always be coded $(0\ 1\ 0\ 0\ 1\ 0\ 1\ 0)_2$

1	0	1	1	0	1	1	0
---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---

Sign Number representation

Representation of negative integers

Representation in complement

2 – Representation by two's complement

Codage in two's complement

To illustrate the principle of **2's complement coding**, useful for distinguishing between positive and negative numbers, let's take the following absurd example. Assume you're driving a car with a speedometer reading **00000 Km**.

- If you set off in forward gear, after **1km** the counter will read **00001Km** then **00002Km**, etc. ...

Representation of negative integers

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- If you set off in forward gear, after **1km** the counter will read **00001Km** then **00002Km**, etc. ...
- Suppose that from **00000**, we go in reverse and the counter counts down: it will show the largest possible number, i.e. **99999Km** after **1Km**, then **99998Km** after **2Km** of walking, etc. .



Representation of negative integers

Representation in complement

2 – Representation by two's complement

Codage in two's complement

Afin To illustrate the principle of **2's complement coding**, useful for distinguishing between positive and negative numbers, let's take the following absurd example. Assume you're driving a car with a speedometer reading **00000 Km**

- If you set off in forward gear, after **1km** the counter will read **00001Km** then **00002Km**, etc. ...
- Suppose that from **00000**, we go in reverse and the counter counts down: it will show the largest possible number, i.e. **99999Km** after **1Km**, then **99998Km** after **2Km** of walking, etc. .
- We can then consider that **99999Km** means **(- 1)** and that **99998Km** means **(- 2)**, etc. . .
- But it's going to be simpler once it's transposed into binary: this time, our odometer is graduated in binary and starts from **00000000** :
- If you're driving forwards, it will indicate **00000001** after **1Km**, then **00000010** after **2Km**, etc.
- When reversing, it marks **11111111** after **1Km**, then **11111110** after **2Km**, etc. . . .

Representation of negative integers

2 – Two's complément : Problems related to the length of numbers

- **1st case** : No overflow, Negative result

Example : $(-64) + (16) = (-48)$

$$\begin{array}{r}
 (-64) \\
 + (16) \\
 \hline
 (-48)
 \end{array}
 \quad
 \begin{array}{r}
 11000000 \\
 + 00010000 \\
 \hline
 = 10100000
 \end{array}$$

$|(-48)| :$ 00110000

Result is : (- 48)

0 1 0 0 0 0 0 0	(+64)
1 0 1 1 1 1 1 1	(c1)
+	1
<hr/>	
1 1 0 0 0 0 0 0	(c2)

Negative result
the 1st bit is at 1

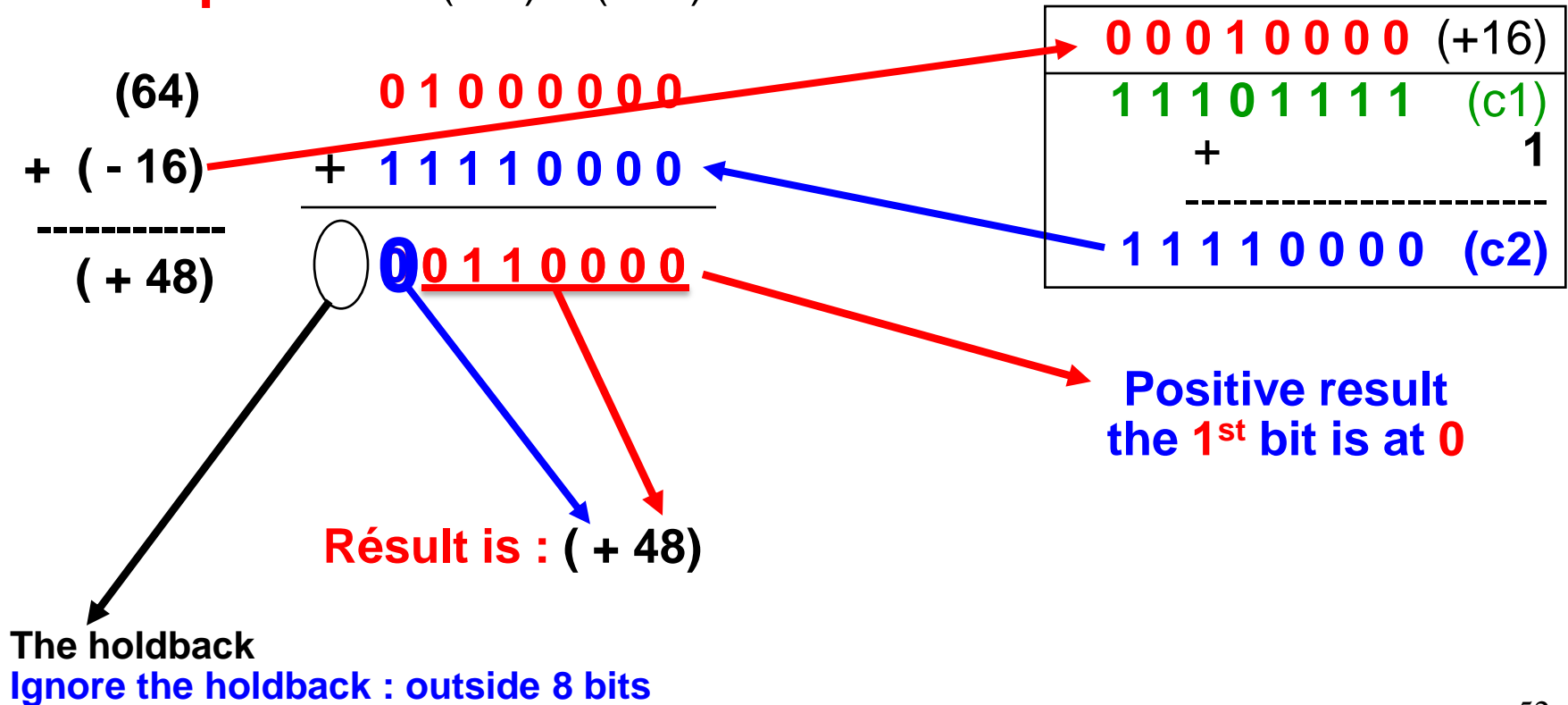
1 1 0 1 0 0 0 0	(c2)
-	1
<hr/>	
1 1 0 0 1 1 1 1	(c1)
0 0 1 1 0 0 0 0	

Representation of negative integers

2 – two's complement : Problems **related** to the **length** of numbers

- **2nd case :** Overflow, Positive result. In case of overflow, we ignore it.

Example : $64 + (-16) = (+48)$

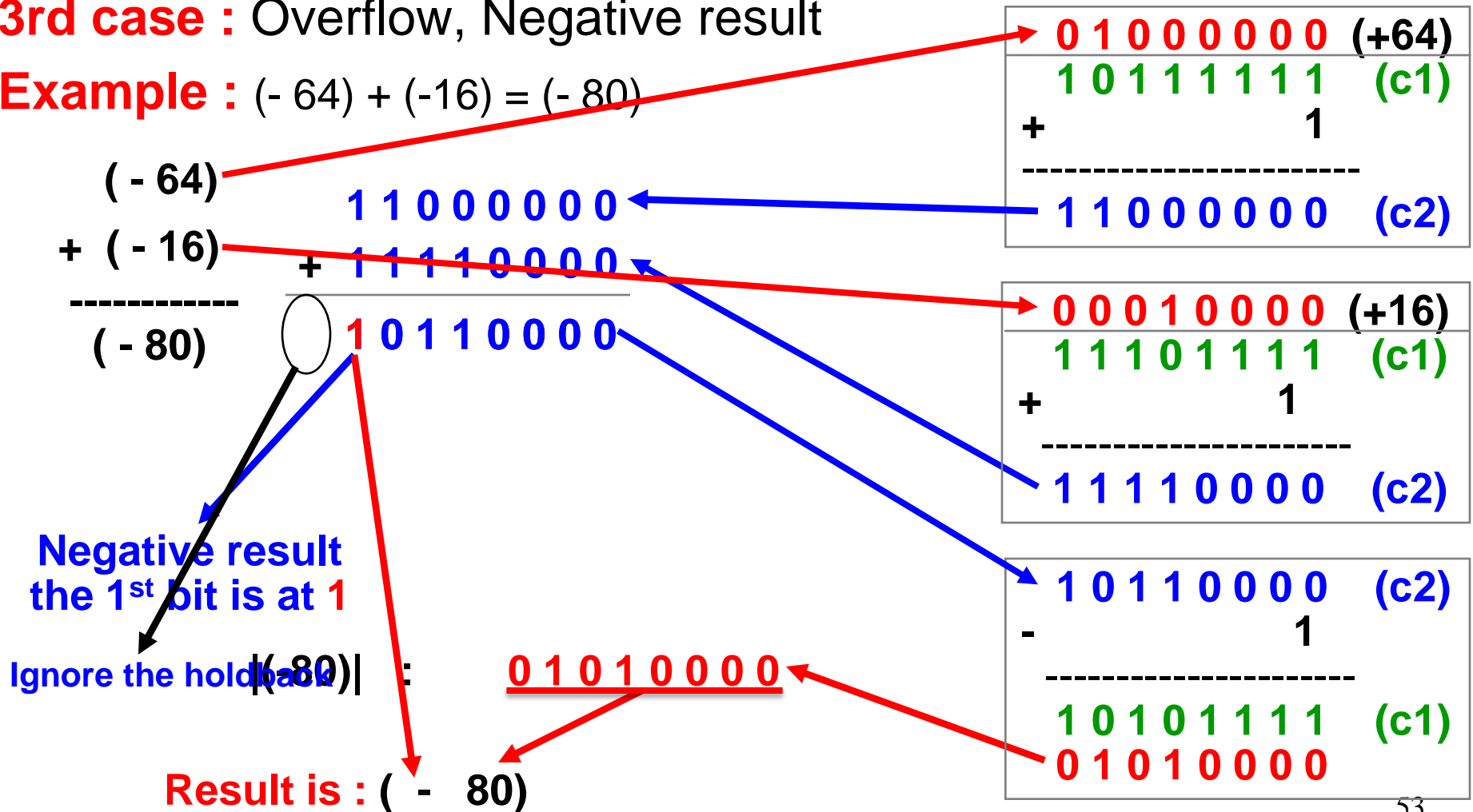


Representation of negative integers

2 - two's complement : Problems **related** to the **length** of numbers

3rd case : Overflow, Negative result

Example : $(-64) + (-16) = (-80)$



Floating point numbers

Coding real numbers

The formats for representing real numbers are :

1. Fixed point format :

$54,25_{(10)} ; 10,001_{(2)} ; A1,F0B_{(16)}$

2. Floating point format :

$0,5425 \cdot 10^2_{(10)} ; 10,1 \cdot 2^{-1}_{(2)} ; A0,B4.16^{-2}_{(16)}$

Floating point numbers

Floating-point numbers are generally **non-integer numbers** whose digits are **written only after the decimal point, and to which an exponent is added to specify how many positions the decimal point must be moved**. For example, **in decimal notation**, we write the number **31.41592** as **0.3141592×10^2** and the number **- 0.01732** as **$- 0.1732 \times 10^{-1}$** .

In both cases, **the mantissa** is the number following the decimal point (**3141592** in the first case, and **1732** in the second).

Floating point numbers

There are therefore several ways of representing **the exponent and mantissa**

Example: base-2 coding, floating-point format of (3,25)

$$\begin{aligned} 3,25_{(10)} &= 11,01_{(2)} \quad (\text{Fixed point}) \\ &= 1,101 \cdot 2^1_{(2)} \\ &= 110,1 \cdot 2^{-1}_{(2)} \end{aligned}$$

In computing, a standard has been established for the representation of **floating-point numbers**. This is **the IEEE 754 standard**.

The IEEE 754 standard

Dans In **the IEEE 754 standard**, a **floating-point number** is always represented by a triplet: (**s**, **e**, **m**). This triplet is assembled in the order : **sign**, **exponent**, **mantissa** to form a number.

$$N = s . m . B^e$$

Or

$$N = (-1)^s . m . B^e$$

Thus, for base **B = 10**, the two preceding numbers are represented by the triplets (**0**, **2**, **3141592**) and (**1**, **- 1**, **1732**):

$$(\mathbf{0}, \mathbf{2}, \mathbf{3141592}) = \mathbf{0,3141592 \times 10^2}$$

$$(\mathbf{1}, \mathbf{- 1}, \mathbf{1732}) = \mathbf{- 0,1732 \times 10^{-1}}$$

The IEEE 754 standard

The IEEE 754 standard then defines the coding, with base $B = 2$, of a number **in single-precision on 32 bits** and **in double-precision on 64 bits**. A standardized format:

1. Single-precision format: 32 bits

- Sign bit (1 bit)
- Exponent (8 bits)
- Mantissa (23 bits)



2. Double precision format: 64 bits

- Sign bit (1 bit)
- Exponent (11 bits)
- Mantissa (52 bits)



The IEEE 754 standard

s : is the **sign** coded on 1 bit (MSB is the most significant bit): **0** for a **positive number**, **1** for a **negative number**;

- **e**: designates the **exponent**, which is an integer coded on **$n_e = 8$** bits for **single precision** and on **$n_e = 11$** bits for **double precision**. The exponent can be **positive** or **negative**. **n_e** represents the number of bits of the exponent:

$$e_b = e + 2^{(n_e - 1)} - 1$$

$$e_b = e + 127 \quad : \text{for single precision}$$

$$e_b = e + 1023 \quad : \text{for double precision}$$

- **m**: designates the **mantissa**, which is a decimal point number coded on **23** bits in **single precision**, **52** in **double precision**. In the binary representation of **m**, the bit to the left of the decimal point is necessarily a **1** (**$m = 1.....$**). **It is therefore unnecessary to represent it**. Only the digits after the decimal point in the mantissa are coded in binary.

The IEEE 754 standard

Example:

- Represent 525,5 in IEEE 754 single precision format.

Write 525.5 in binary: $(525,5)_{10} = (1000001101,1)_2$

Find the exponent: $(525,5)_{10} = (1,0000011011)_2 \cdot 2^9$

Identify the triplet (s, e, m):

- $s = 0$

- $e_b = e + \underbrace{2^{n_e-1} - 1}_{\text{biais}} = 9 + 2^{8-1} - 1 = (136)_{(10)} = (10001000)_{(2)}$

- $m = (000001101100000000000000)_{(2)}$

$$(525,5)_{(10)} = (0 \ 10001000 \ 000001101100000000000000)_{(2)}$$

The IEEE 754 standard

Example : Decimal conversion - IEEE 754 single precision :

$$35,5_{(10)} = ?_{(\text{IEEE 754 SP})}$$

$$\mathbf{S} = \mathbf{0}$$

$$\begin{aligned} 35,5_{(10)} &= 100011,1_{(2)} \\ &= 1,000111 \cdot 2^5_{(2)} \end{aligned}$$

$$E = E_b - 127 = 5$$

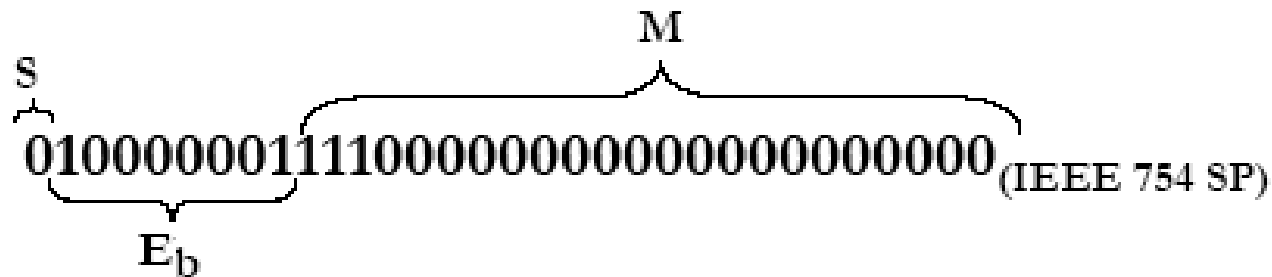
$$E_b = 132$$

$$1_M = 1,000111 \quad M = 00011100\dots$$

[illegible]

The IEEE 754 standard

Example : IEEE 754 single precision - Decimal conversion :



$S = 0$, so positive number

$E_b = 129$, so exponent = $E_b - 127 = 2$

$1, M = 1,111$

$$+ 1,111 \cdot 2^2_{(2)} = 111,1_{(2)} = 7,5_{(10)}$$

CHARACTER ENCODING

CHARACTER ENCODING

ASCII encoding

The computer's memory stores all data in **digital form**. There is no method of storing characters directly. Each character therefore has its equivalent **in binary code**: this is **the ASCII code** (American Standard Code for Information Interchange). (standardized in 1963)

This coding consists of **associating a binary numerical value** (which can be interpreted as hexadecimal, decimal, etc.) **with each character used in computer data exchange**: **alphabetic** and **numeric** (**alphanumeric**) characters, punctuation, various control codes.

CHARACTER ENCODING

ASCII encoding

basic **ASCII code** uses **one byte** to **encode 128 characters**, representing **the characters on 7 bits** (128 possible characters) and **leaving the 8th bit at 0** :

- Codes 0 to 31 are not characters. They are called control characters because they allow actions such as :
 - line feed (CR)
 - Beep (BEL)
- Codes 65 to 90 represent uppercase letters
- Codes 97 to 122 represent lower-case letters

Hex	Dec	Char	Hex	Dec	Char	Hex	Dec	Char	Hex	Dec	Char
0x00	0	NULL null	0x20	32	Space	0x40	64	@	0x60	96	`
0x01	1	SOH Start of heading	0x21	33	!	0x41	65	A	0x61	97	a
0x02	2	STX Start of text	0x22	34	"	0x42	66	B	0x62	98	b
0x03	3	ETX End of text	0x23	35	#	0x43	67	C	0x63	99	c
0x04	4	EOT End of transmission	0x24	36	\$	0x44	68	D	0x64	100	d
0x05	5	ENQ Enquiry	0x25	37	%	0x45	69	E	0x65	101	e
0x06	6	ACK Acknowledge	0x26	38	&	0x46	70	F	0x66	102	f
0x07	7	BELL Bell	0x27	39	'	0x47	71	G	0x67	103	g
0x08	8	BS Backspace	0x28	40	(0x48	72	H	0x68	104	h
0x09	9	TAB Horizontal tab	0x29	41)	0x49	73	I	0x69	105	i
0x0A	10	LF New line	0x2A	42	*	0x4A	74	J	0x6A	106	j
0x0B	11	VT Vertical tab	0x2B	43	+	0x4B	75	K	0x6B	107	k
0x0C	12	FF Form Feed	0x2C	44	,	0x4C	76	L	0x6C	108	l
0x0D	13	CR Carriage return	0x2D	45	-	0x4D	77	M	0x6D	109	m
0x0E	14	SO Shift out	0x2E	46	.	0x4E	78	N	0x6E	110	n
0x0F	15	SI Shift in	0x2F	47	/	0x4F	79	O	0x6F	111	o
0x10	16	DLE Data link escape	0x30	48	0	0x50	80	P	0x70	112	p
0x11	17	DC1 Device control 1	0x31	49	1	0x51	81	Q	0x71	113	q
0x12	18	DC2 Device control 2	0x32	50	2	0x52	82	R	0x72	114	r
0x13	19	DC3 Device control 3	0x33	51	3	0x53	83	S	0x73	115	s
0x14	20	DC4 Device control 4	0x34	52	4	0x54	84	T	0x74	116	t
0x15	21	NAK Negative ack	0x35	53	5	0x55	85	U	0x75	117	u
0x16	22	SYN Synchronous idle	0x36	54	6	0x56	86	V	0x76	118	v
0x17	23	ETB End transmission block	0x37	55	7	0x57	87	W	0x77	119	w
0x18	24	CAN Cancel	0x38	56	8	0x58	88	X	0x78	120	x
0x19	25	EM End of medium	0x39	57	9	0x59	89	Y	0x79	121	y
0x1A	26	SUB Substitute	0x3A	58	:	0x5A	90	Z	0x7A	122	z
0x1B	27	FSC Escape	0x3B	59	;	0x5B	91	[0x7B	123	{
0x1C	28	FS File separator	0x3C	60	<	0x5C	92	\	0x7C	124	
0x1D	29	GS Group separator	0x3D	61	=	0x5D	93]	0x7D	125	}
0x1E	30	RS Record separator	0x3E	62	>	0x5E	94	^	0x7E	126	~
0x1F	31	US Unit separator	0x3F	63	?	0x5F	95	_	0x7F	127	DEL

CHARACTER ENCODING

Extended ASCII encoding

The ASCII code was developed for the English language, so it does not contain accented or language-specific characters. To encode such characters, another code must be used. **The ASCII code has therefore been extended** to a single byte, using the 8th bit to define characters numbered from 128 to 255 (this is known as **the extended ASCII code**).

The ISO/IEC 8859 standard provides extensions for various languages. For example, ISO 8859-1, also known as Latin-1, extends ASCII with accented characters useful for Western European languages such as French and German.

Table ASCII étendue (128 - 255)

Dec	Hex	Char
128	80	Ç
129	81	ü
130	82	ë
131	83	â
132	84	ä
133	85	à
134	86	ç
135	87	ê
136	88	è
137	89	ë
138	8A	ì
139	8B	ï
140	8C	î
141	8D	ï
142	8E	Ä
143	8F	Å
144	90	É
145	91	æ
146	92	Ē
147	93	ô
148	94	ö
149	95	ò
150	96	ù
151	97	û
152	98	ÿ
153	99	ö
154	9A	Ü
155	9B	ƒ
156	9C	£
157	9D	¥
158	9E	℞
159	9F	ƒ

Dec	Hex	Char
160	A0	á
161	A1	í
162	A2	ó
163	A3	ú
164	A4	ñ
165	A5	Ñ
166	A6	à
167	A7	ó
168	A8	¿
169	A9	¸
170	AA	½
171	AB	¼
172	AC	¼
173	AD	¼
174	AE	«
175	AF	»
176	B0	☐
177	B1	☐
178	B2	☐
179	B3	☐
180	B4	☐
181	B5	☐
182	B6	☐
183	B7	☐
184	B8	☐
185	B9	☐
186	BA	☐
187	BB	☐
188	BC	☐
189	BD	☐
190	BE	☐
191	BF	☐

Dec	Hex	Char
192	C0	L
193	C1	┐
194	C2	T
195	C3	┐
196	C4	┐
197	C5	┐
198	C6	┐
199	C7	┐
200	C8	┐
201	C9	┐
202	CA	┐
203	CB	┐
204	CC	┐
205	CD	┐
206	CE	┐
207	CF	┐
208	D0	┐
209	D1	┐
210	D2	┐
211	D3	┐
212	D4	┐
213	D5	┐
214	D6	┐
215	D7	┐
216	D8	┐
217	D9	┐
218	DA	┐
219	DB	┐
220	DC	┐
221	DD	┐
222	DE	┐
223	DF	┐

Dec	Hex	Char
224	E0	α
225	E1	β
226	E2	γ
227	E3	π
228	E4	Σ
229	E5	σ
230	E6	μ
231	E7	τ
232	E8	φ
233	E9	θ
234	EA	Ω
235	EB	δ
236	EC	ε
237	ED	φ
238	EE	ε
239	EF	η
240	F0	≡
241	F1	±
242	F2	Σ
243	F3	Σ
244	F4	┐
245	F5	┐
246	F6	÷
247	F7	≈
248	F8	◊
249	F9	●
250	FA	·
251	FB	√
252	FC	°
253	FD	z
254	FE	·
255	FF	·

CHARACTER ENCODING

UNICODE

Unicode encodes characters as **sequences of 1 to 4 code elements** of one byte each. Among other things, the Unicode standard defines a character set. **Each character is identified within this set by an integer index**, also known as a code point. For example, the character **€ (euro)** is the **8365th** character in the Unicode repertoire, so its index, or code point, **is 8364**.

The Unicode directory can contain over a **million characters**, which is far too many to be encoded by a single byte. The Unicode standard therefore defines standardized methods for encoding and storing this index as a sequence of bytes: **UTF-8** is one of these, along with **UTF-16**, **UTF-32** and their various variants.

CHARACTER ENCODING

UNICODE

The main feature of **UTF-8** is that it is **backward-compatible with the ASCII standard**, i.e. every ASCII character is encoded in UTF-8 as a single byte, **identical to the ASCII code**. For example, A (capital A) has ASCII code 65 and is encoded in UTF-8 by byte 65. Each character with a code point greater than 127 (non-ASCII character) is coded on 2 to 4 bytes. The **€ (euro)** character, for example, is encoded **on 3 bytes: 226, 130 and 172 (1110001010000010 10101100)**.

CHARACTER ENCODING

Type	Caractère	Point de code (Hex)	Valeur scalaire		Codage UTF-8	
			Base 10	binaire	binaire	Base 16
Contrôles	[NUL]	U+0000	0	00000000	00000000	00
	[US]	U+001F	0	00111111	00011111	1F
Texte	[SP]	U+0020	32	01000000	00100000	20
	A	U+0041	65	1000001	01000001	41
	~	U+007E	126	1111110	01111110	7E
Contrôles	[DEL]	U+007F	127	1111111	01111111	7F
	[PAD]	U+0080	128	00010 000000	11000010 10000000	C2 80
	[APC]	U+009F	159	00010 011111	11000010 10011111	C2 9F
Texte	[NBSP]	U+00A0	160	00010 100000	11000010 10100000	C2 A0
	é	U+00E9	233	00010 101001	11000010 10101001	C3 A9
	??	U+07FF	2047	11111 111111	11011111 10111111	DF BF
	?!	U+0800	2048	0000 100000 000000	11100000 10100000 10000000	E0 A0 80
	€	U+20AC	8364	0010 000010 101100	11100010 10000010 10101100	E2 82 AC
	☒	U+D7FF	55295	1101 011111 111111	11101101 10111111 10111111	ED 9F BF

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Equation
Symbole

Symboles

Caractères spéciaux

Symboles Caractères spéciaux

Police : (texte normal) Sous-ensemble : Symboles monétaires

o	x	a	€	¢	£	¥	₹	₪	€	₭	₮	₯	₰	₱	₲	₳	₴	₵	₶	₷	₸	₹	₺	₻	₼	₽	₾	₿
ℳ	ℙ	ℚ	ℛ	℔	ℕ	№	℗	℘	ℙ	ℚ	ℓ	ℓ	ℓ	ℓ	ℓ	ℓ	ℓ	ℓ	ℓ	ℓ	ℓ	ℓ	ℓ	ℓ	ℓ	ℓ	ℓ	ℓ
A/S	Δ	1/3	2/3	1/8	3/8	5/8	7/8	◊	←	↑	→	↓	↔	↕	↖	↗	↘	↙	↚	↛	↜	↝	↞	↠	↡	↢	↣	↤
Σ	-	/	·	√	∞	∟	∩	∫	≈	≠	≡	≤	≥	△	▽	∠	∪	∩	∪	∩	∪	∩	∪	∩	∪	∩	∪	∩

Caractères spéciaux récemment utilisés :

€	e	Φ	λ	Δ	ρ	Ø	Ω	→	τ	π	μ	θ	≠	√	ε	φ	ω	⇒
---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---

SYMBOLE EURO Code du caractère 20AC de : Unicode (hexadécimal)

Correction automatique... Touche de raccourci... Touche de raccourci : Alt+Ctrl+E

Insérer Annuler

21	U+0800	2048	0000 100000 000000	11100000 10100000 10000000	E0 A0 80
€	U+20AC	8364	0010 000010 101100	11100010 10000010 10101100	E2 82 AC
⌘	U+D7FF	55295	1101 011111 111111	11101101 10111111 10111111	ED 9F BF

In the end, it's not as
complicated as all that...
you just have to... !!! ???

End of chapter
Do you have any
questions?

