

Data Representation

Number Systems

(from an altitude of 10,000 ft)

Roman number system (Roman numerals):

- uses the symbols I, V, X, L, C, D, M...
- non-positional (I means '1' and X means '10' wherever they occur in a number)

Decimal number system (base 10):

- uses the symbols 0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, and 9 (no unique symbol for ten!)
- a positional number system (position in the number determines value)
 - in the number 100, '1' has the value of "one hundred"; in 1000, '1' represents "one thousand"

Binary number system (base 2):

- uses only the symbols 0 and 1
- also positional
 - in 100_2 , '1' has the value of "four", while in 10000_2 , '1' signifies "sixteen"

Binary

(from an altitude of 5,000 ft)

Binary is simply another way of representing numbers.

$1_2 = 1_{10}$	$1_{10} = 1_2$
$10_2 = 2_{10}$	$10_{10} = 1010_2$
$100_2 = 4_{10}$	$100_{10} = 1100100_2$
$1000_2 = 8_{10}$	$1000_{10} = 1111101000_2$
$10000_2 = 16_{10}$	
$100000_2 = 32_{10}$	
$1000000_2 = 64_{10}$	

Why is this relevant?

- because binary uses only 2 symbols, it can be implemented by dual-state systems like circuits (computers!)

Some random information:

- the word “bit” is short for binary digit, and a “byte” is 8 bits. Randomness FTW!

Data Representation

Computers think in terms of 1's and 0's (binary!)

- on / off
- high / low
- open / closed

Humans... well, I don't know HOW we think, but we do it differently!

- with words and language, with our senses, spatially...

So, how can a computer represent data that's meaningful to us?

- 011010010010000001100001011101000110010100100000011001110110110001110101011001010010000001100001011100110010000001100001001000000110001101101000011010010110110001100100 (true story)
- with magic?
- luckily, this problem has been largely solved for us (yay for other people!).

Data Representation

Imagine you're a computer (but not one that's 18+ years old--yikes!)

How would you represent (using binary):

- an `int`
 - numeric value... easy
- a `double`
 - numeric value... not as easy as you might think
- a `bool`
 - two-state type using a number system with 2 symbols? Easy!
 - can't address an individual bit, though, so somewhat wasteful...
- a `char`
 - hmmm... I'll show you on some of the next slides! =)
- a `string`
 - strings are 0 or more `characters` grouped together
 - we'll learn about arrays and objects later

Data Representation

Example values for *32-bit* architecture:

Type	Bytes (Bits)	Range of Values
bool	1 (1)	0 - 1
char	1 (8)	-128 - 127
int	4 (32)	-2,147,483,648 - 2,147,483,647
unsigned int	4 (32)	0 - 4,294,967,647
double	16 (128)	-2.2251×10^{308} - 2.2251×10^{308}

In a *64-bit* architecture, an *int* can range from:

-9,223,372,036,854,775,808 to 9,223,372,036,854,775,807

(-2^{63} to $2^{63}-1$ or roughly -10^{19} to 10^{19})

Take-Away message:

All data types are stored the same way:
a bunch of ones and zeros.

Type-casting

All data types are stored on your computer the same way...

- this means we should be able to switch between types (e.g., from a `double` to an `int`)
- and, sure enough, we can!

General syntax (really easy):

```
data_type(value) // converts 'value' to data_type
```

Example:

```
double number = 3.12345;
```

```
cout << "Behold! An integer: " << int(number) << endl;
```

type-casting to `int`



```
// cast 65 to a char (why we can do this will become apparent soon)
```

```
cout << "An uppercase letter: " << char(65) << endl;
```


The `char` data type

A `char` variable is internally stored by C++ *as an integer*

- output streams (such as `cout`) and input streams (like `cin`) implicitly know how to convert between the number and the symbol it represents, and vice versa
- This number represents the “ASCII code” of the character

This has some interesting effects in C++:

- we can assign a `char` variable a numeric value:

```
char symbol = 65; // symbol now holds the value for 'A'
```

```
char symbol = 'A'; // <-- just like if we had done this
```

- we can assign an `int` variable a character value:

```
int number = 'A'; // number now holds the value 65
```

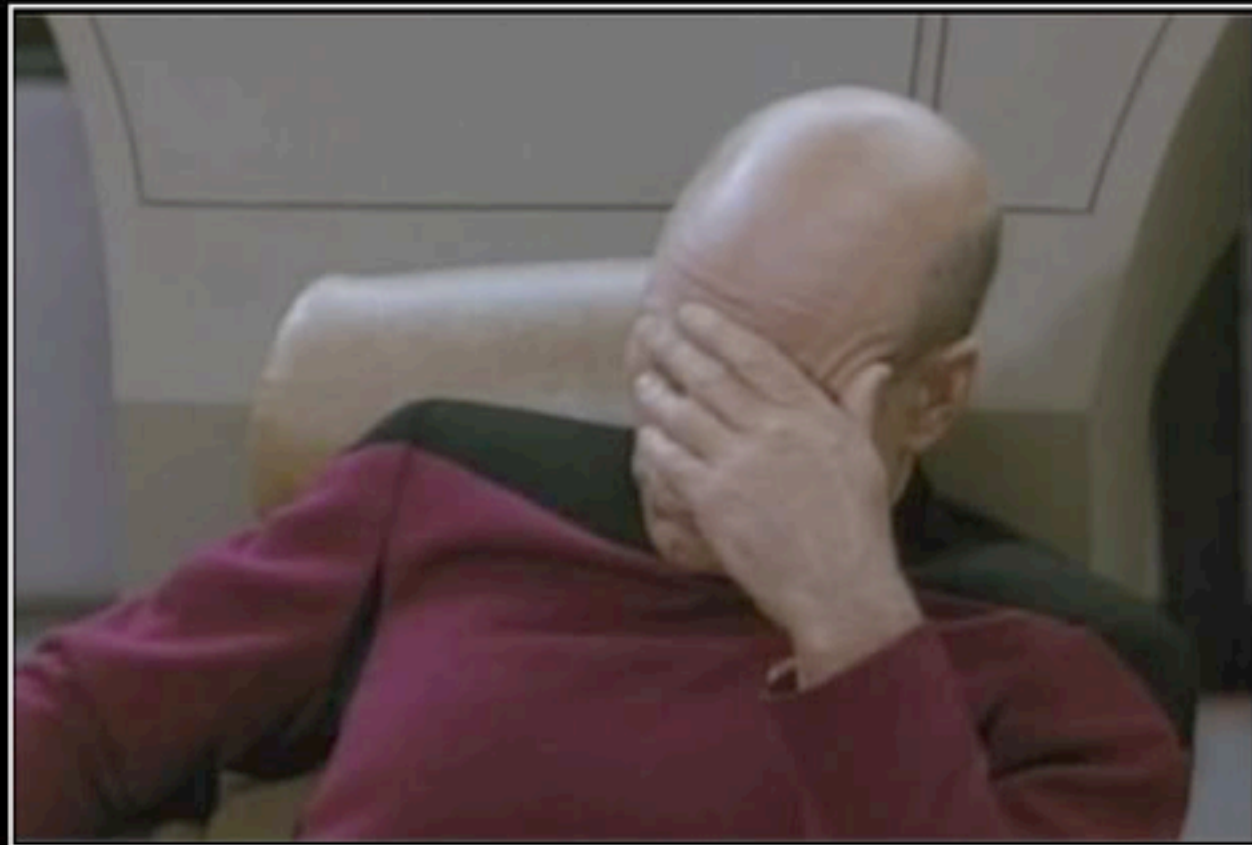
```
int number = 65; // <-- just like if we had done this
```

The `char` data type

Strange but true (so be careful):

```
'7' != 7;    // the character '7' does *NOT* equal the number 7
```

```
'7' == 55;   // '7' actually equals the number 55 (its ASCII code)
```



F A C E P A L M

Because expressing how dumb that was in words just doesn't work.

ASCII Table

American Standard Code for Information Interchange

000 (nul)	016 ► (dle)	032 sp	048 0	064 @	080 P	096 `	112 p
001 ☺ (soh)	017 ◀ (dc1)	033 !	049 1	065 A	081 Q	097 a	113 q
002 ☹ (stx)	018 ↕ (dc2)	034 "	050 2	066 B	082 R	098 b	114 r
003 ♥ (etx)	019 ≡ (dc3)	035 #	051 3	067 C	083 S	099 c	115 s
004 ♦ (eot)	020 ⌘ (dc4)	036 \$	052 4	068 D	084 T	100 d	116 t
005 ♣ (enq)	021 ₤ (nak)	037 %	053 5	069 E	085 U	101 e	117 u
006 ♠ (ack)	022 − (syn)	038 &	054 6	070 F	086 V	102 f	118 v
007 • (bel)	023 ⇅ (etb)	039 '	055 7	071 G	087 W	103 g	119 w
008 ■ (bs)	024 ↑ (can)	040 (056 8	072 H	088 X	104 h	120 x
009 (tab)	025 ↓ (em)	041)	057 9	073 I	089 Y	105 i	121 y
010 (lf)	026 (eof)	042 *	058 :	074 J	090 Z	106 j	122 z
011 ♂ (vt)	027 ← (esc)	043 +	059 ;	075 K	091 [107 k	123 {
012 ♀ (np)	028 ⌊ (fs)	044 ,	060 <	076 L	092 \	108 l	124
013 (cr)	029 ↔ (gs)	045 -	061 =	077 M	093]	109 m	125 }
014 ♪ (so)	030 ▲ (rs)	046 .	062 >	078 N	094 ^	110 n	126 ~
015 ☼ (si)	031 ▼ (us)	047 /	063 ?	079 O	095 _	111 o	127 △

A few notes:

- Observe that digits (48-57), uppercase letters (65-90), and lowercase letters (97-122) occur in contiguous blocks.
- Codes 0-31 are considered “non-printing” characters (eg: ACK, EOF, NUL, BEL).
- You certainly don’t need to memorize the table; just learn its properties.

The `char` data type

So, think of a `char` as an integer type that `cin` and `cout` treat specially!

We can do math with chars, just like we would any other `int` type:

```
char c1 = 'A';           // c1 is 'A' (65)
char c2 = 'A' + 1;       // c2 is 'B' (65 + 1 = 66)
char c3 = 'C' + 32;       // c3 is 'c' (67 + 32 = 99)
char c4 = 'd' - 32;       // c4 is 'D' (100 - 32 = 68)
char c5 = '5' + 4;        // c5 is '9' (53 + 4 = 57)
```

You can prove it to yourself (if you don't believe me):

```
// outputs: A B c D 9
cout << c1 << " " << c2 << " " << c3 << " " << c4 << " " << c5 << endl;
```

The `char` data type

So, think of a `char` as an integer type that `cin` and `cout` treat specially!

Be aware:

- the ASCII codes for digits are not adjacent to the ASCII codes for upper case letters:

```
char wtf_1 = '5' + 5; // wtf_1 is ':' (53 + 5 = 58)
```

- the codes for uppercase letters are not adjacent to those for lowercase letters:

```
char wtf_2 = 'Z' + 1; // wtf_2 is '[' (90 + 1 = 91)
```

Just so you know:

- “wtf” = “Win The Fight” (I promise)

Uninitialized Values

Remember:

- variables with primitive types (`bool`, `int`, `char`, `double`) that are not assigned an initial value will still have a value
- we just don't know what that value is (could be `8.8e-311` or `0` or anything)
- do NOT depend on an uninitialized variable having a specific value (this is a logic error!)
- uninitialized values are called *garbage values*

The exception:

- the `string` data type is *not* a primitive type, so it does not follow this rule.
- the `string` type is a *user-defined* data type, predefined by other people for our use.
- its initial value is an *empty string* (`""`, a string that is 0 characters long)--you CAN depend on this behavior in your programs.