# Objects, values, & types

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- Computer memory doesn't know what type of data it stores
- ► The bits of memory only get meaning when we decide how that memory is to be interpreted
- ► This is similar to what we do everyday when we use numbers
  - ▶ What does 12.5 mean?
  - ▶ \$12.5 or 12.5 cm or 12.5 gallons
  - ▶ Only when we supply the unit does 12.5 mean anything



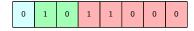
► For instance, what does the sequence of bits presented above represent?



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  - ► As an integer, the value 88



- ► For instance, what does the sequence of bits presented above represent?
  - ► As an integer, the value 88
  - ► As a character encoded in ASCII, X



- ► For instance, what does the sequence of bits presented above represent?
  - ► As an integer, the value 88
  - ► As a character encoded in ASCII, X
  - ► As a floating-point number with an exponent range of -1 to 1 and five bits for the mantissa, 3.5



► The meaning of bits in memory is completely dependent on the type used to access it

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Type Defines a set of possible values and a set of operations for an object

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Object Memory that holds a value of a given type

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Object Memory that holds a value of a given type

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Variable Named object

Declaration Statement that gives a name to an object

Definition Declaration that sets aside memory for an object

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# Thinking about objects, types, and values

- ▶ Informally, we can think of an object as a box
- ▶ Into which we can put values of a given type
- ► An int box can hold integers, such as 7, 42, and -399
- ► A std::string box can hold character string values, such as "Computer Science", "Texas A&M University", and "Gig 'em"

# Thinking about objects, types, and values

Graphically, we can informally think of it like this:

- ► Note: different types of objects take up different amounts of space
  - ► The compiler sets aside the same fixed amount of storage for each object of a specified primitive built-in type

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## Primitive built-in types

- ► The primitive built-in types are the most basic elements from which our C++ programs are constructed from; included are:
  - ► A Boolean type (i.e., bool)
  - ► Character types (e.g., char)
  - ► Integer types (e.g., int)
  - ► Floating-point types (e.g., double)
- ► The Boolean, character, and integer types are known as the integral types
- ► Together, the integral types and floating-point types are known as the arithmetic types

### Primitive built-in types

- ► As we will see, the integral and floating-point types come in different flavors to give the user a choice in:
  - the amount of storage consumed
  - the range available for values
  - and precision
- ▶ In this course, the following types will *usually* be sufficient:
  - ▶ bool for logical values
  - char for characters
  - ▶ int for integer values
  - double for floating-point values

## Primitive built-in types

- ► As we will discuss later, other types can be constructed from the primitive built-in types, including:
  - ► Pointer types (e.g., int\*)
  - Array types (e.g., char[])
  - ► Reference types (e.g., int&)
  - ► Data structures and classes

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# Boolean (bool) type

- ► The possible values of a Boolean (i.e., bool) type are true and false
- ► This type is primarily used to express the result of logical operations

```
bool res = x = y; // = is assignment; = is equality
```

- ▶ In both arithmetic and logical expressions,
  - bools are converted to integers
  - arithmetic and/or logical operations are performed on the converted values
  - ► If the result is converted back to bool, a nonzero value is converted to true whereas a zero value to false

```
bool x = true;
bool y = true;
bool z = x + y;
cout << (x + x + y + y);</pre>
```

# Boolean (bool) type

► By definition, true has the value 1 when implicitly converted to an integer; false has the value 0

```
int i = true; // int(true) is 1; i is initialized to 1
```

► Integers can be implicitly converted to bool values: nonzero integers convert to true; 0 converts to false

```
bool b = 11; // bool(11) evaluates true; b is initialized to true
```

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# Character (char) types

► The char type can hold a character of the implementation's character set

```
char ch = 'c';
```

- ► Each character constant has an integer value; however, whether char is signed or unsigned is implementation-defined
  - ▶ signed char can hold at least the values -127 to 127
  - unsigned char can hold at least 0 to 255
- Are integral types, so arithmetic and logical operations apply

# Character (char) types

- ► Safe to assume the implementation character set includes:
  - ▶ 26 alphabetic characters of English
  - ► Decimal digits (0-9)
  - Basic punctuation characters
- It is not safe to assume that there are:
  - ▶ No more than 127-characters in an 8-bit character set
  - ► No more alphabetical characters than that provided by English language
  - ► That the alphabetical characters are contiguous
    - ► EBCDIC has a gap between 'i' and 'j'
  - ► That every character used to write C++ is available

### Character literals

- A literal is a notation for representing a fixed value;
   character literals are also known as character
   constants
- ► A character literal is a character enclosed by single quotes
  - ▶ 'c'
  - ▶ '9'
  - **▶** ''
- ► Are really symbolic constants for the integer value of the respective character in the implementation's character set
- Some characters have names that use backslash as an escape character

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### Integer Types

- ► There are three integer types that vary from one another in size:
  - ▶ short int
  - ▶ "plain" int
  - ► long int
- Each integer type comes in three forms:
  - ▶ "plain" int
  - ▶ signed int
  - unsigned int
- Usually, it is not a good idea to use an unsigned int instead of an int to gain one more bit to represent positive numbers
- ▶ Regardless of implementation, "plain" ints are always signed

### Integer literals

- Are available to us in four forms:
  - Decimal
  - Octal
  - Hexadecimal
  - ► Character Literals
- ► A literal prefixed with 0x is a hexadecimal (base-16) number
- ► A literal starting with a 0 (and not proceeded by an x) is an octal (base-8) number
- ► The suffix U can be used to write unsigned literals
- ▶ The suffix L can be used to write long literals
- If no suffix is applied, the compiler will produce an integer literal of suitable type based on value and size of the implementation's integer types

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## Floating-point types

- Represent floating-point numbers
- ► There too are three floating-point types that vary from one another in size:
  - ► float (single-precision)
  - double (double-precision)
  - ▶ long double (extended-precision)
- The exact meaning of single-, double-, and extended-precision are implementation defined

# Floating-point literals

- ▶ The default floating-point literal type is double
- ► If you'd like a float floating-point literal, you must suffix the literal with F
- ► Similarly, if you'd like a long double floating-point literal, you must suffix the literal with L

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# Variables

► A program variable is an abstraction of a computer memory cell or collection of program memory cells

### Variables

- Programmers often think of variables as names for memory locations, but there is much more to a variable than just a name
- ► A variable can be characterized as a sextuple of attributes:
  - ► Name
  - ► Address
  - ▶ Value
  - ▶ Type
  - ► Lifetime
  - ► Scope

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### Names

- A variable's name is composed of a sequence of letters and digits
  - ▶ The first character of an identifier must be a letter
  - ► Uppercase and lowercase letters are distinct; C++ identifiers are case-sensitive
  - Underscore character "\_" is considered a letter; however, names started with an underscore are reserved for facilities in the implementation
  - ► While C++ does not impose a limit on the number of characters in an identifier, some parts of an implementation not under control of the compiler sometimes do
  - ► Some implementations are more restrictive in the characters accepted in an identifier
  - ► C++ "keywords" cannot be used for our names; a list of these words are provided on page A.3.1 of your Stroustrup text

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### Address

- ► The address of a variable is the machine memory address with which it is associated
- Sometimes called a variable's 1-value, because the address is what is required when the name of a variable appears on the left side of assignment
- ▶ It is possible to have multiple namess associated with the same address
  - When more than one name can be used to access the same memory location, such names are called aliases
  - ► If total and sum are aliases, any change to the value of total also changes the value of sum and vice versa

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# Type

- ► The type of a variable determines the
  - ▶ range of values the variable can store, and
  - the set of operations that are defined for the values of that type

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### Value

- ► The value of a variable is the contents of the memory cell or cells associated with the variable
- Sometimes called a variable's r-value because it is what is required when the name of the variable appears in the right side of an assignment statement
  - ► To access the r-value, the l-value must be determined first; such determinations are not always trivial

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### Lifetime

- A binding is an association between an attribute and an entity, such as between a variable and its type or value, or between an operation and a symbol
- ► The memory cell to which a variable is bound is taken from a pool of available memory
  - ▶ This process is called allocation
  - Deallocation is the process of placing a memory cell that has been unbound from a variable back into the pool of available memory
- ► The lifetime of a variable is the time during which the variable is bound to a specific memory location
  - ▶ Begins when the variable is bound to a specific cell
  - ▶ Ends when the variable is unbound from that cell

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# Scope

- A scope is a part of the program in which a name has a particular meaning
  - ▶ In C++, most scopes are delimited by curly braces
- The same name can refer to different entities in different scopes
- Names are visible from the point where they are declared until the end of the scope in which their declaration appears
- A name is visible in a statement if it can be referenced or assigned in that statement
- ► A variable is local in a program unit or block if it is declared there
- ► A variable is non-local in a program unit of block if it is visible within that region of the program but is not declared there

# Scope

- So, once we provide a name to an object, that name is restricted to the part of the program in which it is declared
- ▶ In other words, a declaration introduces a name into a scope

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# Declarations

- ► Names are a lot easier to remember than addresses; therefore, we frequently use variables to access objects in memory
- ► Each named object (i.e., a variable) has a specific type associated with it, which determines the values that be put into it
- ▶ Without the specification of a type, we would be dealing with only bits of memory; the type denotes how those bits are to be interpreted

# Declarations

- ▶ Before a name can be used (including variable identifiers), we must inform the compiler of its type through a declaration
- Most declarations are also definitions, which define the entity for which the name will refer (cause memory to be allocated)
  - ▶ This is the case for the built-in arithmetic types
- There must always be exactly one definition for each named entity in our programs; however, we can have multiple declarations (but each must agree on the type of the identifier)

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### Declaration structure

- ► A declaration is comprised of four parts:
  - An optional specifier
    - ► An initial keyword that specifies some non-type attribute
    - ▶ E.g., virtual or extern
  - A base type
  - A declarator
    - Composed of a name and optionally some declarator operators that are either prefix or postfix; most common declarator operators include:

*	pointer	prefix
*const	constant pointer	prefix
&	reference	prefix
	array	postfix
()	function	postfix

- Postfix declarator operators bind more tightly than prefix ones
- ▶ Declarator operators apply to individual names only

```
int x, y // int x; int y
int* x, y; // int* x, int y; NOT int* y
int x, *q; // int x, int* y;
```

An optional initializer

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# Initialization

- ► Initialization ("starts out with"): giving a variable its initial value; has type specification
- When an initializer is specified in the declaration, the initializer determines the initial value of an object

```
int x; // x is initialized to 0
int main() {
    int y; // y does not have a well-defined value
    return 0;
}
```

- When no initializer is specified for a global, namespace, or local static object, initialization will be the type's zero value
- When no initializer is present for local variables (and objects created on the free store), the variable will not contain a well-defined value

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# Assignment

► Assignment ("gets"): giving a variable a new value; does not have type specification

```
int main() { int z = 10; // z starts out with 10; initialization z = 12; // z gets the value 12; assignment return 0; }
```

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