

Data Objects

Data objects

Scalar data objects:

- Numeric (Integers, Real)
- Booleans
- Characters
- Enumerations

Composite objects:

- String
- Pointer

Structured objects:

- Arrays
- Records
- Lists
- Sets

Abstract data types:

- Classes

Active Objects:

- Tasks
- Processes

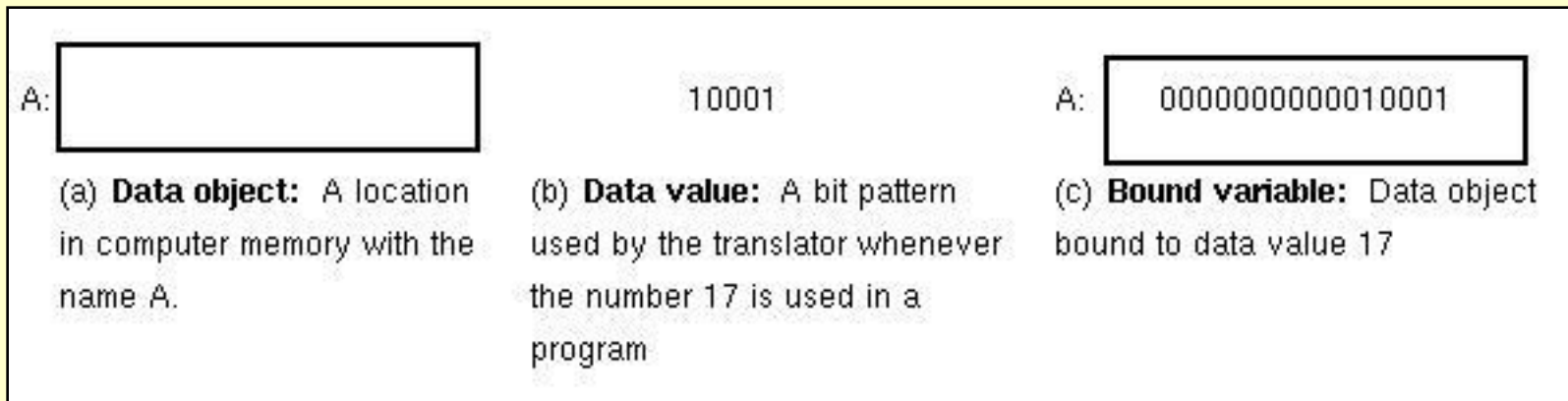
Binding of data objects

A compiler creates two classes of objects:

- Memory locations
- Numeric values

A variable is a binding of a name to a memory location:

- Contents of the location may change



Data types

Each data object has a **type**:

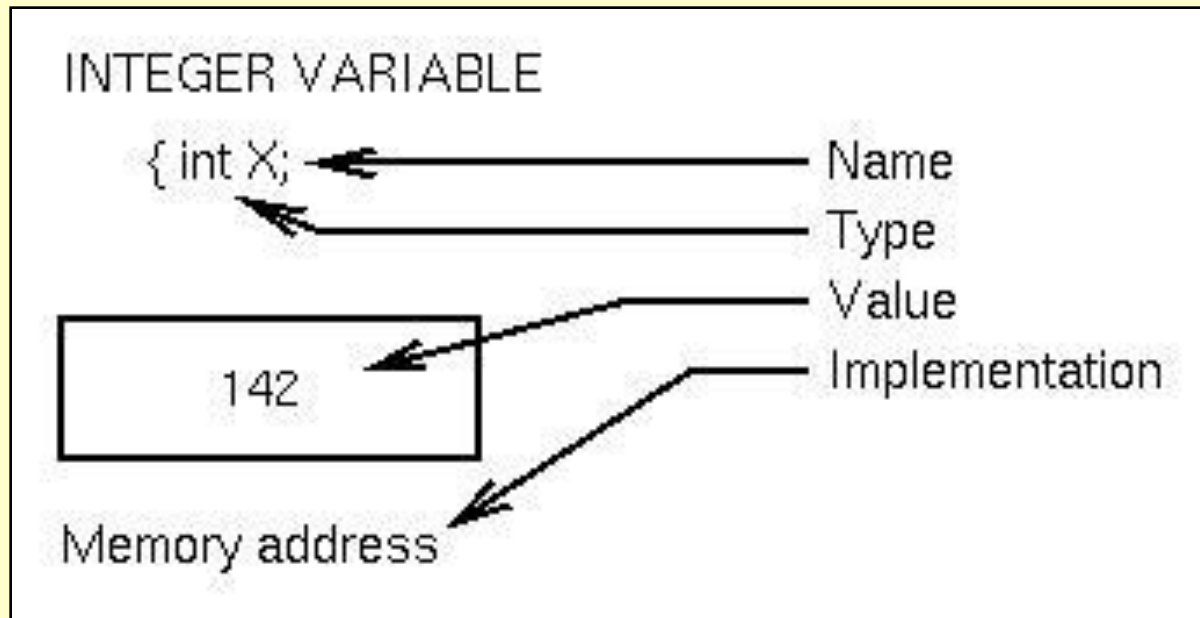
Values: for objects of that type

Operations: for objects of that type

Implementation: (Storage representation) for objects of that type

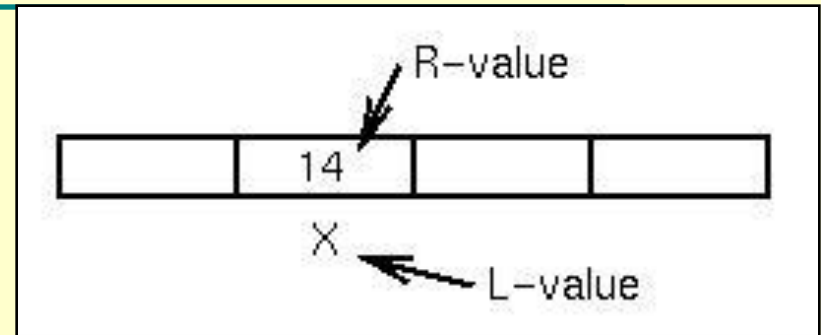
Attributes: (e.g., name) for objects of that type

Signature: (of operation f): $f: \text{type} \times \text{type} \rightarrow \text{type}$



L-value and R-value

Location for an object is its **L-value**. Contents of that location is its **R-value**.



Where did names L-value and R-value come from?

Consider executing: $A = B + C;$

1. Pick up contents of location B
2. Add contents of location C
3. Store result into address A.

For each named object, its position on the right-hand-side of the assignment operator (=) is a *content-of* access, and its position on the left-hand-side of the assignment operator is an *address-of* access.

- **address-of** then is an **L-value**
- **contents-of** then is an **R-value**
- **Value**, by itself, generally means **R-value**

Subtypes

A is a subtype of B if every value of A is a value of B.

Note: In C almost everything is a subtype of integer.

Conversion between types:

Given 2 variables A and B, when is $A:=B$ legal?

Explicit: All conversion between different types must be specified

Implicit: Some conversions between different types implied by language definition

Coersion examples

Examples in Pascal:

```
var A: real;
```

```
B: integer;
```

A := B - Implicit, called a **coersion** - an automatic conversion from one type to another

A := B is called a **widening** since the type of A has more values than B.

B := A (if it were allowed) would be called a **narrowing** since B has fewer values than A. Information could be lost in this case.

In most languages widening coersions are usually allowed;

narrowing coersions must be explicit:

```
B := round(A); Go to integer nearest A
```

```
B := trunc(A); Delete fractional part of A
```

Integer numeric data

Integers:

Binary representation
in 2's complement
arithmetic

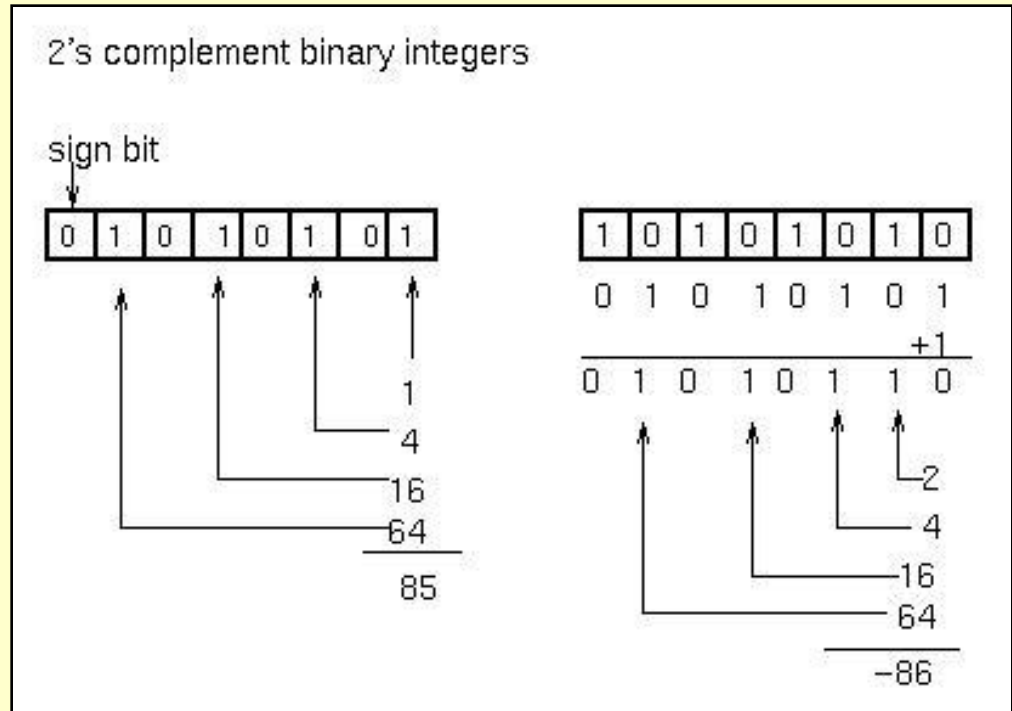
For 32-bit words:

Maximum value:

$$2^{31}-1$$

Minimum value:

$$-2^{31}$$

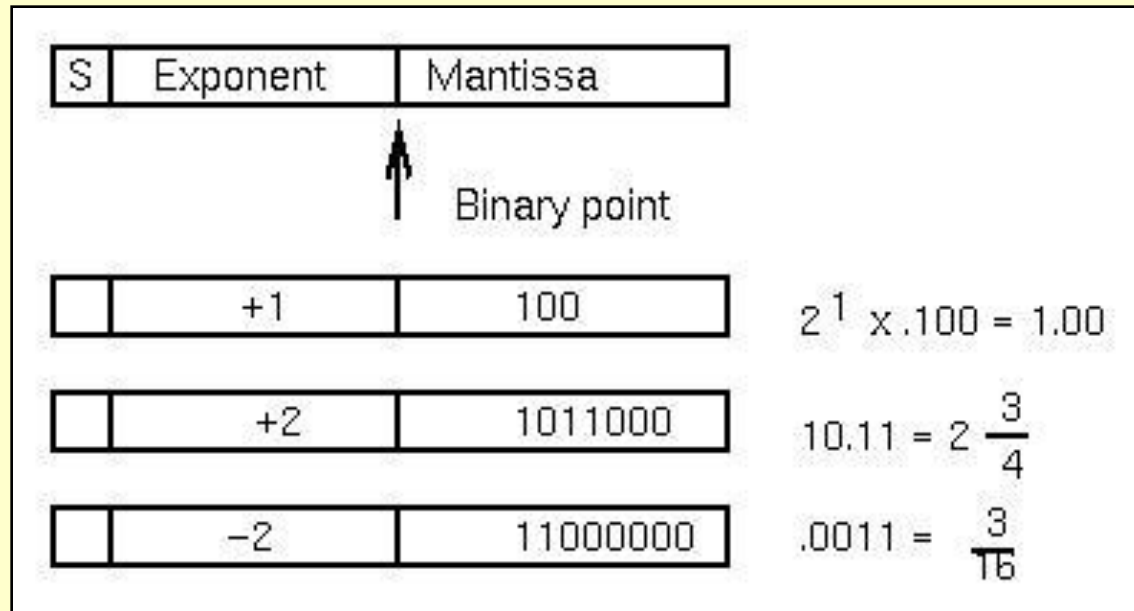


Positive values

Negative values

Real numeric data

Float (real): hardware representations



Exponents usually *biased*

e.g., if 8 bits (256 values) +128 added to exponent

- so exponent of 128 = $128 - 128 = 0$ is true exponent
- so exponent of 129 = $129 - 128 = 1$ is true exponent
- so exponent of 120 = $120 - 128 = -8$ is true exponent

IEEE floating point format

IEEE standard 754 specifies both a 32- and 64-bit standard.

Numbers consist of three fields:

S: a one-bit sign field. 0 is positive.

E: an exponent in excess-127 notation. Values (8 bits) range from 0 to 255, corresponding to exponents of 2 that range from -127 to 128.

M: a mantissa of 23 bits. Since the first bit of the mantissa in a normalized number is always 1, it can be omitted and inserted automatically by the hardware, yielding an extra 24th bit of precision.

Decoding IEEE format

Given E , and M , the value of the representation is:

Parameters

$E=255$ and $M \neq 0$

$E=255$ and $M = 0$

$0 < E < 255$

$E=0$ and $M \neq 0$

$E=0$ and $M=0$

Value

An invalid number

∞

$2^{\{E-127\}} (1.M)$

$2^{\{-126\}} .M$

0

Example floating point numbers

+1 = $2^0 * 1 = 2^{\{127-127\}} * (1).0$ (binary) 0 01111111 000000...

+1.5 = $2^0 * 1.5 = 2^{\{127-127\}} * (1).1$ (binary) 0 01111111 100000...

-5 = $-2^2 * 1.25 = 2^{\{129-127\}} * (1).01$ (binary) 1 10000001 010000...

- This gives a range from 10^{-38} to 10^{38} .
- In 64-bit format, the exponent is extended to 11 bits giving a range from -1022 to +1023, yielding numbers in the range 10^{-308} to 10^{308} .

Other numeric data

Short integers (C) - 16 bit, 8 bit

Long integers (C) - 64 bit

Boolean or logical - 1 bit with value true or false

Byte - 8 bits

Character - Single 8-bit byte - 256 characters

- ASCII is a 7 bit 128 character code

In C, a char variable is simply 8-bit integer numeric data

Enumerations

```
typedef enum thing {A, B, C, D } NewType;
```

- Implemented as small integers with values:

```
    A = 0, B = 1, C = 2, D = 3
```

- NewType X, Y, Z;

```
    X = A
```

Why not simply write: X=0 instead of X=A?

- Readability
- Error detection

Example:

```
enum { fresh, soph, junior, senior} ClassLevel;
```

```
enum { old, new } BreadStatus;
```

```
BreadStatus = fresh; An error which can be detected
```

Declaring decimal data

Fixed decimal in PL/I and COBOL (For financial applications)

```
DECLARE X FIXED DECIMAL(p,q);
```

p = number of decimal digits

q = number of fractional digits

Example of PL/I fixed decimal:

```
DECLARE X FIXED DECIMAL (5,3),
```

```
Y FIXED DECIMAL (6,2),
```

```
Z FIXED DECIMAL (6,1);
```

```
X = 12.345;
```

```
Y = 9876.54;
```

Using decimal data

What is $Z=X+Y$?:

By hand you would line up decimal points and add:

0012.345

9876.540

9888.885 = FIXED DECIMAL(8,3)

$p=8$ since adding two 4 digit numbers can give 5 digit result and need 3 places for fractional part.

$p=8$ and $q=3$ is known before addition

- Known during compilation - No runtime testing needed.

Implementing decimal data

Algorithm:

1. Store each number as an integer (12345, 987654)
Compiler knows **scale factor** (S=3 for X, S=2 for Y).
True value printed by dividing stored integer by 10^S
2. To add, align decimal point. Adjust S by 1 by multiplying by 10.
3. $10*Y+X = 9876540 + 12345 = 9888885$, Compiler knows S=3
4. S=1 for Z, so need to adjust S of addition by 2; divide by 10^2 (98888)
5. Store 98888 into Z. Compiler knows S=1

Note: S never appears in memory, and there is no loss of accuracy by storing data as integers.

Composite data

Character Strings: Primitive object made up of more primitive character data.

Fixed length:

```
char A(10) - C
```

```
DCL B CHAR(10) - PL/I
```

```
var C packed array [1..10] of char - Pascal
```

Variable length:

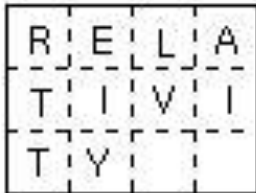
```
DCL D CHAR(20) VARYING - PL/I - 0 to 20 characters
```

```
E = "ABC" - SNOBOL4 - any size, dynamic
```

```
F = `ABCDEFG\0' - C - any size, programmer defined
```

String implementations

Fixed declared length



Strings stored 4 characters per word padded with blanks.

Variable length with bound



Current and maximum string length stored at header of string.

Unbounded with variable allocations

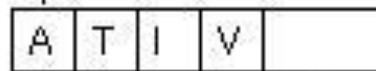


String stored as contiguous array of characters. Terminated by null character.

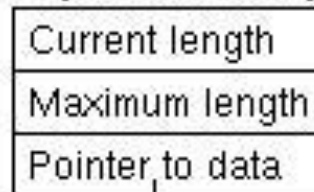
Unbounded with fixed allocations



String stored at 4 characters per block. Length at header of string.



Separate descriptors



Descriptor points to string data

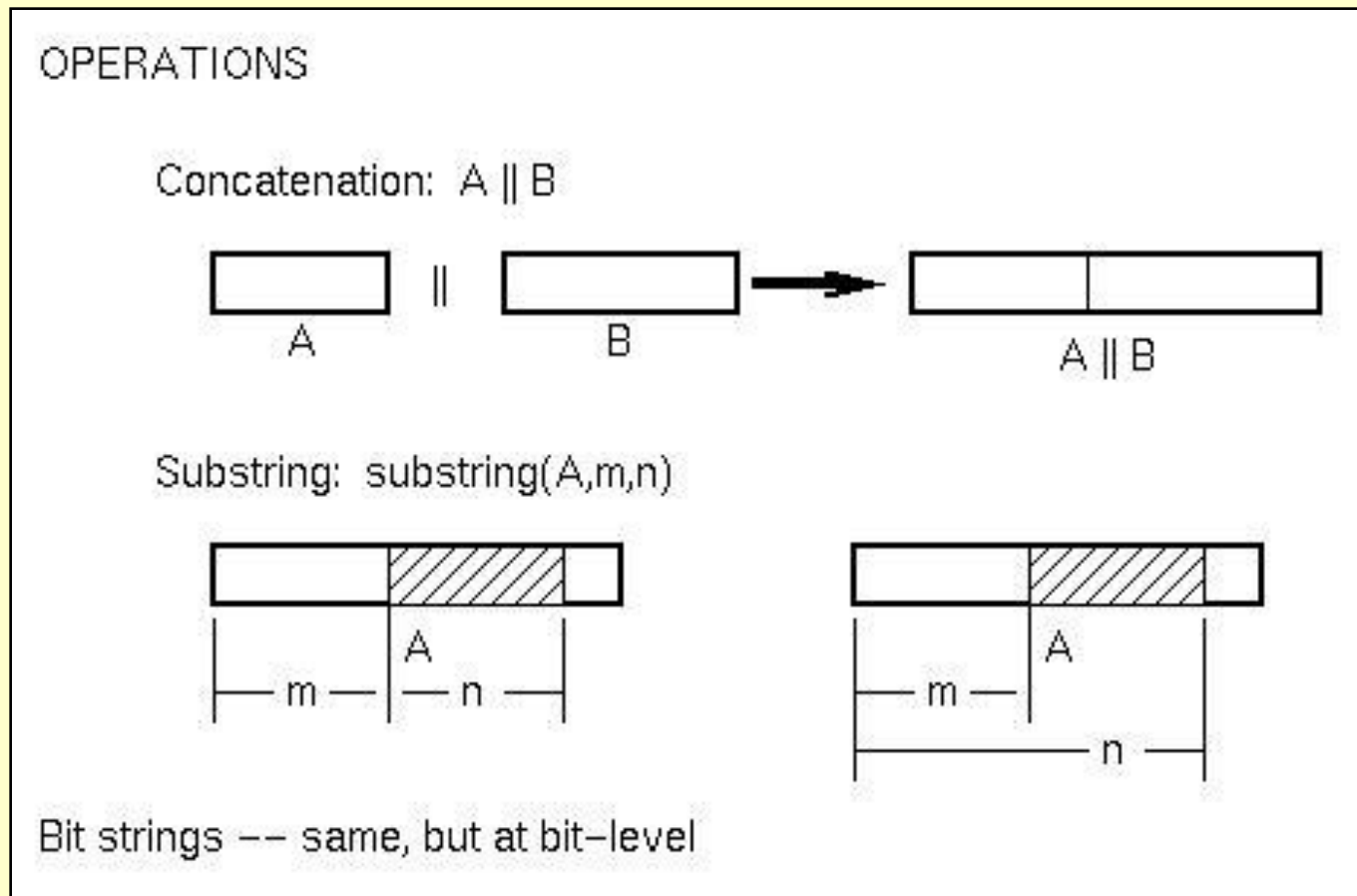


String operations

In C, arrays and character strings are the same.

Implementation:

$$\text{L-value}(A[I]) = \text{L-value}(A[0]) + I$$



Pointer data

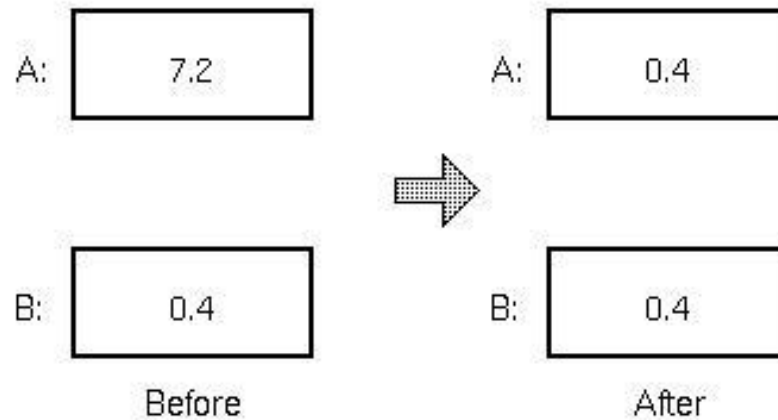
Use of pointers to create arbitrary data structures

Each pointer can point to an object of another data structure

In general a very error prone construct and should be avoided

Pointer aliasing

Numeric assignment in C



Pointer assignment in C

