

## Chapter 5

## Selection Statements

選擇 敘述/語句/陳述

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## Statements

- So far, we've used **return statements** and **expression statements**.
- Most of C's remaining statements fall into three categories:
  - **Selection statements:** if and switch
  - **Iteration statements:** while, do, and for
  - **Jump statements:** break, continue, and goto. (return also belongs in this category.)
- Other C statements:
  - Compound statement
  - Null statement

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## Logical Expressions

- Several of C's statements must test the **value of an expression** to see if it is "**true**" or "**false**."
- For example, an **if statement**
  - might need to test the **expression**  $i < j$ ;
  - a true value would indicate that  **$i$  is less than  $j$** .
- In many programming languages,
  - an expression such as  $i < j$
  - would have a special "**Boolean**" or "**logical**" type.
- In C, a comparison such as  $i < j$ 
  - yields an integer: either **0** (false) or **1** (true).

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## Relational Operators

- C's **relational operators**:
  - < less than
  - > greater than
  - <= less than or equal to
  - >= greater than or equal to
- These operators
  - produce **0** (false) or **1** (true) when used in expressions.
- The relational operators
  - can be used to compare **integers** and **floating-point numbers**,
  - with operands of **mixed types** allowed.

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## Relational Operators

- The precedence of the **relational operators** is lower than that of the **arithmetic operators**.
- For example,  

$$i + j < k - 1$$
means  $(i + j) < (k - 1)$ .
- The **relational operators** are **left associative**.

## Relational Operators

- The expression  

$$i < j < k$$
is legal,  
but does not test whether  $j$  lies **between  $i$  and  $k$** .
- Since the  $<$  operator is left associative, this expression is equivalent to  

$$(i < j) < k$$
- The 1 or 0 produced by  $i < j$  is then compared to  $k$ .
- The correct expression is  $i < j \ \&\& \ j < k$ .

## Equality Operators

- C provides two **equality operators**:  
 $==$  equal to  
 $!=$  not equal to
- The equality operators
  - are left associative
  - and produce either **0** (false) or **1** (true) as their result.
- The **equality operators** have lower precedence than the **relational operators**, so the expression  

$$i < j == j < k$$
is equivalent to  

$$(i < j) == (j < k)$$

## Logical Operators

- More complicated **logical expressions** can be built from simpler ones by using the **logical operators**:  
 $!$  logical negation  
 $\&\&$  logical *and*  
 $||$  logical *or*
- The  $!$  operator is unary, while  $\&\&$  and  $||$  are binary.
- The **logical operators** produce **0** or **1** as their result.
- The **logical operators** treat
  - any **nonzero operand** as a **true** value and
  - any **zero operand** as a **false** value.

## Logical Operators

- Behavior of the logical operators:  
`!expr` has the value 1 if `expr` has the value 0.
- `expr1 && expr2`
  - has the value 1
  - if the values of `expr1` and `expr2` are both nonzero.
- `expr1 || expr2`
  - has the value 1
  - if either `expr1` or `expr2` (or both) has a nonzero value.
- In all other cases, these operators produce the value 0.

## Logical Operators

- Both `&&` and `||` perform “short-circuit” evaluation: they first evaluate the left operand, then the right one.
- If the value of the expression can be deduced from the left operand alone, the right operand isn’t evaluated.
- Example:  
`(i != 0) && (j / i > 0)`  
`(i != 0)` is evaluated first.
- If `i` isn’t equal to 0, then `(j / i > 0)` is evaluated.
- If `i` is 0, the entire expression must be false, so there’s no need to evaluate `(j / i > 0)`. Without short-circuit evaluation, division by zero would have occurred.

## Logical Operators

- Thanks to the short-circuit nature of the `&&` and `||` operators, side effects in logical expressions may not always occur.
- Example:  
`i > 0 && ++j > 0`
- If `i > 0` is false, then `++j > 0` is not evaluated, so `j` isn’t incremented.
- The problem can be fixed by changing the condition to `++j > 0 && i > 0`

or, even better, by incrementing `j` separately.

## Logical Operators

- The `!` operator
  - has the same precedence as the unary plus and minus operators.
- The precedence of `&&` and `||` is lower than that of the relational and equality operators.
- For example, `i < j && k == m` means  
`(i < j) && (k == m)`.
- The `!` operator is right associative;
- The `&&` and `||` are left associative.

## The if Statement

- The **if statement** allows a program
  - to choose between two alternatives
  - by **testing an expression**.
- In its simplest form, the **if statement** has the form  
`if ( expression ) statement`
- When an if statement is executed,
  - expression* is evaluated;
  - if its value is nonzero, *statement* is executed.

- Example:

```
if (line_num == MAX_LINES)
    line_num = 0;
```

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## The if Statement

- Confusing `==` (equality) with `=` (assignment) is perhaps the most common C programming error.
- The statement  
`if (i == 0) ...`  
 tests whether `i` is equal to 0.
- The statement  
`if (i = 0) ...`  
 assigns 0 to `i`,  
 then tests whether the result is nonzero.

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## The if Statement

- Often the expression in an if statement
  - will test whether a variable falls within **a range of values**.

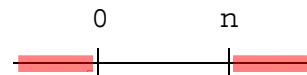
- To test whether  $0 \leq i < n$ :



```
if (0 <= i && i < n) ...
```

- To test the opposite condition (`i` is outside the range):

```
if (i < 0 || i >= n) ...
```



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## Compound Statements

- In the if statement template, notice that *statement* is **singular** (單數個), not **plural** (複數個):  
`if ( expression ) statement`
- To make an if statement control two or more statements, use a **compound statement**.
- A **compound statement** has the form  
`{ statements }`
- Putting **braces** around **a group of statements**
  - forces the compiler to treat it as a **single statement**.

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## Compound Statements

- Example:  

```
{ line_num = 0; page_num++; }
```
- A compound statement is usually put on multiple lines, with one statement per line:  

```
{
    line_num = 0;
    page_num++;
}
```
- Each inner statement still ends with a semicolon, but the **compound statement** itself does not.

## Compound Statements

- Example of a compound statement used inside an `if` statement:  

```
if (line_num == MAX_LINES) {
    line_num = 0;
    page_num++;
}
```
- Compound statements
  - are also common in **loops** and other places
  - where the syntax of C requires a **single statement**.

## The `else` Clause

- An `if` statement may have an `else` clause:  

```
if ( expression ) statement else statement
```
- The statement that follows the word `else` is executed if the expression has the value 0.
- Example:

```
if (i > j)
    max = i;
else
    max = j;
```

## The `else` Clause

- When an `if` statement contains an `else` clause, where should the `else` be placed?
- Many C programmers align it with the `if` at the beginning of the statement.
- Inner statements are usually **indented**,
  - but if they're short they can be put on the same line as the `if` and `else`:

```
if (i > j) max = i;
else max = j;
```

## The `else` Clause

- It's not unusual for `if` statements to be nested inside other `if` statements:

```
if (i > j)
    if (i > k)
        max = i;
    else
        max = k;
else
    if (j > k)
        max = j;
    else
        max = k;
```

- Aligning each `else` with the matching `if` makes the nesting easier to see.

## The `else` Clause

- To avoid confusion, don't hesitate to add **braces**:

```
if (i > j) {
    if (i > k)
        max = i;
    else
        max = k;
} else {
    if (j > k)
        max = j;
    else
        max = k;
}
```

## The `else` Clause

- Some programmers use as many **braces** as possible inside `if` statements:

```
if (i > j) {
    if (i > k) {
        max = i;
    } else {
        max = k;
    }
} else {
    if (j > k) {
        max = j;
    } else {
        max = k;
    }
}
```

## The `else` Clause

- Advantages of using **braces** even when they're not required:
- Makes programs
  - **easier to modify**,
  - because more statements can easily be added to any `if` or `else` clause.
- Helps **avoid errors**
  - that can result from forgetting to use braces
  - when adding statements to an `if` or `else` clause.

## Cascaded if Statements

- A “cascaded” if statement
  - is often the best way to test a series of conditions,
  - stopping as soon as one of them is true.
- Example:

```
if (n < 0)
    printf("n is less than 0\n");
else
    if (n == 0)
        printf("n is equal to 0\n");
    else
        printf("n is greater than 0\n");
```

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## Cascaded if Statements

- Although the **second if statement**
  - is nested inside the first,
  - C programmers don’t usually indent it.
- Instead,
  - they align each else with the original if:

```
if (n < 0)
    printf("n is less than 0\n");
else if (n == 0)
    printf("n is equal to 0\n");
else
    printf("n is greater than 0\n");
```

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## Cascaded if Statements

- This layout avoids the problem of **excessive (過度的) indentation** when the number of tests is large:

```
if ( expression )
    statement
else if ( expression )
    statement
...
else if ( expression )
    statement
else
    statement
```

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## Program: Calculating a Broker’s Commission

- When stocks are sold or purchased through a **broker**, the **broker’s commission** often depends upon the value of the stocks traded.
- Suppose that a broker **charges** the amounts shown in the following table:

Transaction size	Commission rate
Under \$2,500	\$30 + 1.7%
\$2,500–\$6,250	\$56 + 0.66%
\$6,250–\$20,000	\$76 + 0.34%
\$20,000–\$50,000	\$100 + 0.22%
\$50,000–\$500,000	\$155 + 0.11%
Over \$500,000	\$255 + 0.09%

- The **minimum charge** is \$39.

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## Program: Calculating a Broker's Commission

- The `broker.c` program asks the user to enter the amount of the trade, then displays the amount of the commission:

Enter value of trade: 30000  
Commission: \$166.00

- The heart of the program
  - is a cascaded `if` statement
  - that determines which range the trade falls into.

## `broker.c`

```
/* Calculates a broker's commission */
#include <stdio.h>

int main(void)
{
    float commission, value;

    printf("Enter value of trade: ");
    scanf("%f", &value);

    if (value < 2500.00f)
        commission = 30.00f + .017f * value;
    else if (value < 6250.00f)
        commission = 56.00f + .0066f * value;
    else if (value < 20000.00f)
        commission = 76.00f + .0034f * value;
    else if (value < 50000.00f)
        commission = 100.00f + .0022f * value;
    else if (value < 500000.00f)
        commission = 155.00f + .0011f * value;
    else
        commission = 255.00f + .0009f * value;
```

```
if (commission < 39.00f)
    commission = 39.00f;

printf("Commission: $%.2f\n", commission);

return 0;
}
```

## The “Dangling `else`” Problem

- When `if` statements are nested, the “dangling `else`” problem may occur:

```
if (y != 0)
    if (x != 0)
        result = x / y;
else
    printf("Error: y is equal to 0\n");
```

- The indentation suggests that
  - the `else` clause belongs to the outer `if` statement.
- However, C follows the rule that
  - an `else` clause belongs to the nearest `if` statement that hasn't already been paired with an `else`.



## The “Dangling `else`” Problem

- A correctly indented version would look like this:

```
if (y != 0)
    if (x != 0)
        result = x / y;
    else
        printf("Error: y is equal to 0\n");
```

## The “Dangling `else`” Problem

- To make the `else` clause part of the outer `if` statement, we can enclose the inner `if` statement in braces:

```
if (y != 0) {
    if (x != 0)
        result = x / y;
} else
    printf("Error: y is equal to 0\n");
```

- Using braces in the original `if` statement would have avoided the problem in the first place.

## Conditional Expressions

- C’s **conditional operator**
  - allows an expression to produce one of two values
  - depending on the value of a **condition**.
- The **conditional operator** consists of two symbols (`?` and `:`), which must be used together:

`expr1 ? expr2 : expr3`

- The operands can be of any type.
- The resulting expression is said to be a **conditional expression**.

## Conditional Expressions

- The conditional operator requires **three operands**, so it is often referred to as a **ternary operator**.
- The conditional expression `expr1 ? expr2 : expr3` should be read “**if** `expr1` **then** `expr2` **else** `expr3`.”
- The expression is evaluated in stages:
  - `expr1` is evaluated first;
  - if its value **isn’t zero**, then `expr2` is evaluated, and **its value** is the value of the **entire conditional expression**.
  - If the value of `expr1` is **zero**, then **the value of `expr3`** is the value of the conditional.

## Conditional Expressions

- Example:

```
int i, j, k;

i = 1;
j = 2;
k = i > j ? i : j;          /* k is now 2 */
k = (i >= 0 ? i : 0) + j;    /* k is now 3 */
```

- The parentheses are necessary,
  - because the precedence of the **conditional operator** is less than that of the **other operators** discussed so far,
  - with the exception of the **assignment operators**.

## Conditional Expressions

- Conditional expressions
  - tend to make programs shorter but **harder to understand**,
  - so it's probably best to use them sparingly.
- Conditional expressions are often used in return statements:

```
return i > j ? i : j;
```

## Conditional Expressions

- Calls of `printf` can sometimes benefit from condition expressions. Instead of

```
if (i > j)
    printf("%d\n", i);
else
    printf("%d\n", j);
```

we could simply write

```
printf("%d\n", i > j ? i : j);
```

- Conditional expressions are also common in certain kinds of **macro definitions**.

## Boolean Values in C89

- For many years,
  - the C language lacked a proper **Boolean type**,
  - and there is none defined in the C89 standard.
- One way to work around this limitation is to declare an `int` variable and then assign it either 0 or 1:
 

```
int flag;

flag = 0;
...
flag = 1;
```
- Although this scheme works, it doesn't contribute much to program readability.

## Boolean Values in C89

- To make programs more understandable, C89 programmers often **define macros** with names such as TRUE and FALSE:

```
#define TRUE 1
#define FALSE 0
```

- Assignments to flag now have a more natural appearance:

```
flag = FALSE;
...
flag = TRUE;
```

## Boolean Values in C89

- To test whether flag **is true**, we can write  
`if (flag == TRUE) ...`  
or just  
`if (flag) ...`
- The latter form is more concise. It also works correctly if flag has a value other than 0 or 1.

- To test whether flag **is false**, we can write

```
if (flag == FALSE) ...
```

or

```
if (!flag) ...
```

## Boolean Values in C89

- Carrying this idea one step further, we might even **define a macro** that can be used as a type:

```
#define BOOL int
```

- BOOL can take the place of int when declaring Boolean variables:

```
BOOL flag;
```

- It's now clear that flag
  - isn't an ordinary **integer variable**, but instead represents a **Boolean condition**.

## Boolean Values in C99

- C99 provides the **\_Bool** type.
- A **Boolean variable** can be declared by writing  
`_Bool flag;`
- `_Bool` is an **integer type**, so a `_Bool` variable is really just an integer variable in disguise (偽裝).
- Unlike an ordinary integer variable, however, a `_Bool` variable **can only be assigned 0 or 1**.
- Attempting to store a nonzero value into a `_Bool` variable **will cause the variable to be assigned 1**:  
`flag = 5; /* flag is assigned 1 */`

## Boolean Values in C99

- It's legal (although not advisable) to perform arithmetic on `_Bool` variables.
- It's also legal to print a `_Bool` variable (either 0 or 1 will be displayed).
- And, of course, a `_Bool` variable can be tested in an `if` statement:

```
if (flag)    /* tests whether flag is 1 */
    ...
```

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## Boolean Values in C99

- C99's `<stdbool.h>` header
  - makes it easier to work with Boolean values.
- It defines a macro, `bool`, that stands for `_Bool`.
- If `<stdbool.h>` is included, we can write
 

```
bool flag;    /* same as _Bool flag; */
```
- `<stdbool.h>`
  - also supplies macros named `true` and `false`,
  - which stand for 1 and 0, respectively,
  - making it possible to write

```
flag = false;
...
flag = true;
```

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## The `switch` Statement

- A cascaded `if` statement can be used to compare an expression against a series of values:

```
if (grade == 4)
    printf("Excellent");
else if (grade == 3)
    printf("Good");
else if (grade == 2)
    printf("Average");
else if (grade == 1)
    printf("Poor");
else if (grade == 0)
    printf("Failing");
else
    printf("Illegal grade");
```

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## The `switch` Statement

- The `switch` statement is an alternative:

```
switch (grade) {
    case 4: printf("Excellent");
            break;
    case 3: printf("Good");
            break;
    case 2: printf("Average");
            break;
    case 1: printf("Poor");
            break;
    case 0: printf("Failing");
            break;
    default: printf("Illegal grade");
            break;
}
```

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## The switch Statement

- A switch statement may be easier to read than a **cascaded if statement**.
- switch statements are often **faster** than if statements.
- Most common form of the switch statement:

```
switch ( expression ) {
    case constant-expression : statements
    ...
    case constant-expression : statements
    default : statements
}
```

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## The switch Statement

- The word switch must be followed by
  - an integer expression—the **controlling expression**—in parentheses.

```
switch ( expression ) {
    case constant-expression : statements
    case constant-expression : statements
    default : statements
}
```

- Characters
  - are treated as **integers** in C
  - and thus **can be tested** in switch statements.
- **Floating-point numbers and strings**
  - don't qualify, however.

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## The switch Statement

- Each case begins with a label of the form  
case *constant-expression* :
- A **constant expression**
  - is much like an ordinary expression except that **it can't contain variables or function calls**.
  - 5 is a **constant expression**, and
  - 5 + 10 is a **constant expression**, but
  - n + 10 isn't a constant expression (unless n is a macro that represents a constant).
- The **constant expression** in a case label must evaluate to an integer (characters are acceptable).

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## The switch Statement

- After each **case label** comes any number of statements.
- No **braces** are required around the statements.
- The **last statement** in each group is normally break.

```
switch (grade) {
    case 1:
        printf("Passing 1");
        printf("Passing 2");
        break;
    default:
        printf("Illegal grade");
        break;
}
```

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## The switch Statement

- Duplicate **case labels** aren't allowed.
- The order of the cases doesn't matter,
  - and the default case doesn't need to come last.
- Several **case labels** may precede a group of statements:

```
switch (grade) {
    case 4:
    case 3:
    case 2:
    case 1: printf("Passing");
            break;
    case 0: printf("Failing");
            break;
    default: printf("Illegal grade");
            break;
}
```

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## The switch Statement

- To save space, several case labels can be put on the same line:

```
switch (grade) {
    case 4: case 3: case 2: case 1:
        printf("Passing");
        break;
    case 0: printf("Failing");
        break;
    default: printf("Illegal grade");
        break;
}
```

- If the **default case** is missing
  - and the controlling expression's value doesn't match any case label, **control** passes to the **next statement** after the switch.

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## The Role of the break Statement

- Executing a break statement
  - causes the program to “break” out of the switch statement; execution continues at the **next statement** after the switch.
- The switch statement
  - is really a form of “computed jump.”
- When the controlling expression is evaluated,
  - control jumps to the case label
  - matching the value of the switch expression.
- A **case label** is nothing more than a **marker** indicating a position within the switch.

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## The Role of the break Statement

- Without break (or some other jump statement) at the end of a case, control will **flow into the next case**.

- Example:

```
switch (grade) {
    case 4: printf("Excellent, ");
    case 3: printf("Good, ");
    case 2: printf("Average, ");
    case 1: printf("Poor, ");
    case 0: printf("Failing, ");
    default: printf("Illegal grade.");
}
```

- If the value of grade is **3**, the message printed is

Good, Average, Poor, Failing, Illegal grade.

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## The Role of the `break` Statement

- Omitting `break` is sometimes done intentionally, but it's usually just an oversight (失察).
- It's a good idea to point out deliberate (故意的) omissions of `break`:

```
switch (grade) {
    case 4: case 3: case 2: case 1:
        num_passing++;
        /* FALL THROUGH */
    case 0: total_grades++;
        break;
}
```

- Although the last case never needs a `break` statement, including one makes it easy to **add cases in the future**.

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## Program: Printing a Date in Legal Form

- Contracts and other legal documents are often dated in the following way:

Dated this \_\_\_\_\_ day of \_\_\_\_\_, 20\_\_.

- The `date.c` program will display a date in this form after the user enters the date in **month/day/year** form:

Enter date (mm/dd/yy): 7/19/14  
Dated this **19th** day of **July**, 20**14**.

- The program uses `switch` statements
  - to add “**th**” (or “**st**” or “**nd**” or “**rd**”) to the day, and
  - to print the month **as a word** instead of a number.

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### date.c

```
/* Prints a date in legal form */
#include <stdio.h>

int main(void)
{
    int month, day, year;

    printf("Enter date (mm/dd/yy): ");
    scanf("%d /%d /%d", &month, &day, &year);

    printf("Dated this %d", day);
    switch (day) {
        case 1: case 21: case 31:
            printf("st"); break;
        case 2: case 22:
            printf("nd"); break;
        case 3: case 23:
            printf("rd"); break;
        default:
            printf("th"); break;
    }
    printf(" day of ");
```

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/\* (古羅馬曆只有10個月) \*/

```
switch (month) {
    case 1: printf("January"); break; // 來自古羅馬神話的神雅努斯·象徵開始
    case 2: printf("February"); break; // 來自古羅馬的節日Februus (齋戒月)
    case 3: printf("March"); break; // 來自古羅馬神話的戰神(瑪爾斯)
    case 4: printf("April"); break; // 來自古羅馬「開始」一詞·意味著春天開始
    case 5: printf("May"); break; // 來自古羅馬神話的土地女神邁亞
    case 6: printf("June"); break; // 來自古羅馬神話的女神朱諾
    case 7: printf("July"); break; // 來自凱撒的名字「Julius」
    case 8: printf("August"); break; // 來自屋大維的稱號「奧古斯都」
    case 9: printf("September"); break; // 拉丁語「第七」的意思
    case 10: printf("October"); break; // 拉丁語「第八」的意思
    case 11: printf("November"); break; // 拉丁語「第九」的意思
    case 12: printf("December"); break; // 拉丁語「第十」的意思
}

printf(", 20%.2d.\n", year);
return 0;
```

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