

# OPERATORS

CSC100 Introduction to programming in C/C++ (Spring 2024)

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## 1 README

- In this section of the course, we go beyond simple statements and turn to program flow and evaluation of logical conditions
- This section follows chapter 3 in the book by Davenport/Vine (2015) and chapters 4 and 5 in the book by King (2008)
- Practice workbooks, input files and PDF solution files in GitHub

## 2 Preamble

- **Algorithms** are the core of programming
- Example for an algorithm: *"When you come to a STOP sign, stop."*
- The human form of algorithm is **heuristics**
- Example for a heuristic: *"To get to the college, go straight."*
- For **programming**, you need both algorithms and heuristics
- Useful tools to master when designing algorithms:
  - **Pseudocode** (task flow description)
  - **Visual modeling** (task flow visualization)

## 3 Operators in C

- Mathematically, operators are really functions: `f(i,j)=i+j`
- C has many operators, both **unary**, with one argument, like `-1`, and **binary**, with two arguments, like `1+1`.
- A list of types of operators in C:
- Note: there is no exponential operator (though there is a power function `pow` in `math.h` <sup>1</sup>)
- **Conditional** operators used in C are important for program flow:

---

<sup>1</sup>See here for more information.

Table 1: Operator types in C

OPERATOR	WHY USE IT	EXAMPLES	EXPRESSION
Arithmetic	compute	* + - / %	i * j + k
Relational	compare	< > <= >=	i > j
Equality	compare (in/equality)	== !=	i == j
Logical	confirm (truth)	&&	i && j
Assignment	change	=	i = j
Increment/decrement	change stepwise	++, +-	++i

Table 2: Conditional operators in C

OPERATOR	DESCRIPTION	EXPRESSION	BOOLEAN VALUE
==	Equal	5 == 5	true
!=	Not equal	5 != 5	false
>	Greater than	5 > 5	false
<	Less than	5 < 5	false
>=	Greater than or equal to	5 >= 5	true
<=	Less than or equal to	5 <= 5	true

- Conditional = the operator tests a condition:

```
x == y // is x equal to y? if yes, then return TRUE
```

- The value of an evaluated conditional operator is **Boolean** (logical) - e.g. 2==2 evaluates as **TRUE** or 1.
- The only **unary** operator is **!** also known as NOT: It merely inverts the Boolean or truth value of its argument.

```
int x = 1;
printf("If x = %d, then: NOT x = %d\n",x, !x);
printf("If x = !%d, then: x = %d\n",!x, x);
```

```
If x = 1, then: NOT x = 0
If x = !0, then: x = 1
```

## 4 Operators in other languages

- Different programming languages differ greatly rgd. operators. For example, in the language R, the **|>** operator ("pipe") passes a data set

to a function<sup>2</sup>.

```
## pipe data set into function
mtcars |> head(n=2)
## use data set as function argument
head(mtcars,n=2)
```

	mpg	cyl	disp	hp	drat	wt	qsec	vs	am	gear	carb
Mazda RX4	21	6	160	110	3.9	2.620	16.46	0	1	4	4
Mazda RX4 Wag	21	6	160	110	3.9	2.875	17.02	0	1	4	4

	mpg	cyl	disp	hp	drat	wt	qsec	vs	am	gear	carb
Mazda RX4	21	6	160	110	3.9	2.620	16.46	0	1	4	4
Mazda RX4 Wag	21	6	160	110	3.9	2.875	17.02	0	1	4	4

- You already met the `>` and `>>` operators of the `bash` shell language that redirects standard output to a file:

```
> empty # create empty file called "empty"
ls -l empty # shows the result
```

## 5 Boolean algebra

- What is algebra about?<sup>3</sup>
- Why algebra? Algebra allows you to form small worlds with fixed laws so that you know exactly what's going on - what the output must be for a given input. This certainty is what is responsible for much of the magic of mathematics.
- Boole's (or Boolean) algebra, or the algebra of **logic**, uses the values of **TRUE** (or 1) and **FALSE** (or 0) and the operators **AND** (or "conjunction"), **OR** (or "disjunction"), and **NOT** (or "negation").
- **Truth tables** are one way of showing Boolean relationships (there are many other ways, some more intuitive than others<sup>4</sup>):

---

<sup>2</sup>Only from R version 4.1 - before that, you have to use the `magrittr` pipe operator `%>%`.

<sup>3</sup>Algebra is a branch of mathematics that deals with **symbols** and the **rules** for combining them to express **relationships** and solve **equations**.

<sup>4</sup>**Logic Gates** represent Boolean expressions through digital circuits - the basis of computers. **Set theory** interprets Boolean operations as union, intersection, and complement. **Venn diagrams** visualize Boolean operations using overlapping circles. **Binary arithmetic** uses Boolean values 0 and 1 in computational operations = truth tables.

Table 3: Conjunction: ‘p AND q’ for all values of p,q

p	q	p AND q
TRUE	TRUE	TRUE
TRUE	FALSE	FALSE
FALSE	TRUE	FALSE
FALSE	FALSE	FALSE

Table 4: Disjunction: ‘p OR q’ for all values of p,q

p	q	p OR q
TRUE	TRUE	TRUE
TRUE	FALSE	TRUE
FALSE	TRUE	TRUE
FALSE	FALSE	FALSE

## 6 Exploring Boolean algebra

Let’s explore Boolean algebra in three different ways to help absolutely everyone get a picture of what it means.

### 6.1 Conjunction: Logic gates (digital circuits)

- Go to CircuitVerse ([circuitverse.org](http://circuitverse.org)) and sign up for free with your Google Mail account.
- Create a logic gate that represents the operation **p AND q** for varying values of **p** and **q**:
  1. Select two **input** values.
  2. Select the "Logical conjunction" gate ("D").
  3. Select an **output** value.
  4. Combine the elements.
  5. Run through the truth values of the table.

Table 5: Inverse: ‘p’ and ‘NOT p’ for all values of p

p	NOT p
TRUE	FALSE
FALSE	TRUE

6. If you want to keep it, save it as a project.
- Your logic gate should look like this:

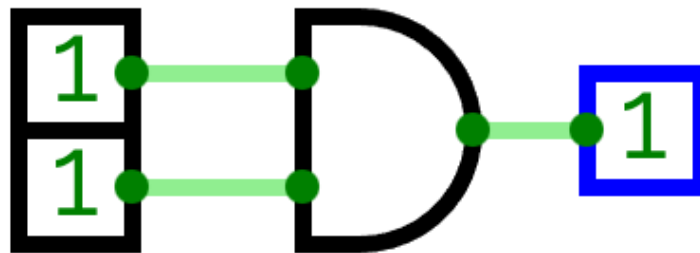


Figure 1: Source: CircuitVerse project

(Project link)

## 6.2 Disjunction: Set theory (vector algebra)

- Set up the sets in an R language code block

```
p <- c(TRUE, TRUE, FALSE, FALSE) # set of p values
q <- c(TRUE, FALSE, TRUE, FALSE) # set of q values
tt <- data.frame("p"=p,"q"=q)     # truth table setup
print(tt,row.names=FALSE)
```

```
      p      q
TRUE TRUE
TRUE FALSE
FALSE TRUE
FALSE FALSE
```

- Compute the

```
tt["p OR q"] <- p | q # check p OR q for every row of the table
print(tt,row.names=FALSE)
```

```
      p      q p OR q
TRUE TRUE   TRUE
TRUE FALSE   TRUE
FALSE TRUE   TRUE
FALSE FALSE FALSE
```

### 6.3 Inverse: Set theory diagram (Euler diagram)

- The box is the universe.

$p$  is represented by a circle inside the box.

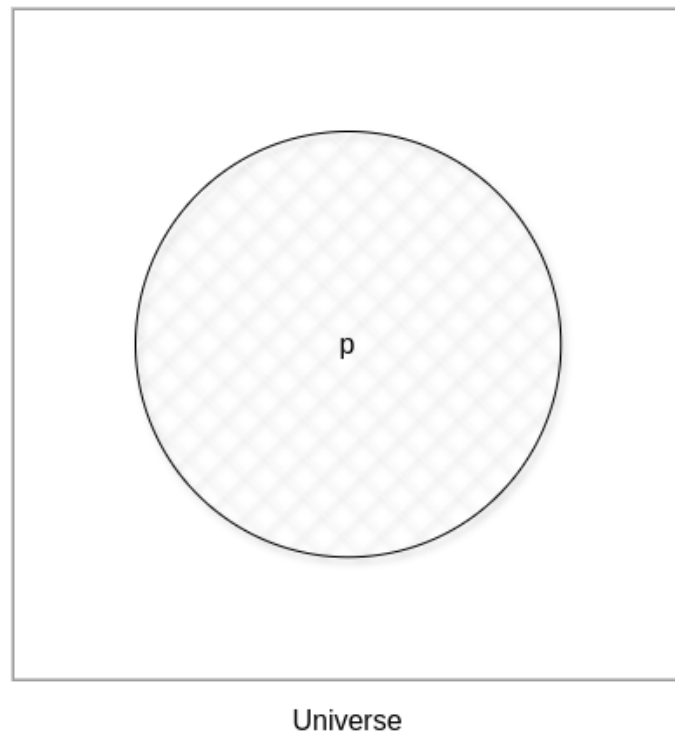


Figure 2: Euler diagram:  $p$  in the universe

- What is NOT  $p$  ( $\neg p$ )?

NOT  $p$  is the universe outside of  $p$ .

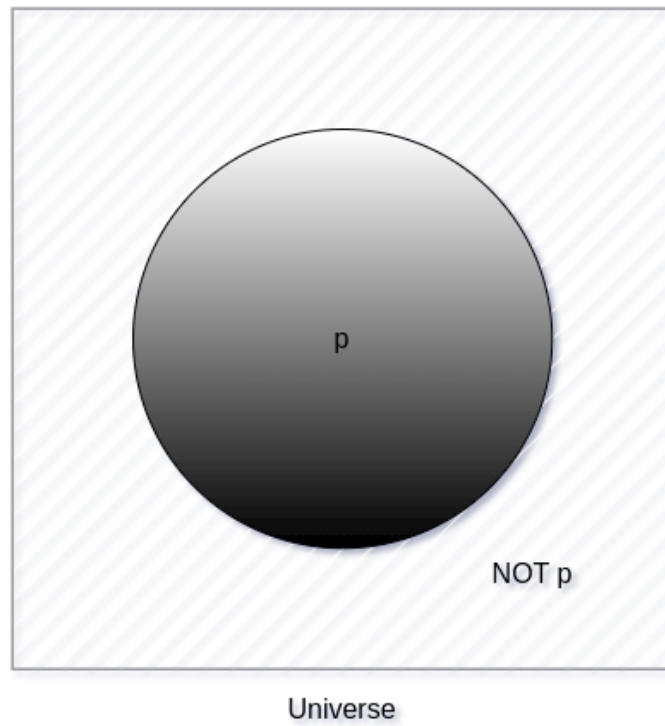


Figure 3: Euler diagram:  $p$  and  $\text{NOT } p$  in the universe

- Therefore, what is the Boolean equation for the universe?

The universe is  $p \text{ AND } (\text{NOT } P)$ .



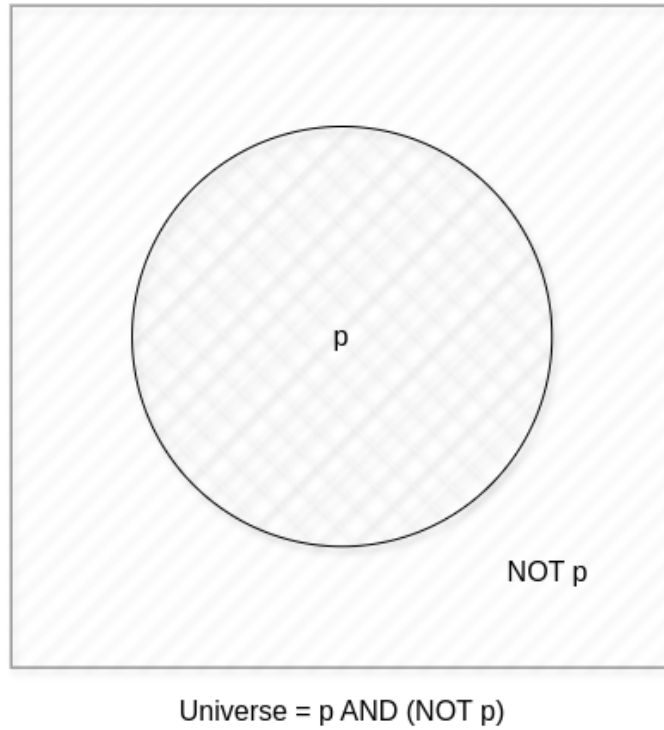


Figure 4: Euler diagram:  $p \text{ AND } (\text{NOT } p) = \text{Universe}$

## 7 Expanding Boolean algebra

- Using the three basic operators, other operators can be built. In electronics, and modeling, the "exclusive OR" operator or "XOR", is e.g. equivalent to  $(p \text{ AND NOT } q) \text{ OR } (\text{NOT } p \text{ AND } q)$ .

Table 6: Exclusive OR: 'p XOR q' and its derivation

p	q	p XOR q	$P = p \text{ AND } (\text{NOT } q)$	$Q = (\text{NOT } p) \text{ AND } q$	$P \text{ OR } Q$
TRUE	TRUE	FALSE	FALSE	FALSE	FALSE
TRUE	FALSE	TRUE	TRUE	FALSE	TRUE
FALSE	TRUE	TRUE	FALSE	TRUE	TRUE
FALSE	FALSE	FALSE	FALSE	FALSE	FALSE

- How could you show the truth of the equivalence of  $p \text{ XOR } q$  and  $(p \text{ AND NOT } q) \text{ OR } (\text{NOT } p \text{ AND } q)$ ?

You can show this computationally by going through all  $p, q \in \{0,1\}$  - we're using a `for` loop here but we could also do it manually with values  $p0=0, q0=0, p1=0, q1=1$  or as array values.

- In R (vectorized Boolean operations):

```
## set up truth table with values for p and q
tt <- data.frame("p"=c(TRUE,TRUE,FALSE,FALSE),"q"=c(TRUE,FALSE,TRUE,FALSE))

## compute (p AND NOT q) OR (NOT p AND q) and add it to the table
tt["p XOR q"] <- (p & !q) | (!p & q)

## print resulting truth table
print(tt,row.names=FALSE)
```

p	q	p XOR q
TRUE	TRUE	FALSE
TRUE	FALSE	TRUE
FALSE	TRUE	TRUE
FALSE	FALSE	FALSE

- In C, TRUE is 1 and FALSE is 0 (we're going to analyze this later):

```
// non-loop approach without arrays
int p0=0,q0=0,p1=0,q1=1,p2=1,q2=0,p3=1,q3=1;
printf("\n%d %d %d %d\n",
      (p0 && !q0) || (!p0 && q0),
      (p1 && !q1) || (!p1 && q1),
      (p2 && !q2) || (!p2 && q2),
      (p3 && !q3) || (!p3 && q3));

// print p XOR q - the answer should be 0 1 1 0
for (int i=0;i<2;++i) { // 00 01 10 11
  for (int j=0;j<2;++j) {
    printf("%d ", (i && !j) || (!i && j)); //
  }
}
```

```

    }

// declare truth values p,q as array
int a[] = {0,1};
printf("\n%d %d %d %d\n",
      (a[0] && !a[0]) || (!a[0] && a[0]),
      (a[0] && !a[1]) || (!a[0] && a[1]),
      (a[1] && !a[0]) || (!a[1] && a[0]),
      (a[1] && !a[1]) || (!a[1] && a[1]));

0 1 1 0
0 1 1 0
0 1 1 0

```

- Result:

Each row shows the results of (p AND NOT q) OR (NOT p AND q) from left to right for all values of p and q: the same as p XOR q:

Table 7: ‘p XOR q’ with Boolean values and in C (with 0,1)

p	q	p XOR q	printf
TRUE	TRUE	FALSE	0
TRUE	FALSE	TRUE	1
FALSE	TRUE	TRUE	1
FALSE	FALSE	FALSE	0

- In R:

```

## set up truth table with values for p and q
tt <- data.frame("p"=c(TRUE,TRUE,FALSE,FALSE),"q"=c(TRUE,FALSE,TRUE,FALSE))

## compute (p AND NOT q) OR (NOT p AND q) and add it to the table
tt["p XOR q"] <- (p & !q) | (!p & q)

## print resulting truth table
print(tt,row.names=FALSE)

p      q p XOR q

```

TRUE	TRUE	FALSE
TRUE	FALSE	TRUE
FALSE	TRUE	TRUE
FALSE	FALSE	FALSE

- Algebraic operations are way more elegant and insightful than truth tables. Watch "Proving Logical Equivalences without Truth Tables" (2012) as an example.

## 8 Order of operator operations (codealong)

- In compound operations (multiple operators), you need to know the order of operator precedence.
- C has almost 50 operators - more than keywords. The most unusual are compound increment/decrement operators<sup>5</sup>:

Table 8: Compound prefix and postfix operators in C

STATEMENT	COMPOUND	PREFIX	POSTFIX
<code>i = i + 1;</code>	<code>i += 1;</code>	<code>++i;</code>	<code>i++;</code>
<code>j = j - 1;</code>	<code>j -= 1;</code>	<code>--i;</code>	<code>i--;</code>

- `++` and `--` have side effects: they modify the values of their operands: the *prefix* operator `++i` increments `i+1` and then fetches the value `i`:

```
int i = 1;
printf("i is %d\n", ++i); // increments i, then prints "i is 2"
printf("i is %d\n", i);   // prints "i is 2"
```

```
i is 2
i is 2
```

- The *postfix* operator `j++` also means `j = j + 1` but here, the value of `j` is fetched, and then incremented.

```
int j = 1;
printf("j is %d\n", j++); // prints "j is 1" then increments
printf("j is %d\n", j);   // prints "j is 2"
```

---

<sup>5</sup>These operators were inherited from Ken Thompson's earlier B language. They are not faster just shorter and more convenient.

```
j is 1
j is 2
```

- Here is another illustration with an assignment of post and prefix increment operators:

```
int num1 = 10, num2 = 0;
puts("start: num1 = 10, num2 =0");

num2 = num1++; // assign num1 to num2 and then add 1 to num1
printf("postfix: num2 = num1++, so num2 = %d, num1 = %d\n", num2, num1);

num1 = 10;      // reset num1 to 10
num2 = ++num1; // add 1 to num1 and then assign it to num2
printf("prefix:  num2 = ++num1, so num2 = %d, num1 = %d\n", num2, num1);

start: num1 = 10, num2 =0
postfix: num2 = num1++, so num2 = 10, num1 = 11
prefix:  num2 = ++num1, so num2 = 11, num1 = 11
```

- The table below shows a partial list of operators and their order of precedence from 1 (highest precedence, i.e. evaluated first) to 5 (lowest precedence, i.e. evaluated last)

Table 9: Order of precedence of arithmetic operators in C

ORDER	OPERATOR	SYMBOL	ASSOCIATIVITY
1	increment (postfix) decrement (postfix)	++ --	left
2	increment (prefix) decrement (prefix) unary plus unary minus	++ -- + -	right
3	multiplicative	* / %	left
4	additive	+ -	left
5	assignment	= *= /= %= += -=	right

- Left/right *associativity* means that the operator groups from left/right. Examples:

Table 10: Associativity of operators in C

EXPRESSION	EQUIVALENCE	ASSOCIATIVITY
$i - j - k$	$(i - j) - k$	left
$i * j / k$	$(i * j) / k$	left
$- + j$	$- (+j)$	right
$i \% = j$	$i = (i \% j)$	right
$i += j$	$i = (j + 1)$	right

- Write some of these out yourself and run examples. I found `%=` quite challenging: a modulus and assignment operator. `i %= j` computes `i % j` (i modulus j) and assigns it to `i`.
- What is the value of `i = 10` after running the code below?

```
int i = 10, j = 5;
i %= j; // compute modulus of i and j and assigns it to i
printf("i was 10 and is now %d = 10 %% 5\n", i);
```

i was 10 and is now 0 = 10 % 5

## 9 Booleans in C

- C evaluates all non-zero values as **TRUE** (1), and all zero values as **FALSE** (0):

```
if (3) {
    puts("3 is TRUE"); // non-zero expression
}
if (!0) puts("0 is FALSE"); // !0 is literally non-zero
```

```
3 is TRUE
0 is FALSE
```

- The Boolean operators AND, OR and NOT are represented in C by the logical operators `&&`, `||` and `!`, respectively

## 10 ! operator (logical NOT)

- The ! operator is a "unary" operator that is evaluated from the left. It is **TRUE** when its argument is **FALSE** (0), and it is **FALSE** when its argument is **TRUE** (non-zero).
- If `i = 100`, what is `!i`?

The Boolean value of 100 is **TRUE**. Therefore, `!100 = !TRUE = FALSE`.

- If `j = 1.0e-15`, what is `!j`?

The Boolean value of `1.0e-15` is **TRUE**. Therefore, `!1.0e-15 = !TRUE = FALSE`.

- Let's check! You can validate these arguments computationally:

```
// declare and assign variables
int i = 100;
double j = 1.e-15;
// print output
printf("!%d is %d because %d is non-zero!\n", i, !i, i);
printf("!(%.1e) is %d because %.1e is non-zero!\n", j, !j, j);

!100 is 0 because 100 is non-zero!
!(1.0e-15) is 0 because 1.0e-15 is non-zero!
```

## 11 && operator (logical AND)

- Evaluates a Boolean expression from left to right
- Its value is **TRUE** if and only if **both** sides of the operator are **TRUE**
- Example: guess the outcome first

```
if ( 3 > 1 && 5 == 10 )
    printf("The expression is TRUE.\n");
else
    printf("The expression is FALSE.\n");
```

The expression is **FALSE**.

- Example: guess the outcome first

```
if (3 < 5 && 5 == 5 )
    printf("The expression is TRUE.\n");
else
    printf
        ("The expression is FALSE.\n");
```

The expression is TRUE.

## 12 || operator (logical OR)

- Evaluates a Boolean expression from left to right
- It is FALSE if and only **both** sides of the operator are FALSE
- It is TRUE if either side of the operator is TRUE
- Example: guess the outcome first

```
if ( 3 > 5 || 5 == 5 )
    printf("The expression is TRUE.\n");
else
    printf("The expression is FALSE.\n");
```

The expression is TRUE.

- Example: guess the outcome first

```
if ( 3 > 5 || 6 < 5 )
    printf("The expression is TRUE.\n");
else
    printf("The expression is FALSE.\n");
```

The expression is FALSE.



## 13 Proving Boolean equivalence with code

- Problem: show that  $p \text{ XOR } q$  and  $(p \text{ AND NOT } q) \text{ OR } (\text{NOT } p \text{ AND } q)$  are equivalent.
- Pseudocode:

ALGORITHM: compute the expressions:

A.  $(p \text{ XOR } q)$

B.  $((p \text{ AND NOT } q) \text{ OR } (\text{NOT } p \text{ AND } q))$

Input: all truth values of  $p$  and  $q$  (stored in a file)

|p0=0|q0=0|

|p0=0|q0=1|

|p0=1|q0=0|

|p0=1|q0=1|

Output: evaluation of A and B

Begin:

```
// Declare values to Boolean variables
```

```
// Read in values from input file
```

```
// Print A = p XOR q for all values of p and q
```

```
// Print B = (p AND NOT q) OR (NOT p AND q) for all values of p and q
```

End

- Create the input file `demorgan` (or generate it manually on Windoze):

```
echo "0 0" > demorgan
```

```
echo "0 1" >> demorgan
```

```
echo "1 0" >> demorgan
```

```
echo "1 1" >> demorgan
```

```
cat demorgan
```

- C code (without loops or arrays)

```
// Declare Boolean variables
```

```
int p0,p1,p2,p3,q0,q1,q2,q3;
```

```
// Read in values from input file
```

```

scanf("%d%d%d%d%d%d%d", &p0, &q0, &p1, &q1, &p2, &q2, &p3, &q3);

// Check that input was correctly read
printf("%d%d\n%d%d\n%d%d\n%d%d\n", p0, q0, p1, q1, p2, q2, p3, q3);

// Print A = p XOR q for all values of p and q
printf("p XOR q: %d %d %d %d\n", 0, 1, 1, 0);

// Print B = (p AND NOT q) OR (NOT p AND q) for all values of p and q
printf("p = %d, q = %d, (p AND !q) OR (!p AND q) = %-2d\n", p0, q0, (p0 && !q0) || (!p0 && q0));
printf("p = %d, q = %d, (p AND !q) OR (!p AND q) = %-2d\n", p1, q1, (p1 && !q1) || (!p1 && q1));
printf("p = %d, q = %d, (p AND !q) OR (!p AND q) = %-2d\n", p2, q2, (p2 && !q2) || (!p2 && q2));
printf("p = %d, q = %d, (p AND !q) OR (!p AND q) = %-2d\n", p3, q3, (p3 && !q3) || (!p3 && q3));

printf("\n.....Q.E.D.\n");

00
01
10
11
p XOR q: 0 1 1 0
p = 0, q = 0, (p AND !q) OR (!p AND q) = 0
p = 0, q = 1, (p AND !q) OR (!p AND q) = 1
p = 1, q = 0, (p AND !q) OR (!p AND q) = 1
p = 1, q = 1, (p AND !q) OR (!p AND q) = 0

.....Q.E.D.

```

- You could also dispense with reading the values (since they're constant) and set the values in the code - this makes it shorter:

```

// Declare and assign values to Boolean variables
int p0=0, q0=0, p1=0, q1=1, p2=1, q2=0, p3=1, q3=1;

// Print A = p XOR q for all values of p and q
printf("%d %d %d %d\n", 0, 1, 1, 0);

// Print B = (p AND NOT q) OR (NOT p AND q) for all values of p and q
printf("%-2d", (p0 && !q0) || (!p0 && q0));
printf("%-2d", (p1 && !q1) || (!p1 && q1));

```

```

printf("%-2d", (p2 && !q2) || (!p2 && q2));
printf("%-2d", (p3 && !q3) || (!p3 && q3));

printf("\n.....Q.E.D.\n");

0 1 1 0
0 1 1 0
.....Q.E.D.

```

## 14 Checking for upper and lower case

- Characters are represented by ASCII<sup>6</sup> character sets
- E.g. `a` and `A` are represented by the ASCII codes 97 and 65, resp.
- Let's check that.

```

echo "a A" > ascii
cat ascii

```

In `??`, two characters are scanned and then printed as characters and as integers:

```

char c1, c2;
scanf("%c %c", &c1, &c2);
printf("The ASCII value of %c is %d\n", c1, c1);
printf("The ASCII value of %c is %d\n", c2, c2);

```

- What happens if you use the format specifier `%c%c` for `scanf`? Try it.

Answer: Instead of the ASCII value for `'A'` you get the ASCII value for the space, because after picking up the `a`, `scanf` finds the space (it only expects a string literal, and the space is one of those).

- User-friendly programs should use compound conditions to check for both lower and upper case letters:

```

if (response == 'A' || response == 'a') // accept if either a or A is response

```

---

<sup>6</sup>ASCII stands for the American Standard Code for Information Interchange.

## 15 Checking for a range of values

- To validate input, you often need to check a range of values
- This is a common use of compound conditions, logical and relational operators
- We first create an input file `num` with a number in it.

```
echo 11 > num
cat num
```

- What does the code in ?? do? Will it run? What will the output be for our choice of input?

```
int response = 0; // declare and initialize integer

scanf("%d", &response); // scan integer input

// check if input was in range or not
if ( response < 1 || response > 10 ) {
    puts("Number not in range.");
} else {
    puts("Number in range.");
}
```

- How can you translate a range like `![1,10]` into a conditional expression? It means that we want to test if a number is outside of the closed interval `[1,10]`.
- The numbers that fulfil this condition are smaller than 1 or greater than 10, hence the condition is `x < 1 || x > 10`.
- This is more conveniently written as `x < 1 || 10 < x`.

## 16 References

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