

# Selection

## CSC100 Introduction to programming in C/C++ (Summer 2022)

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### 1. DONE 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 Davenport/Vine (2015) and chapters 4 and 5 in King (2008).

### 2. DONE 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. DONE Operators in C

- Mathematically, operators are really functions:  $f(i, j) = i + j$
- C has many operators, both unary (-1) and binary (1+1)
- Types of operators in C:

OPERATOR	WHY	EXAMPLES	EXPRESSION
Arithmetic	compute	* + - / %	$i * j + k$
Relational	compare	< > <= >=	$i > j$
Equality	compare (in/equality)	= !	$i == j$

OPERATOR	WHY	EXAMPLES	EXPRESSION
Logical	confirm (truth)	&&	i && j
Assignment	change	=	i = j
Increment/decrement	change stepwise	++, +-	++i

- Conditional operators used in C are important for program flow:

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

- The value of an evaluated conditional operator is **Boolean** (logical) - e.g. 2==2 evaluates as TRUE or 1.

## 4. DONE 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>1</sup>.

```
## pipe data set into function
mtcars |> head() ## same as head(mtcars)
```

Output:

```
      mpg  cyl  disp  hp drat   wt  qsec vs am gear carb
Mazda RX4         21.0   6  160 110 3.90 2.620 16.46  0  1    4    4
Mazda RX4 Wag     21.0   6  160 110 3.90 2.875 17.02  0  1    4    4
Datsun 710        22.8   4  108  93 3.85 2.320 18.61  1  1    4    1
Hornet 4 Drive    21.4   6  258 110 3.08 3.215 19.44  1  0    3    1
Hornet Sportabout 18.7   8  360 175 3.15 3.440 17.02  0  0    3    2
Valiant           18.1   6  225 105 2.76 3.460 20.22  1  0    3    1
```

- You met the > operator of the bash shell language that redirects standard output to a file:

```
## create empty file called "empty"
> empty
```

## 5. DONE Pseudocode

### 5.1. Overview

- **Pseudocode** is a method to write down/analyze an *algorithm* or a *heuristic* without having to bother with *syntax*
- The prefix pseudo- comes from Ancient Greek [ψευδής](#), meaning "lying", "false" or "untrue", as in "pseudoscience" or "pseudonym"
- Pseudocode does not need to compile or run so it is closer to a heuristic than to an exact algorithm.
- Code however needs to be exact and is always algorithmic

## 5.2. Example

- Example: player problem statement in [1](#) below:

"Drink a health potion when a character's health is 100 or less. If health reaches 100 or more, resume battle."

- Given the problem [1](#), this is the pseudocode [1<sup>2</sup>](#):

```
if health is less than 100
  Drink health potion
else
  Resume battle
end if
```

- The code in [1](#) would not compile as a C program (you can test yourself: which mistakes would the compiler find?[3](#))
- The conceptual "trick" with generating pseudocode from a prose description is to identify the **logical condition** so that you can perform a comparison (= apply a **conditional operator**)
- The pseudocode [1](#) leads to the condition `health < 100`:

```
if health < 100
  Drink health potion
else
  Resume battle
end if
```

- Notice that you could also use another operator: `>=` This operator would have had the same effect but it is not what you were supposed to code.

```
if health >= 100
  Resume battle
else
  Drink health potion
end if
```

- **Rule:** when making models (via **abstraction**), always stay as close to the problem description as possible - in terms of language, logic, tone, etc. If you're unsure, ask.

## 5.3. Let's practice!

Get the practice file from GitHub:

```
wget tinyurl.com/prsmbhvh -O pseudo.org -o log
```

## 6. IN PROGRESS Process models

### 6.1. Objectives

- [ ] Understand what a process manager (software) is and does
- [ ] Learn the basics of Business Process Model and Notation (BPMN)
- [ ] Learn how to create simple models in BPMN
- [ ] Apply modeling skills to creating pseudocode models
- [ ] Adding Pseudocode/BPMN models to future programming assignments will give you bonus points (5 extra points per assignment)

### 6.2. Overview

- Flowcharts are popular among computing analysts and programmers
- Flowcharts are a special case of **process models**
- Process modeling is a key 21st century skill, because **process** is the central paradigm of modern work organization
- Rather than use flowcharts, we use BPMN - Business Process Model and Notation - see figure 1 below for an overview of the whole language (you can get this poster at [SAP Signavio](http://bpmb.de/poster)).

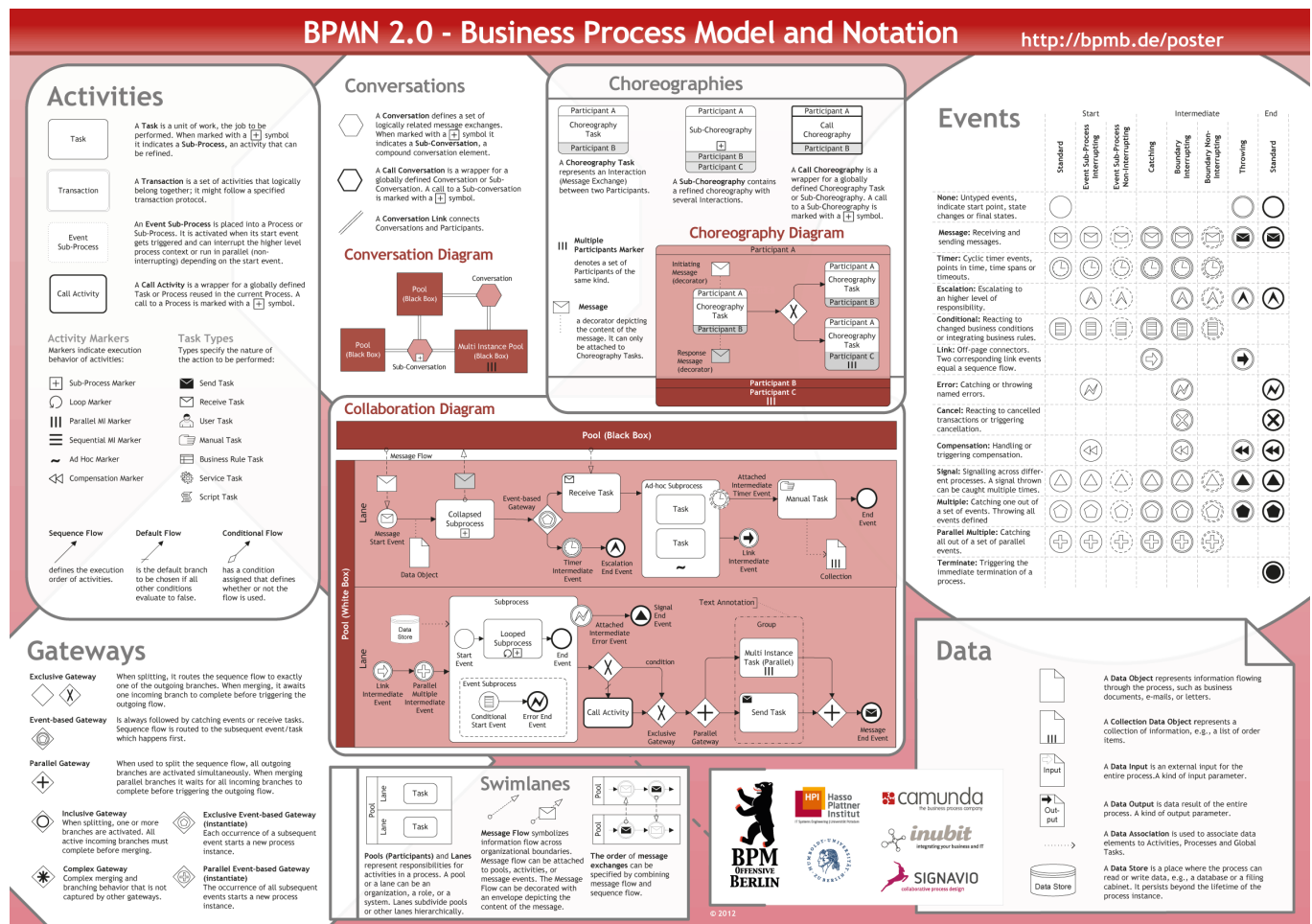


Figure 1: (Free) BPMN 2.0 poster from SAP Signavio

## 6.3. SAP Signavio

- [SAP Signavio](#) is a state-of-the-art process modeling environment
- It includes process mining and workflow management tools. The figure 2 below shows the app dashboard.

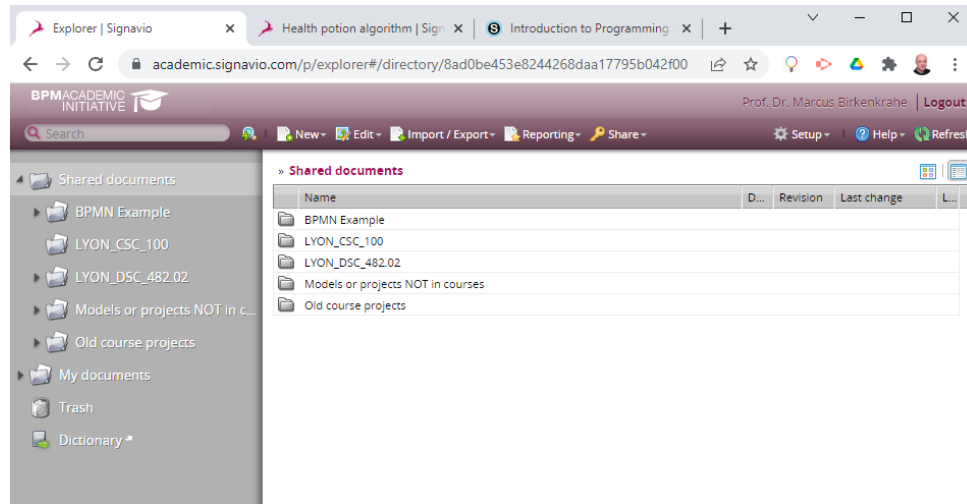


Figure 2: SAP Signavio dashboard / explorer

- [X] Register in my Signavio workspace if you haven't done it yet
- [X] Use the link in Schoology to register

## 6.4. Points to remember

- Every model needs a pool = process owner
- Conditions become gateways
- Use active sentences for tasks
- When the flow is split, it must be rejoined
- All elements must be named
- Do not change the size of elements
- All elements can be "overloaded"

## 6.5. BPMN elements

- Roles (pools, lanes, participants)
- Tasks (things to do)
- Events (status)
- Flow (between tasks or events)
- Gateways (decision points, condition check)

## 6.6. Let's practice

Download the [raw] Org-mode file bpmn.org from GitHub:

```
wget tinyurl.com/58mw8wuc -O bpmn.org -o log
file bpmn.org
```

Download the [raw] image file `battle.png` from GitHub

```
wget tinyurl.com/2s3f3t9c -O battle.png -o log
file battle.png
```

The new `file` command provides file type information. It should tell you that `bpmn.org` is a text, and that `battle.png` is a PNG file.

Now open the file `bpmn.org` in Emacs.

## 7. Simple and nested 'if' structures

### 7.1. Overview and example

- If statement structure in C is very similar to pseudocode `If`
- [1](#) is the C version of the pseudocode [1](#) from earlier.

```
if (health <= 100)
    // drink health potion
else
    //resume battle
```

- Differences: condition needs *parentheses* `(...)`; no "end if" statement
- The health check results in a *Boolean* answer: true or false
- To run, the program needs a *declaration* of the health variable
- *Multiple statements* need to be included in braces `{...}`
- The source code [1](#) will run. The variable has been declared and initialized:

```
int health = 99;

if (health <= 100) {
    // drink health potion
    printf("Drinking health potion!\n");
}
else {
    // resume battle
    printf("Resuming battle!\n");
}
```

```
Drinking health potion!
```

### 7.2. Single vs. nested IF structures

- In the example [1](#), the IF statements are evaluated independently, case by case. It does not matter if any of them fails. We'll see that there is a C control structure for that.

```
if ( i == 1 )
    // do one thing

if ( i == 2)
    // do another thing
```

The figure 3 shows the BPMN model for this program:

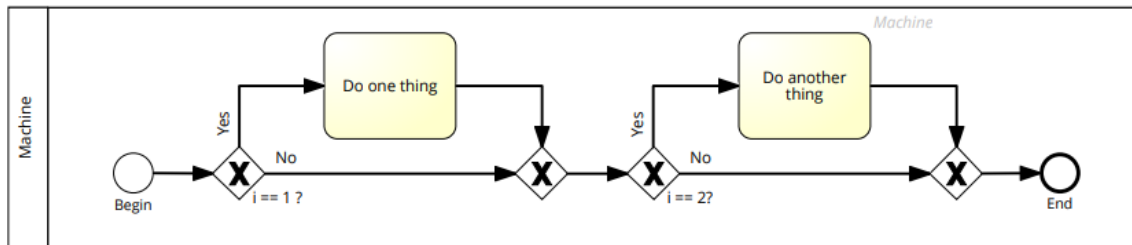


Figure 3: Single IF statements

- In the example 1, the second part of the IF statement is entered only if the first condition fails.

```
if ( i == 1 ) {
    // do one thing
}
else if ( i == 2 ) {
    // do another thing
}
```

The figure 4 shows the BPMN model for this program:

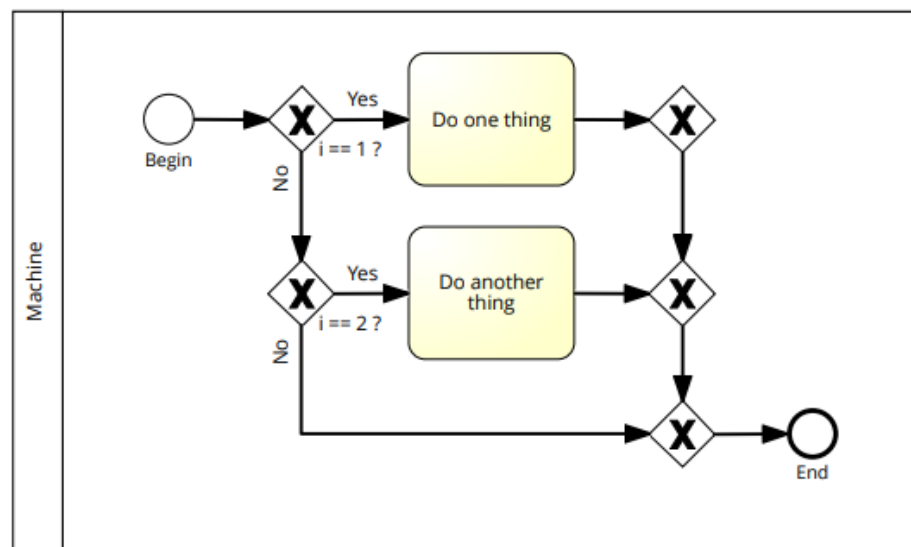


Figure 4: Single IF statements

- Which one of these you implement, depends strongly on the problem and on your performance requirements (they're quite different in speed - which you do you think performs better?)

### 7.3. Let's practice!

Download the practice file `battle.org` from GitHub and check its file type:

```
wget tinyurl.com/ -O battle.org -o log
file battle.org
```

## 8. Boolean algebra

- [ ] What is algebra about?<sup>4</sup>
- 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 the traditional way of showing Boolean scenarios:

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

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

p	NOT p
TRUE	FALSE
FALSE	TRUE

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

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

- XOR is the operator that we've used in our BPMN models for pseudocode as a gateway operator - only one of its outcomes can be true but never both of them
- Algebraic operations are more elegant and insightful than truth tables. Watch "Proving Logical Equivalences without Truth Tables" ([2012](#)) as an example.

## 9. Order of operator operations



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

---

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: ++i yields i+1 and increments i:

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

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

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

```
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++;
printf("num2 = num1++, so num2 = %d, num1 = %d\n", num2, num1);

num1 = 10;
num2 = ++num1;
printf("num2 = ++num1, so num2 = %d, num1 = %d\n", num2, num1);
```

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

- The table [1](#) 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)

---

ORDER	OPERATOR	SYMBOL	ASSOCIATIVITY
-------	----------	--------	---------------

---

1	increment (postfix)	++	left
---	---------------------	----	------

	decrement (postfix)	--	
--	---------------------	----	--

---

2	increment (prefix)	++	right
---	--------------------	----	-------

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

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

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

- [ ]

Make sure to 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 after running the code below?

```
int i = 10, j = 5;
i %= j;
printf("i was 10 and is now %d = 10 %% 5\n", i);
```

```
i was 10 and is now 0 = 10 % 5
```

## 10. Compound if structures and input validation

### 10.1. Booleans in C

- C evaluates all non-zero values as TRUE, and all zero values as FALSE:

```
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

## 10.2. ! operator

- The ! operator is a "unary" operator that is evaluated from the left. It is TRUE when its argument is FALSE, and vice versa.
- [X] If `i = 100`, what is `!i`?
- [X] If `j = 1.0e-15`, what is `!j`?
- Let's check!

```
int i = 100;
double j = 1.e-15;
printf("!\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!
```

## 10.3. && operator (logical AND)

- Evaluates a Boolean expression from left to right
- Value is TRUE if and only if both sides of the operator are TRUE
- Examples:

```
if ( 3 > 1 && 5 < 10 ) // = TRUE AND TRUE = TRUE
printf("The entire expression is true.\n");
```

The entire expression is true.

```
if (!(3 > 5 && 5 < 5) ) // = NOT (FALSE AND FALSE) = TRUE
printf("The entire expression (except the !) is false.\n");
```

The entire expression (except the !) is false.

## 10.4. || operator (logical OR)

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

```
if ( 3 > 5 || 5 == 5 ) // TRUE OR TRUE = TRUE
printf("The entire expression is true.\n");
```

The entire expression is true.

Remember to use the logical comparison operator `==`, and not the assignment operator `=`

```
if ( 3 > 5 || 6 < 5 ) { } // = FALSE OR FALSE = FALSE
else printf("The entire expression is false.\n");
```

The entire expression is false.

- Practice that using the GDrive notebook!

## 10.5. 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
```

```
char a, A;
scanf("%c %c", &a, &A);
printf("The ASCII value of %c is %d\n", a, a);
printf("The ASCII value of %c is %d\n", A, A);
```

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

```
if (response == 'A' || response == 'a')
```

- Practice that using the GDrive notebook!

## 10.6. 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.

```
echo 5 > num
```

- [ ]

What does the code in [1](#) do? Will it run? What will the output be for our choice of input?

```
int response = 0;
scanf("%d", &response);
if ( response < 1 || response > 10 ) {
    puts("Number not in range.");
} else {
    puts("Number in range.");
}
```

- Head to the practice notebook for some challenging exercises!

## 11. The switch structure

- The switch statement is fairly complex: it combines conditional expressions, constant expressions, default and break statements.

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

- **Controlling expression:** an integer expression in parentheses, like (5). Characters are treated as integers in C and cannot be tested, so ( 'a' ) is not allowed.
- **Case labels:** each case begins with a constant expression, like Case 5: - this is like any other expression except that it cannot contain variables or function calls.
- **Statements:** any number of statements. No braces required around the statements. The last statement is usually break to close the case.

### 11.1. Simple example

- In the example code [1](#), the grade is set in the variable declaration. Depending on the value, a case is triggered and the corresponding statements are executed.
- [ ]

What is the output of the code in [1](#) for different values:

VALUE	OUTPUT
5	Failing
3	Passing
0	Illegal grade
-1	Illegal grade
0.5	Illegal grade

What does the program implement?

```
int grade = 3;

switch (grade) {
case 4:
case 3:
case 2:
case 1:
    printf("Passing");
    break;
case 5:
case 6:
    printf("Failing");
    break;
default:
    printf("Illegal grade");
}
```

```
    break;
}
```

Passing

- [ ]

Q: Which problem/solution set does the program implement?

Answer: The program reflects "passing" grades 4,3,2,1, and "failing" grade 0. Any other grade value is not allowed. (This happens to be the European grade scale, which is A = 1 to D = 4, and F = 5 or 6.)

- You can also put several case labels on the same line as in [1](#), which is otherwise identical to [1](#).

```
int grade = 3;

switch (grade) {
    case 4: case 3: case 2: case 1:
        printf("Passing");
        break;
    case 5: case 6:
        printf("Failing");
        break;
    default:
        printf("Illegal grade");
        break;
}
```

Passing

- Note: You cannot write a case label for a range of values.
- The default case (when none of the case expressions apply) is optional, and it does not have to come last.

## 11.2. The role of the break statement

- The switch statement is a controlled jump. The case label is but a marker indicating a position within the switch.
- [ ]

Let's run the previous program again, without the break statements. What do you think the output will be?

```
int grade = 3;

switch (grade) {
    case 4:
    case 3:
    case 2:
    case 1:
        printf("Passing");
    case 5:
    case 6:
        printf("Failing");
    default:
        printf("Illegal grade");
}
```

Passing Failing Illegal grade

- [ ]

What happens without the break statements?

Answer: When the last statement in a case has been executed, control falls through to the first statement in the following case; its case label is ignored. Without break (or some other jump statement, like return or goto, control flows from one case to the next.

- Deliberate falling through (omission of break) should be indicated with an explicit comment.
- Let's practice - head over to [switch.org](https://switch.org) in GDrive for some exercises.

## 12. References

- Davenport/Vine (2015) C Programming for the Absolute Beginner (3ed). Cengage Learning.
- GVSUmath (Aug 10, 2012). Proving Logical Equivalences without Truth Tables [video]. [URL: youtu.be/iPbLzl2kMHA](https://youtu.be/iPbLzl2kMHA).
- Kernighan/Ritchie (1978). The C Programming Language (1st). Prentice Hall.
- King (2008). C Programming - A modern approach (2e). W A Norton.
- Orgmode.org (n.d.). 16 Working with Source Code [website]. [URL: orgmode.org](https://orgmode.org)

## Footnotes:

<sup>1</sup> Only from R version 4.1 - before that, you have to use the magrittr pipe operator %>%.

<sup>2</sup> In Org mode, you can use the language as an example header argument to enable syntax highlighting. For pseudocode, this will of course not work perfectly, since most syntax elements are not in C.

<sup>3</sup> Undeclared variable health, missing closure semi-colons after the statements, functions Drink and Resume not known, and more.

<sup>4</sup> Algebra is the branch of mathematics that allows you to represent problems in the form of abstract, or formal, expressions. The abstraction is encapsulated in the notion of a variable (an expression of changing value), and of an operator acting on one or more variables (a function having the variable as an argument, and using it to compute something).

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

<sup>6</sup> ASCII stands for the [American Standard Code for Information Interchange](https://www.unicode.org/faq/other/00.html).

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