Chapter 4 Selection Structures: Making Decisions

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4.1 An Introduction to Selection Structures

Single-alternative (If-Then)

• A single block of statements to be executed or skipped

Dual-alternative (If-Then-Else)

 $\circ\,$ Two blocks of statements, one of which is to be executed, while the other one is to be skipped

Multiple-alternative (If-Then-Else-If or Case/Switch)

 More than two blocks of statements, only one of which is to be executed and the rest skipped

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Single Alternative

If something is true Then

Do something (any

number of statements)

End If

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Dual Alternative

If something is true Then
Do something

Else

Do something else

End If

Write "How old are you?"
Input Age

If Age >= 18
 Set Eligibility = "Yes"
 Write "You can vote."

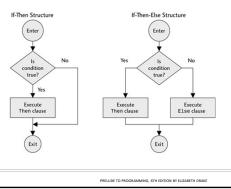
Else

Set Eligibility = "No"
Write "You're too young."

End If

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Flowcharts for Selection Structures: Single Alternative and Dual Alternatives



Flowcharts for Selection Structures: Multiple Alternative Value of condition value of condition value of case 1 Execute Case 1 Execute Case 2 Execute Case 7 FRELUGE TO PROCRAMMING. 611 EDITION BY ELIZABETH DRASE

Guidelines

- ➤ An Else condition does not have to exist. Sometimes we only want to do something if something is true and do nothing if it is not true.
- > Do not manufacture alternative conditions.
- > In an If statement, the body of the If is executed if, and only if, the test condition is true. Otherwise, no action is taken.
- > Be sure to indent for readability.

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Example: two ways to write a test condition

Write "Do you have any children? ↔

Type Y for yes, N for no"

Input Response

If Response is "Y" Then

Write "How many?"

Input NumberChildren

End If

Write "Questionnaire is complete. ↔

Thank you."

Write "Do you have any children?

Type Y for yes, N for no"

Input Response

If Response is not "N" Then

Write "How many?"

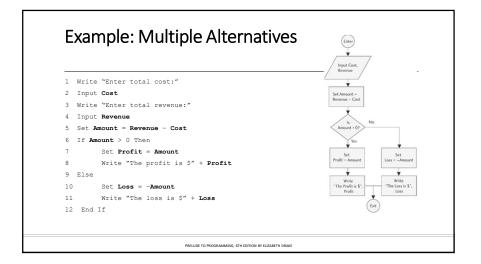
Input NumberChildren

End If

Write "Questionnaire is complete.

Thank you."

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4.2 Relational and Logical Operators

Decision making involves testing a condition

To help construct these conditions use

- ∘relational operators
- ological operators

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Relational Operators

Relational operators are the symbols used in the condition to be evaluated in **If** statements:

- == is the same as (the comparison operator)
- != is not the same as (not equal to)
- < less than
- > greater than
- <= less than or equal to
- >= greater than or equal to

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Example

```
Assume the variables A and B have the values:
```

A = 9, B = 6

Then the If statement:

If A > B Then

Write A + "is greater than" + B

End If

can be read:

"If it is true that the value of the variable ${\bf A}$ is greater than the value of the variable ${\bf B}$, then write the value of ${\bf B}$ to the screen."

The display will be:

9 is greater than 6

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More examples:

Given: A = 23, B = 16

Then:

A > B is true

A < B is false

A >= Bistrue

A <= Bisfalse

A != Bistrue

A == Bisfalse

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Comparison vs. Assignment Operators

There is a significant difference between the use of an equals sign (=) as the assignment operator and a double equals sign (==) as the comparison operator.

As an **assignment operator**, the equals sign sets the value of an expression on the right side to the variable on the left side.

As a **comparison operator**, the double equals sign asks the question, "Is the value of the variable on the left side the same as the value of the expression, number, or variable on the right side?"

a single equals sign (=) signifies the assignment operator

a double equals sign (==) signifies the comparison operator

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The Assignment Operator

Given:

A = 14, B = 27

In programming code, the assignment statement:

 $\mathbf{A} = \mathbf{B}$

sets the value of B to the variable A.

In other words, after this statement is executed, both $\mathbf{A} = 27$ and $\mathbf{B} = 27$.

In this case, the equals sign is used as an **assignment operator**.

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The Comparison Operator

Given

A = 14, B = 27

Using relational operators, the statement:

A == B

is a comparison.

This statement asks the question, "Is the value of ${\bf A}$ the same as the value of ${\bf B}$?" In this case, since ${\bf A}$ and ${\bf B}$ have different values, the answer is "no" and the statement would result in a value of False.

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Two ways to obtain a positive result

If Number >= 0 Then
 Write Number
Else
 Set PosNum = -Number
 Write PosNum
End If

If Number < 0 Then
 Set PosNum = -Number
 Write PosNum
Else
 Write Number
End If</pre>

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Be careful! Do these two give the same result?

If Age > 16 Then
Write "You can drive!"

Else
Write "Sorry, you'red too young."

End If

If Age < 16 Then

Write "Sorry, you're too young."

Else

Write "You can drive!"

End If

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Logical Operators

- > Logical operators are used to connect simple conditions into a more complex condition called a **compound condition**.
- > The simple conditions each contain one relational operator.
- > Using compound conditions reduces the amount of code that must be written.
- > Three logical operators we will use: AND, OR, NOT

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Logical operators can save space: The following are equivalent

Input X
If X < 5 Then
 Write "OK"
End If
If X > 10 Then
 Write "OK"
End If

Input \mathbf{X} If $(\mathbf{X} < 5)$ OR $(\mathbf{X} > 10)$ Then Write "OK" End If

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The **AND** Operator

A compound condition consisting of two simple conditions joined by an **AND** is true only if both simple conditions are true.

It is false if even one of the conditions is false.

The statement:

If
$$(\mathbf{X} > 5)$$
 AND $(\mathbf{X} < 10)$ Then ...

is true only if \mathbf{x} is 6, 7, 8, or 9. It has to be both greater than 5 and less than 10 at the same time.

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The **OR** Operator

A compound condition consisting of two simple conditions joined by an **OR** is true if even one of the simple conditions is true.

It is false only if both are false.

For example:

If (Response
$$==$$
"Y") OR (Response $==$ "y") Then ...

This is true if **Response** is uppercase ('Y') or lowercase ('Y'). For the above condition to be false, **Response** would have to be something other than either 'Y' or 'Y'.

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The **NOT** Operator

AND and **OR** affect 2 simple conditions.

NOT affects only one condition. If you need to negate more than one simple condition, you will need more than one **NOT**.

A condition with the **NOT** operator is true only if the condition is false.

NOT
$$(A < B)$$

is true only if B is greater than or equal to A.

If
$$(\mathbf{X} > 100)$$
 AND NOT $(\mathbf{X} == \mathbf{Y})$ Then...

is true only if \boldsymbol{x} is greater than 100 but not equal to the value of \boldsymbol{y} .

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Truth Tables for OR, AND, and NOT Operators

х	Y	X OR Y	X AND Y	NOT X
true	true	true	true	false
true	false	true	false	false
false	true	true	false	true
false	false	false	false	true

1-24

Hints

In a compound condition, it is necessary to use complete simple conditions.

This is correct:

If
$$(\mathbf{X} < 5)$$
 OR $(\mathbf{X} > 10)$ Then ...

This is not correct:

If
$$(\mathbf{X} < 5 \text{ OR} > 10)$$
 Then ...

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Example: First way using AND

Workers who earn less than \$10 per hour are paid 1.5 times their normal rate for overtime hours. Workers who earn \$10 or more per hour are paid their regular hourly rate regardless of number hours worked. Working more than 40 hours per week is considered overtime.

```
1 If (PayRate < 10) AND (Hours > 40) Then
2 Set OvertimeHours = Hours - 40
```

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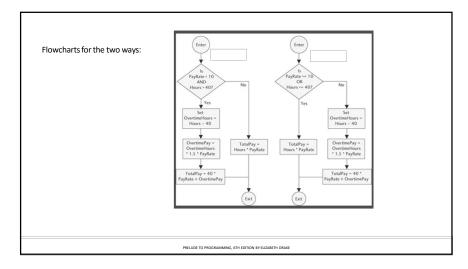
Example: Second way using OR

Workers who earn less than \$10 per hour are paid 1.5 times their normal rate for overtime hours.

Workers who earn \$10 or more per hour are paid their regular hourly rate regardless of number hours worked.

Working more than 40 hours per week is considered overtime.

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Hierarchy of Operations (Order of Precedence)

Description	Symbol
Arithmetic Operators are evaluated first in the order listed	
First: Parentheses	()
Second: Exponents	^
Third: Multiplication / Division / Modulus	*, /, %
Fourth: Addition / Subtraction	+-
Relational Operators are evaluated second and all relational operators have the same precedence	
Less than	<
Less than or equal to	<=
Greater than	>
Greater than or equal to	>=
The same as, equal to	
Not the same as	!=
Logical Operators are evaluated last in the order listed	
First: NOT	! or NOT or not
Second: AND	&& or AND or and
Third: OR	or OR or or

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Combining Logical and Relational Operators

Example:

Let Q = 3 and let R = 5

Is the following expression true or false?

NOT $\mathbf{Q} > 3$ Or $\mathbf{R} < 3$ AND $\mathbf{Q} - \mathbf{R} <= 0$

Step 1: (NOT(false)) OR (false AND true)

Step 2: true OR (false AND true)

Step 3: true OR false

Step 4: true

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The Boolean Type

Most programming languages allow variables to be of logical (or Boolean) type.

A Boolean variable may only be either true or false.

Example: Can declare a variable, Answer, to be of Boolean type and use it in a statement anywhere that a value of true or false is valid, such as the following C++ snippet:

bool Answer;

Answer = true;

if(Answer) cout << "Congratulations!";</pre>

This means: If the value of ${\tt Answer}$ is true, then write "Congratulations!" to the screen.

The following C++ statement is equivalent to the if statement shown above and may be clearer:

if (Answer == "true") cout << "Congratulations!";</pre>

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4.3 ASCII Code and Comparing Strings

- A character can be defined as any symbol that can be typed on the keyboard.
- > These symbols include special characters like asterisks (*), ampersands (&), @ signs, as well as letters, digits, punctuation marks, and blank spaces.
- > There is a more precise definition of a character using how characters are represented in a computer's memory.
- > Relational operators <, <=, >, !=,==, and >= can be applied to any string of characters.

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ASCII Code

- > A programming language uses a scheme to associate each character with a number.
- > The standard is the American Standard Code for Information Interchange (ASCII code).
- > All data, including characters, are stored in the computer's memory in binary form.
- > It is pronounced "askey."
- ➤ Each character is associated with a number from 0 to 127.

Examples:

Uppercase A is 65

Uppercase Z is 90

Digits have codes from 48 ("0") to 57 ("9")

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Ordering Arbitrary Strings

- Letters are in alphabetical order.
- > All uppercase letters precede all lowercase letters.
- > Digits (viewed as characters) retain their natural order.

> The blank precedes all digits and letters.

Examples: All of the following conditions are true:

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Rules for Ordering Strings

Two strings, **S1** and **S2**, are equal (**S1** == **S2**) if they have exactly the same characters in exactly the same order; they are not equal (**S1** != **S2**) otherwise. To see which of two unequal strings comes first, use the following procedure:

- **1.** Scan strings from left to right, stopping at the first position for which the corresponding characters differ or when one of the strings ends.
- **2.** If two corresponding characters differ before either string ends, the ordering of these characters determines the ordering of the given strings.
- **3.** If one string ends before any pair of corresponding characters differ, then the shorter string precedes the longer one.

When applying this procedure, the following is true:

- If string S1 precedes string S2, then S1 < S2.
- If string S1 follows string S2, then S1 > S2.

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Beware of Strings of Digits

- A character string may be numbers like "123". But "123" is not the same as 123.
- The numeric constant is stored in memory by storing the binary equivalent of 123, but the string constant is stored in memory by successively storing the ASCII codes for "1", "2", and "3".

There is no mechanism to compare numbers with strings so, if the variable (Num) is a numeric variable, statements like the following:

make no sense, and will lead to an error message if used in a program.

Also, using the procedure given for ordering strings, we see that:

are both true statements!

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4.4 Selecting from Several Alternatives

To handle more than two options in a program we use multiple If-Then statements or multiple If-Then-Else statements.

```
If (something is true) Then
Do something

Else

If (something else is true) Then
Do something else
Else
Do a different something else
End If
```

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Example

```
If Age >= 18 Then
   Set Eligibility = "Yes"
Else
   If Age > 15 Then
        Set Eligibility = "Maybe"
   Else
        Set Eligibility = "No"
   End If
```

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Hints

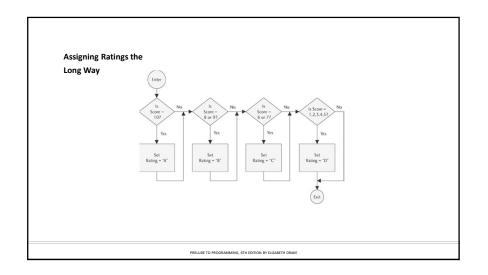
- > The number of End If's must equal the number of If's.
- > You can draw a line to connect them to check.
- \succ In the previous example, the check for Age > 15 will never be done if the Age is >= 18.
- > Regardless of how many possible conditions are included, only one will ever be executed.

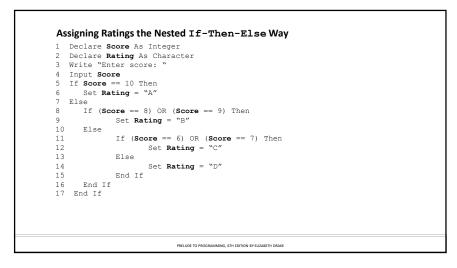
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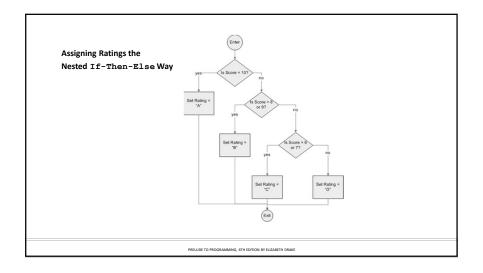
Assigning Ratings the Long Way

```
1 Declare Score As Integer
2 Declare Rating As Character
3 Write "Enter score: "
4 Input Score
5 If Score == 10 Then
6 Set Rating = "A"
7 End If
8 If (Score == 8) OR (Score == 9) Then
9 Set Rating = "B"
10 End If
11 If (Score == 6) OR (Score == 7) Then
12 Set Rating = "C"
13 End If
14 If (Score >= 1) AND (Score <= 5) Then
15 Set Rating = "D"
16 End If</pre>
```

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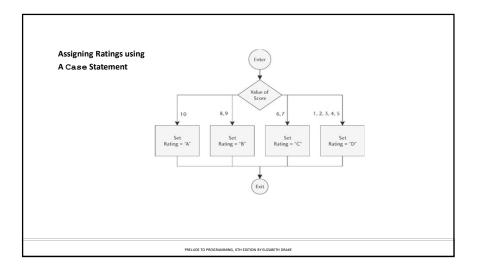


Using Case-Like (or Switch) Statements Select Case Of ??? test expression to be evaluated Case 1st value: Statements execute if test expression is a match Break out of Cases Case 2nd value: execute if test expression is a match Statements Break out of Cases Case 3rd value: Statements execute if test expression is a match Break out of Cases all the rest of the values that can be chosen Case nth value: Statements execute if test expression is a match Break out of Cases Default: execute if test expression does not match any of the above End Case PRELUDE TO PROGRAMMING, 6TH EDITION BY ELIZABETH DRAKE

Assigning Ratings Using a Case Statement 1 Declare Score As Integer

```
2 Declare Rating As Character
3 Write "Enter score: "
4 Input Score
5 Select Case Of Score
      Case 10:
             Set Rating = "A"
             Break
      Case 8, 9:
10
             Set Rating = "B"
11
             Break
      Case 6, 7:
13
             Set Rating = "C"
14
             Set Rating = "D"
16
17
             Break
18 End Case
```

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4.5 Applications of Selection Structures

Defensive Programming:

Program defensively in order to prevent bad data from entering our program. To do this, set ${\it error}$ traps.

If our program should accept only a ${\tt Cost}$ greater than ${\tt 0}$, we can stop any other value from entering with the following trap:

```
Input Cost
If Cost <= 0 Then
     Write "Invalid cost"
Else
     Write "The cost is " + Cost
End If</pre>
```

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Error Trap for a Division by Zero Error

The reciprocal of a number is 1 divided by that number. But division by zero is not allowed ao the reciprocal of 0 is undefined. The following example will display the reciprocal of any number:

```
Write "Enter a number."

Write "This program will display its reciprocal."

Input Number

If Number != 0 Then

Set Reciprocal = 1/Number

Write "The reciprocal of "+ Number + " is "+ Reciprocal

Else

Write "The reciprocal of 0 is not defined."

End If
```

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Avoiding Illegal Operations: the Sqrt () function

The following program segment displays the square root of a number unless the number is negative:

```
Write "Enter a number:"
Write "This program will display its square root."
Input Number
If Number >= 0 Then
Write "The square root of " + Number + " is " + + 
Sqrt(Number)

Else
Write "The square root of " + Number + " is not defined."
End If
```

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Defensive Programming

- Be sure to test your program by "playing computer."
- ➤ This is also called "desk checking."
- > Perform all calculations multiple times manually or with a calculator.
- > Use data that will show the results when each branch of each selection structure is executed at least once.
- > Check for division by zero, negative values for a square root function, and any other special conditions.

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Menu-Driven Programs

- ➤ A major goal of a programmer is to create **user friendly** programs.
- > When the user has many options, menus are often used.
- > Such programs are menu-driven.
- > Menus are usually arranged in a row near the top of the screen.
- > The user clicks the mouse on the desired choice.
- > The **main menu** (a list of the program's major functions) is usually the first thing the user sees.

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Sample Menu

The Legendary Lawn Mower Company Inventory Control

Leave the program Enter 0

Add an item to the list Enter 1

Delete an item from the list Enter 2

Change an item on the list Enter 3

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