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# Computer Science I

## Functions & Pointers

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# Part I: Introduction

- A function produces an *output* when given an *input* or *inputs*

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- In math:

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- It can only ever produce at most *one* output
- It may take any number of inputs (including none!)
- Functions in code are similar and use familiar “syntax”

# Functions in Code

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- In code, a *function* is a reusable unit of code that may take input(s) and may produce an output

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- In code, a *function* is a reusable unit of code that may take input(s) and may produce an output
- Familiar functions: `main()`, `printf()`, `sqrt()`

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```

1  int main(int argc, char **argv) {
2
3      double x = 2.0;
4      double y = sqrt(x);
5
6      return 0;
7  }
```

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- You *call* or *invoke* a function
- Functions can be called inside other functions
- Function  $A$  (“calling function”) calls function  $B$

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- You *call* or *invoke* a function
- Functions can be called inside other functions
- Function  $A$  (“calling function”) calls function  $B$
- A function may “return” a value to the calling function



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- Functions facilitate *code reuse*

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- Functions facilitate *code reuse*
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- Procedural abstraction: designing and using functions allows you to abstract the details of how a block of code or algorithm works
- Functions *encapsulate* functionality into reusable, abstract code blocks
- Example: how does `sqrt()` work?

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- Standard libraries and external libraries are full of useful functions

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- Standard libraries and external libraries are full of useful functions
- Well tested, well designed, efficient and optimized

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- Standard libraries and external libraries are full of useful functions
- Well tested, well designed, efficient and optimized
- Functions are fundamental to top-down design

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- Standard libraries and external libraries are full of useful functions
- Well tested, well designed, efficient and optimized
- Functions are fundamental to top-down design
- Problem solving: first question you ask is “is this problem already solved?”



# Functions in C

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- Functions must be declared before they can be used

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- Declare a function using a *prototype* that specifies the function's *signature*
- Signature:
  - Name of the function (*identifier*)
  - A list of its *parameters* or *arguments*; both the *number* and *type*
  - The function's *return* type: the type of data the function returns

# Prototype Example

```
1  /**
2   *  This function computes the Euclidean distance between
3   *  the two points defined by (x1, y1) and (x2, y2)
4   */
5  double euclideanDistance(double x1, double y1, double x2, double y2);
```

Syntax and style:

- Documented using doc-style comments (DRY)

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## Syntax and style:

- Documented using doc-style comments (DRY)
- Return type
- Identifier: use `lowerCamelCasing`
- Comma delimited list of parameters and their type
- Prototype ends with a semicolon and has no function *body*

# Definition Example

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1  double euclideanDistance(double x1, double y1, double x2, double y2) {  
2  
3      double temp = sqrt( (x1 - x2) * (x1 - x2) + (y1 - y2) * (y1 - y2) );  
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- Signature is repeated but a function *body* is included

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- Observe: functions call functions
- Demonstration



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# Part II: Modularity

## Writing modular code, creating libraries

- Modularity refers to the degree to which a system's components can be separated and recombined or reused

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- Modularity refers to the degree to which a system's components can be separated and recombined or reused
- In software, this means separating functionality (functions) into independent interchangeable modules or "libraries"
- Separation allows you to organize very complex programs with thousands or millions of LOCs
- Programs only "include" the functionality they actually need

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- In C, libraries are separated out into different files

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- In C, libraries are separated out into different files
- Prototypes are placed in a *header* file (ends with `.h`)

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- In C, libraries are separated out into different files
- Prototypes are placed in a *header* file (ends with `.h`)
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- In C, libraries are separated out into different files
- Prototypes are placed in a *header* file (ends with `.h`)
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- `stdio.h`, `math.h`

- In C, libraries are separated out into different files
- Prototypes are placed in a *header* file (ends with `.h`)
- Definitions are placed in a *source* file (ends with `.c`)
- `stdio.h`, `math.h`
- You can then `#include` your own libraries!

- Separate our distance functionality into:

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- Separate our distance functionality into:
  - Header: `distance.h`

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- Separate our distance functionality into:
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- Compile separate modules:
  - Compile our distance library:  
`gcc -c distance.c`  
produces an *object* file, `distance.o`

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  - Use the same base file name
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- Compile separate modules:
  - Compile our distance library:  
`gcc -c distance.c`  
produces an *object* file, `distance.o`
  - Compile the entire program together including the library files:  
`gcc distance.o distanceDriver.c`

- Separate our distance functionality into:
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  - Source: `distance.c`
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- Include the header file in our main: for *user defined libraries* we generally use `#include "distance.h"`
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`gcc -c distance.c`  
produces an *object* file, `distance.o`
  - Compile the entire program together including the library files:  
`gcc distance.o distanceDriver.c`
- Add additional distance-related functionality

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# Part III: Pitfalls & Other Issues

# Void functions

- Functions are not required to return a value

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# Void functions

- Functions are not required to return a value
- Functions that do not return a value are called `void` functions

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# Void functions

- Functions are not required to return a value
- Functions that do not return a value are called `void` functions
- Keyword `void` is used as the return type

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- Keyword `void` is used as the return type
- Example: `void swap(int a, int b);`

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- Keyword `void` is used as the return type
- Example: `void swap(int a, int b);`
- Return statement should still be included: `return;`

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# Void functions

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- Example: `void swap(int a, int b);`
- Return statement should still be included: `return;`
- Functions are not required to take inputs

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- Example: `void swap(int a, int b);`
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- Functions are not required to take inputs
- Functions that do not have any inputs are no-arg functions

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- Functions are not required to return a value
- Functions that do not return a value are called `void` functions
- Keyword `void` is used as the return type
- Example: `void swap(int a, int b);`
- Return statement should still be included: `return;`
- Functions are not required to take inputs
- Functions that do not have any inputs are no-arg functions
- Example: `int foo(void);`

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- Functions are not required to return a value
- Functions that do not return a value are called `void` functions
- Keyword `void` is used as the return type
- Example: `void swap(int a, int b);`
- Return statement should still be included: `return;`
- Functions are not required to take inputs
- Functions that do not have any inputs are no-arg functions
- Example: `int foo(void);`
- Better practice to omit `void`:  
`int foo();`

# Function Overloading

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- Some languages support *Function Overloading*

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- Some languages support *Function Overloading*
- *Function Overloading*: multiple functions may share the same identifier (name) as long as they differ in the number or type of parameters

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- Some languages support *Function Overloading*
- *Function Overloading*: multiple functions may share the same identifier (name) as long as they differ in the number or type of parameters
- C does *not* support function overloading



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- Some languages support *Function Overloading*
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- C does *not* support function overloading
- Consequence: functions that do the same thing but with different types all need unique names

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- Example: `abs(int)` , `fabs(double)` , `labs(long)`

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- *Function Overloading*: multiple functions may share the same identifier (name) as long as they differ in the number or type of parameters
- C does *not* support function overloading
- Consequence: functions that do the same thing but with different types all need unique names
- Example: `abs(int)`, `fabs(double)`, `labs(long)`
- Must take care when naming functions so as not to *pollute the namespace*

# Missing Return Statements

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- Common mistake: forgetting to include the `return` statement

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- Can be easily avoided using the `-Wall` flag

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# Common Compilation Failures

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- Must use `#include` and you *only* ever include header files



# Common Compilation Failures

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Keyword: void  
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- Must use `#include` and you *only* ever include header files
- Prototypes should always be included

# Common Compilation Failures

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- Must use `#include` and you *only* ever include header files
- Prototypes should always be included
- Prototype and definition signatures *must* match

# Common Compilation Failures

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- Must use `#include` and you *only* ever include header files
- Prototypes should always be included
- Prototype and definition signatures *must* match
- Demonstration

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# Part IV: How Functions Work

# How Functions Work

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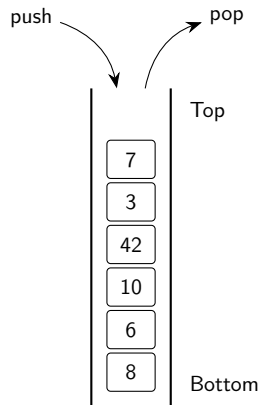
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- Programs have a *program stack*

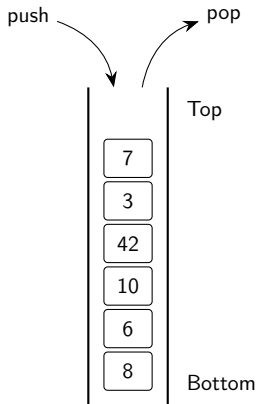
# How Functions Work

- Programs have a *program stack*
- Stack: Last-In First-Out (LIFO)



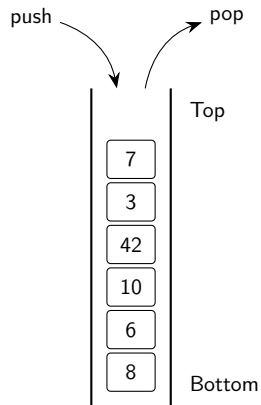
# How Functions Work

- Programs have a *program stack*
- Stack: Last-In First-Out (LIFO)
- Push: add something to the top



# How Functions Work

- Programs have a *program stack*
- Stack: Last-In First-Out (LIFO)
- Push: add something to the top
- Pop: remove something from the top





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- At the start of a program, a program call stack is created

# Program Stack

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- At the start of a program, a program call stack is created
- At the bottom, the program code is loaded

# Program Stack

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- At the start of a program, a program call stack is created
- At the bottom, the program code is loaded
- Global variables and static content are added

# Program Stack

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- At the start of a program, a program call stack is created
- At the bottom, the program code is loaded
- Global variables and static content are added
- As functions are called, a new stack frame is created

# Program Stack

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- At the start of a program, a program call stack is created
- At the bottom, the program code is loaded
- Global variables and static content are added
- As functions are called, a new stack frame is created
- Each frame contains: parameters, local variables, etc.

# Program Stack

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- At the start of a program, a program call stack is created
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- Each frame contains: parameters, local variables, etc.
- When a function returns, the frame is popped from the top of the call stack

# Program Stack

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- At the start of a program, a program call stack is created
- At the bottom, the program code is loaded
- Global variables and static content are added
- As functions are called, a new stack frame is created
- Each frame contains: parameters, local variables, etc.
- When a function returns, the frame is popped from the top of the call stack
- Data and variables in each frame is distinct and separate

# Program Stack

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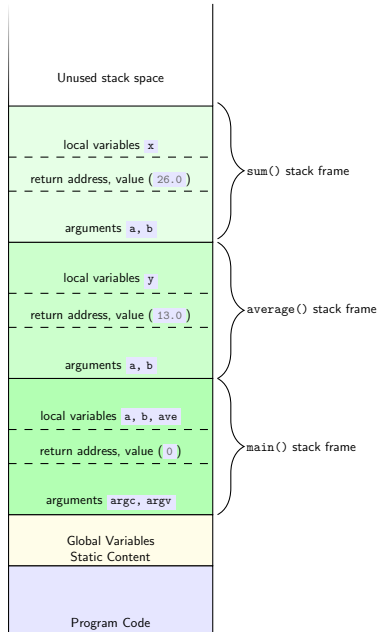
```

1  double sum(double a, double b) {
2      double x = a + b;
3      return x;
4  }
5
6  double average(double a, double b) {
7      double y = sum(a, b) / 2.0;
8      return y;
9  }
10
11 int main(int argc, char **argv) {
12     double a = 10.0, b = 16.0;
13     double ave = average(a, b);
14     printf("average = %f\n", ave);
15     return 0;
16 }
```



## Stack orientation

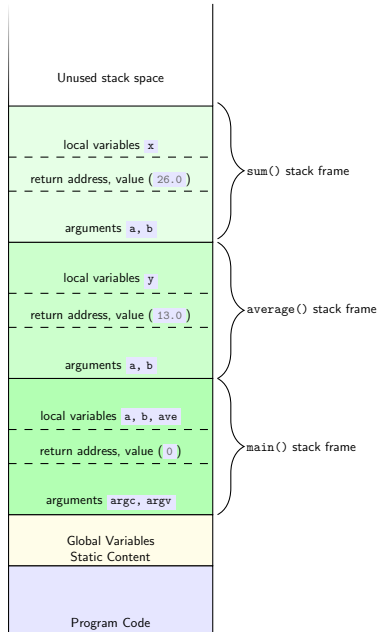
Top of the stack (low memory)



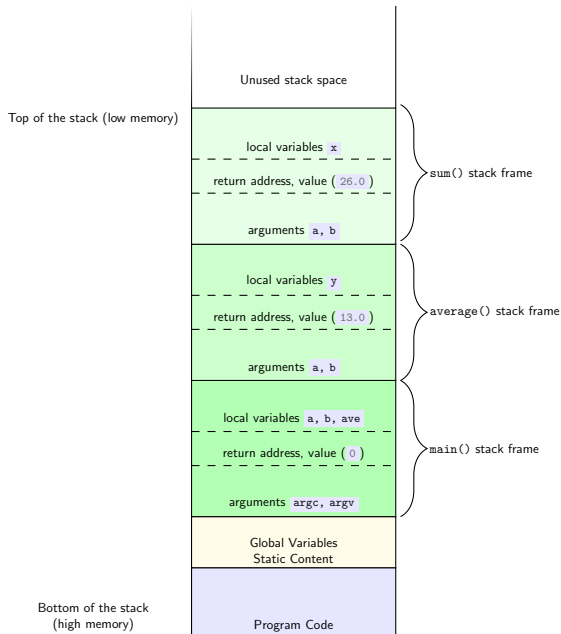
Bottom of the stack  
(high memory)

Top of the stack (low memory)

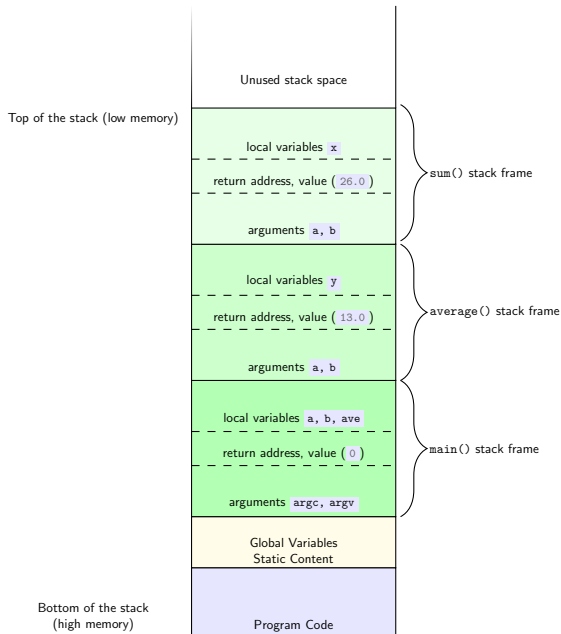
Bottom of the stack  
(high memory)



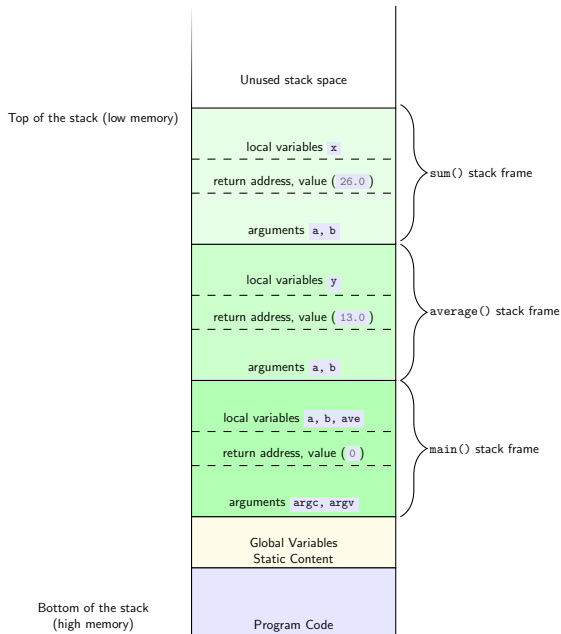
- Stack orientation
- Each function has its own stack frame



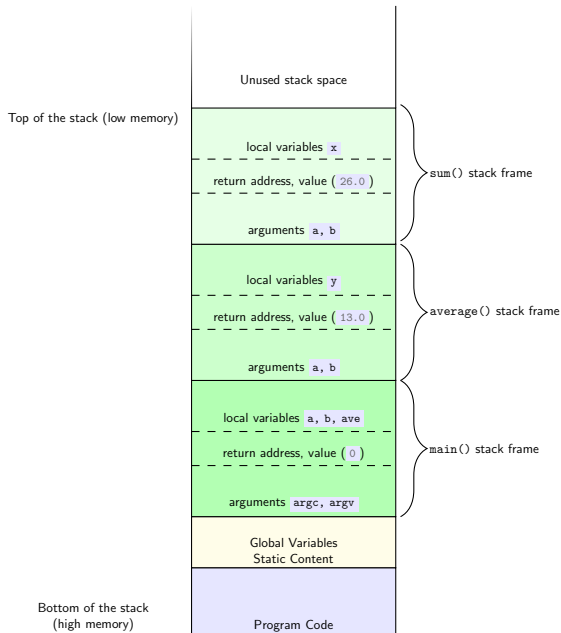
- Stack orientation
- Each function has its own stack frame
- Parameters/arguments are *passed by value* to the function



- Stack orientation
- Each function has its own stack frame
- Parameters/arguments are *passed by value* to the function
- The values stored in the variables are copied into variables in a new stack frame



- Stack orientation
- Each function has its own stack frame
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- As functions return, stack frames are removed



- Stack orientation
- Each function has its own stack frame
- Parameters/arguments are *passed by value* to the function
- The values stored in the variables are copied into variables in a new stack frame
- As functions return, stack frames are removed
- Live demonstration

Consider the following code that attempts to swap two values:

```
1  void swap(int a, int b) {
2      int temp = a;
3      a = b;
4      b = temp;
5      return;
6  }
```

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# Part V: Pointers



# Memory

- Every piece of data in a computer is stored in memory

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- Every piece of data in a computer is stored in memory
- Memory has both an *address* and *contents*

Address	Contents
0x7fff58310b87	0x01
0x7fff58310b86	0x32
0x7fff58310b85	0x7c
0x7fff58310b84	0xff
0x7fff58310b83	3.14159265359
0x7fff58310b82	
0x7fff58310b81	
0x7fff58310b80	
0x7fff58310b7f	
0x7fff58310b7e	
0x7fff58310b7d	
0x7fff58310b7c	
0x7fff58310b7b	32,321,231
0x7fff58310b7a	
0x7fff58310b79	
0x7fff58310b78	
0x7fff58310b77	1,458,321
0x7fff58310b76	
0x7fff58310b75	
0x7fff58310b74	

- In C, you can access memory *contents* with variables

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# Pointers

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- In C, you can access memory *contents* with variables
- You can access memory *addresses* with *pointers*

# Pointers

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- In C, you can access memory *contents* with variables
- You can access memory *addresses* with *pointers*
- A pointer is a memory reference that “points” to some memory address

- In C, you can access memory *contents* with variables
- You can access memory *addresses* with *pointers*
- A pointer is a memory reference that “points” to some memory address
- Syntax:

```
1 //regular variable:
2 int a = 10;
3
4 //an integer pointer variable:
5 int *ptrToA;
```

```
int *ptrToA;
```

- `ptrToA` is a pointer variable that can point to a memory location that stores an integer

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```
int *ptrToA;
```

- `ptrToA` is a pointer variable that can point to a memory location that stores an integer
- An *uninitialized pointer* may point to anything:

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# Pointers

```
int *ptrToA;
```

- `ptrToA` is a pointer variable that can point to a memory location that stores an integer
- An *uninitialized pointer* may point to anything:
  - Non-existent memory location

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```
int *ptrToA;
```

- `ptrToA` is a pointer variable that can point to a memory location that stores an integer
- An *uninitialized pointer* may point to anything:
  - Non-existent memory location
  - Memory location that doesn't belong to us

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int *ptrToA;
```

- `ptrToA` is a pointer variable that can point to a memory location that stores an integer
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  - Non-existent memory location
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  - `0xDEADBEEF`

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```
int *ptrToA;
```

- `ptrToA` is a pointer variable that can point to a memory location that stores an integer
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  - Non-existent memory location
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- Best practice to initialize pointers

```
int *ptrToA;
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- An *uninitialized pointer* may point to anything:
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- Best practice to initialize pointers
- The `NULL` pointer is a special pointer that indicates “nothing”

```
int *ptrToA;
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- `ptrToA` is a pointer variable that can point to a memory location that stores an integer
- An *uninitialized pointer* may point to anything:
  - Non-existent memory location
  - Memory location that doesn't belong to us
  - `0xDEADBEEF`
- Best practice to initialize pointers
- The `NULL` pointer is a special pointer that indicates “nothing”
- Initialization:

```
int *ptrToA = NULL;
```

- Pointer variables can be created for any type of variable.

```
1  int *ptrToA = NULL;  
2  double *ptrToB = NULL;  
3  char *ptrToC = NULL;
```

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- Pointer variables can be created for any type of variable.

```
1  int *ptrToA = NULL;  
2  double *ptrToB = NULL;  
3  char *ptrToC = NULL;
```

- You can also test for nullity:

```
1  if(ptrToA == NULL) {  
2      printf("Error: ptrA points to nothing!\n");  
3  }
```



# Pointers

## Other Types

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- Pointer variables can be created for any type of variable.

```
1  int *ptrToA = NULL;  
2  double *ptrToB = NULL;  
3  char *ptrToC = NULL;
```

- You can also test for nullity:

```
1  if(ptrToA == NULL) {  
2      printf("Error: ptrA points to nothing!\n");  
3  }
```

- Null pointer check

# Using Pointers

## Referencing Operator

- Need to be able to make a pointer *point* to something

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# Using Pointers

## Referencing Operator

- Need to be able to make a pointer *point* to something
- Usual assignment operator works, but *both sides must match*

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# Using Pointers

## Referencing Operator

- Need to be able to make a pointer *point* to something
- Usual assignment operator works, but *both sides must match*
- Referencing operator, `&` gives the *memory address* of a regular variable

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# Using Pointers

## Referencing Operator

- Need to be able to make a pointer *point* to something
- Usual assignment operator works, but *both sides must match*
- Referencing operator, `&` gives the *memory address* of a regular variable

```

1  int a = 42;
2  int *ptrToA = NULL;
3
4  //make ptrToA point to a:
5  ptrToA = &a;
```

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# Using Pointers

## Referencing Operator

- Need to be able to make a pointer *point* to something
- Usual assignment operator works, but *both sides must match*
- Referencing operator, `&` gives the *memory address* of a regular variable

```
1  int a = 42;  
2  int *ptrToA = NULL;  
3  
4  //make ptrToA point to a:  
5  ptrToA = &a;
```

```
1  double b = 10.5;  
2  double *ptrToB = NULL;  
3  ptrToB = &b;
```

- Types of pointer variables and what they point to *need to match*:

```
1  int a = 42;
2  double *dblPtr = NULL;
3  dblPtr = &a; //WRONG
```

- Types of pointer variables and what they point to *need to match*:

```
1  int a = 42;  
2  double *dblPtr = NULL;  
3  dblPtr = &a; //WRONG
```

- Pointers *must be assigned a valid memory address*

```
1  int a = 42;  
2  int *ptrToA = NULL;  
3  ptrToA = a; //WRONG!!  
4  ptrToA = 10; //SO WRONG!!
```



# Using Pointers

## Dereferencing Operator

- Once a pointer points to something, we need a way to get to the memory *contents*

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# Using Pointers

## Dereferencing Operator

- Once a pointer points to something, we need a way to get to the memory *contents*
- The *dereferencing operator*, `*` “changes” a pointer into a regular variable

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# Using Pointers

## Dereferencing Operator

- Once a pointer points to something, we need a way to get to the memory *contents*
- The *dereferencing operator*, `*` “changes” a pointer into a regular variable

```
1  int a = 42;  
2  int *ptrToA = &a;  
3  
4  int b = *ptrToA + 10;
```

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# Using Pointers

## Dereferencing Operator

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- Once a pointer points to something, we need a way to get to the memory *contents*
- The *dereferencing operator*, `*` “changes” a pointer into a regular variable

```
1  int a = 42;  
2  int *ptrToA = &a;  
3  
4  int b = *ptrToA + 10;
```

- You can also *change* the contents

```
1  *ptrToA = 43;
```

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- Pointer declaration:

```
int *ptr = NULL;
```

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- Pointer declaration:

```
int *ptr = NULL;
```

- Pointer initialization and referencing operator:

```
ptr = &a;
```

# Summary

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- Pointer declaration:

```
int *ptr = NULL;
```

- Pointer initialization and referencing operator:

```
ptr = &a;
```

- Dereferencing operator: `*ptr = 43;`

- Pointer declaration:

```
int *ptr = NULL;
```

- Pointer initialization and referencing operator:

```
ptr = &a;
```

- Dereferencing operator: `*ptr = 43;`

- Demonstration



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- Pointer declaration:

```
int *ptr = NULL;
```

- Pointer initialization and referencing operator:

```
ptr = &a;
```

- Dereferencing operator: `*ptr = 43;`

- Demonstration

- Why pointers?

- Pointer declaration:  

```
int *ptr = NULL;
```
- Pointer initialization and referencing operator:  

```
ptr = &a;
```
- Dereferencing operator: 

```
*ptr = 43;
```
- Demonstration
- Why pointers?
- So we can *pass variables by reference!!*

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# Part VI: Pass By Reference

# Pass By Reference

- Recall our swap function:

```

1  void swap(int a, int b) {
2      int temp = a;
3      a = b;
4      b = temp;
5      return;
6  }
```

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# Pass By Reference

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- Recall our swap function:

```
1 void swap(int a, int b) {
2     int temp = a;
3     a = b;
4     b = temp;
5     return;
6 }
```

- Failed because `a` and `b` were passed by value

# Pass By Reference

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- Recall our swap function:

```
1 void swap(int a, int b) {
2     int temp = a;
3     a = b;
4     b = temp;
5     return;
6 }
```

- Failed because `a` and `b` were passed by value
- Values were copied to separate local parameter variables

# Pass By Reference

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- Recall our swap function:

```
1 void swap(int a, int b) {
2     int temp = a;
3     a = b;
4     b = temp;
5     return;
6 }
```

- Failed because `a` and `b` were passed by value
- Values were copied to separate local parameter variables
- Using pointers, we can pass *references* to the variables instead

# Pass By Reference

- Parameters become pointer variables instead:

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# Pass By Reference

- Parameters become pointer variables instead:

```

1  void swap(int *a, int *b) {
2      int temp = *a;
3      *a = *b;
4      *b = temp;
5      return;
6  }
    
```

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# Pass By Reference

- Parameters become pointer variables instead:

```

1  void swap(int *a, int *b) {
2      int temp = *a;
3      *a = *b;
4      *b = temp;
5      return;
6  }

```

- You've actually seen this before!

# Pass By Reference

- Parameters become pointer variables instead:

```

1  void swap(int *a, int *b) {
2      int temp = *a;
3      *a = *b;
4      *b = temp;
5      return;
6  }

```

- You've actually seen this before!
- `scanf("%d", &x);`

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# Pass By Reference

- Parameters become pointer variables instead:

```

1 void swap(int *a, int *b) {
2     int temp = *a;
3     *a = *b;
4     *b = temp;
5     return;
6 }

```

- You've actually seen this before!
- `scanf("%d", &x);`
- Demonstration

# Pass By Reference

## Summary

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- Passing by reference means that *pointers* to variables are passed instead of copies

# Pass By Reference

## Summary

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- Passing by reference means that *pointers* to variables are passed instead of copies
- Functions can make changes that are *visible* to the calling function

# Pass By Reference

## Summary

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- Passing by reference means that *pointers* to variables are passed instead of copies
- Functions can make changes that are *visible* to the calling function
- Consequences:

# Pass By Reference

## Summary

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- Passing by reference means that *pointers* to variables are passed instead of copies
- Functions can make changes that are *visible* to the calling function
- Consequences:
  - Functions can have *side effects*



# Pass By Reference

## Summary

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- Passing by reference means that *pointers* to variables are passed instead of copies
- Functions can make changes that are *visible* to the calling function
- Consequences:
  - Functions can have *side effects*
  - Functions can “return” multiple values via pass-by-reference variables

# Pass By Reference

## Summary

Demonstration:

- 1 Modify one of our distance functions to utilize pass-by-reference
- 2 Implement a new function to calculate a line graph:

$$y = mx + b$$

Given  $(x_1, y_1), (x_2, y_2)$ , compute:

$$m = \frac{\Delta y}{\Delta x} = \frac{y_2 - y_1}{x_2 - x_1}$$

$$b = y_1 - mx_1$$

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