

# **CS1010E Lecture 6**

## **Modular Programming with Functions (Part 1)**

Joxan Jaffar

Block COM1, Room 3-11, +65 6516 7346

`www.comp.nus.edu.sg/~joxan`

`cs1101c@comp.nus.edu.sg`

Semester II, 2016/2017

# Lecture Outline

- Functions from the Standard C library.
- Programmer-defined functions
- Functions that generate random numbers.

# Modularity

- These **functions**, or **modules**, are sets of statements that perform an operation or compute a value.
- As your programs get longer, it is not good to just have **one** long `main` function.
- To maintain simplicity and readability in longer and more complex problem solutions, we develop programs that use a `main` function and **additional** functions.

# Modularity

Breaking a problem solution into a set of modules has many advantages.

- Each module has a specific purpose, so it can be written **separately** from the rest of the problem solution.
- Each module is smaller than the complete solution, so **testing** it is easier.
- Once a module has been carefully tested, it can be **re-used** in a new problem solution without being retested.

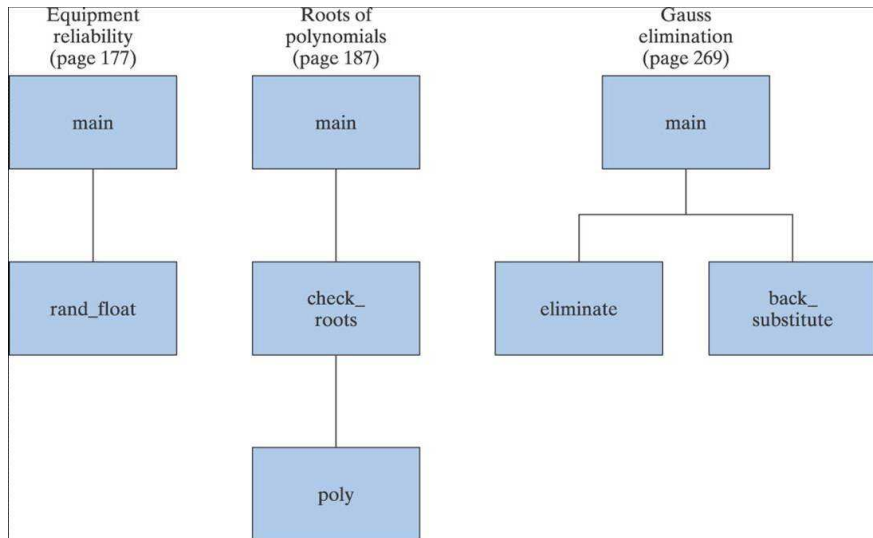
# Abstraction

- The use of modules supports the concept of **abstraction**.
- The modules contain the details of the tasks, and we can reference the modules without worrying about these details.
- The I/O diagrams we use in developing a problem solution are an example of abstraction—we specify the input information and the output information without giving details of how the output information is determined.
- We can think of modules as “black boxes” that have a specified input and that compute specified information.

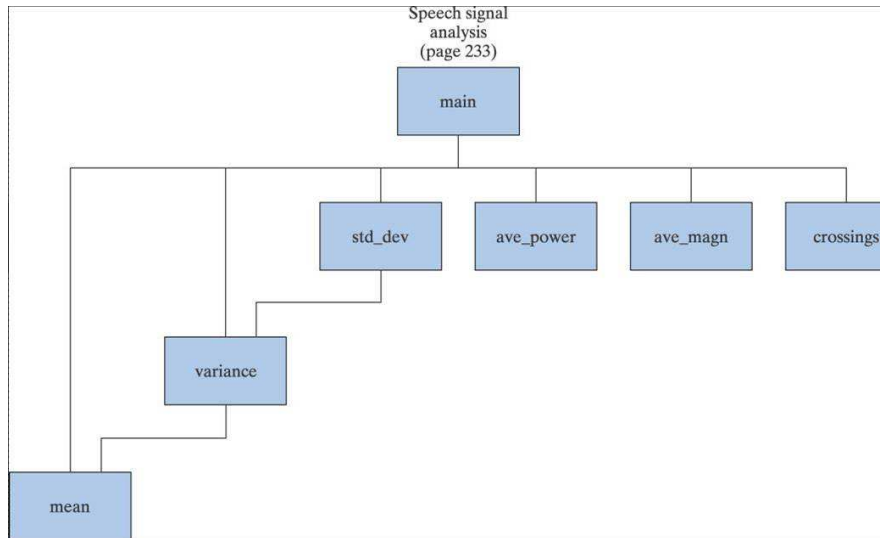
# Structure Charts

- **Structure charts**, or **module charts**, show the module structure of a program.
- The `main` function references additional functions, which may also reference other functions themselves.
- A structure chart does not indicate the sequence of steps that are contained in the decomposition outline.
- The structure chart shows the separation of the program tasks into modules and indicates which modules reference other modules.

# Pseudocode and Flowchart



# Pseudocode and Flowchart





# Programmer-Defined Functions

- Execution always begins with the `main` function.
- Additional functions are called, or **invoked**, when the program encounters function names.
- If the function is included in a system library file, such as the `sqrt` function, it is often called a **library function**. Others are called **programmer-written** or **programmer-defined functions**.
- After executing the statements in a function, the program execution continues after the statement that called the function.

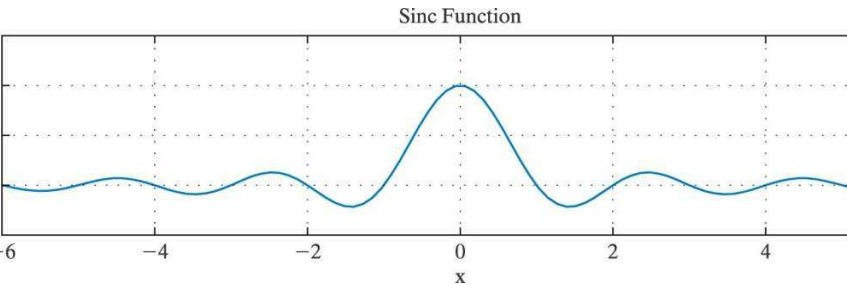
# Function Example

- The  $\text{sinc}(x)$  function is commonly used in many engineering applications.
- The most common definition for  $\text{sinc}(x)$  is:

$$\begin{aligned} f(x) &= \text{sinc}(x) \\ &= \frac{\sin(\pi x)}{\pi x}. \end{aligned}$$

- The  $\text{sinc}(x)$  is occasionally defined to be  $\frac{\sin(x)}{x}$ , but we will use the former definition.
- $\text{sinc}(0) = 1$ .

# The Sinc Function



# The Sinc Function

- Assume that we want to develop a program that allows the user to enter interval limits,  $a$  and  $b$ .
- The program should then compute and print 21 values of  $\text{sinc}(x)$  for values of  $x$  evenly spaced between  $a$  and  $b$ , inclusively.
- Thus, the first value of  $x$  should be  $a$ .
- An increment should then be added to obtain the next value of  $x$ , and so on, until the twenty-first value, which should be  $b$ .

# The Sinc Function

- Therefore, the increment in  $x$  is

$$x\_increment = \frac{\text{interval width}}{20} = \frac{b - a}{20}.$$

- Because  $\text{sinc}(x)$  is not part of the mathematical functions provided by the Standard C library, we implement this problem solution in two ways.
- In one solution, we include the statements to perform the computations of  $\text{sinc}(x)$  in the `main` function.
- In the other solution, we write a programmer-defined function to compute  $\text{sinc}(x)$ , and then reference the programmer-defined function each time that the computations are needed.

# Solution 1

```
/*-----*/
/*  Program chapter4_1                                */
/*                                                    */
/*  This program prints 21 values of the sinc          */
/*  function in the interval [a,b] using              */
/*  computations within the main function.            */
```

```
#include <stdio.h>
#include <math.h>
#define PI 3.141593
```

```
int main(void)
{
    /*  Declare variables.  */
    int k;
    double a, b, x_incr, new_x, sinc_x;
```

**Code on Next Slide**

```
/* Exit program. */
return 0;
}
```

# Body code for Solution 1

```
/* Get interval endpoints from the user. */
printf("Enter endpoints a and b (a<b): \n");
scanf("%lf %lf",&a,&b);
x_incr = (b - a)/20;

/* Compute and print table of sinc(x) values. */
printf("x and sinc(x) \n");
for (k=0; k<=20; k++)
{
    new_x = a + k*x_incr;
    if (fabs(new_x) < 0.0001)
        sinc_x = 1.0;
    else
        sinc_x = sin(PI*new_x)/(PI*new_x);
    printf("%f %f \n",new_x,sinc_x);
}
```

# Solution 2

```
/*-----*/
/* Program chapter4_2 */
/* */
/* Print 21 values of the sinc function in the interval */
/* [a,b] using a programmer-defined function. */

#include <stdio.h>
#include <math.h>
#define PI 3.141593

/* Declare function prototype. */
double sinc(double x);

int main(void)
{
    int k;
    double a, b, x_incr, new_x;

    /* Exit program. */
    return 0;
}
```

Code on Next Slide



# Body code for Main Procedure of Solution 2

```
/* Get interval endpoints from the user. */
printf("Enter endpoints a and b (a<b): \n");
scanf("%lf %lf",&a,&b);
x_incr = (b - a)/20;

/* Compute and print table of sinc(x) values. */
printf("x and sinc(x) \n");
for (k=0; k<=20; k++)
{
    new_x = a + k*x_incr;
    printf("%f %f \n",new_x,sinc(new_x));
}
```

# The Sinc Function

This code follows the `main` procedure above

```
double sinc(double x)
{
    if (fabs(x) < 0.0001)
        return 1.0;
    else
        return sin(PI*x) / (PI*x);
}
```

# Example Interaction

Enter endpoints a and b ( $a < b$ ):

-2 2

x and sinc(x)

-2.000000 0.000000

-1.800000 -0.103943

-1.600000 -0.189207

-1.400000 -0.216236

...

1.200000 -0.155915

1.400000 -0.216236

1.600000 -0.189207

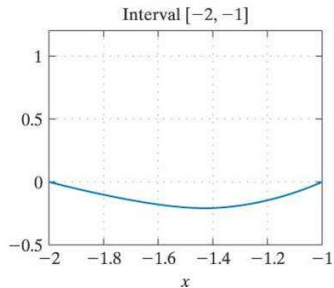
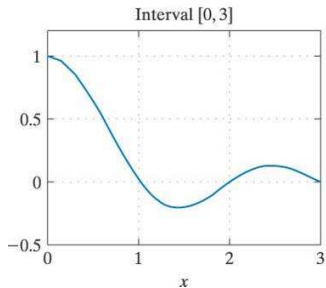
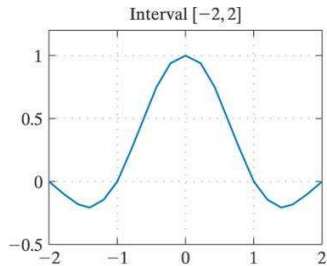
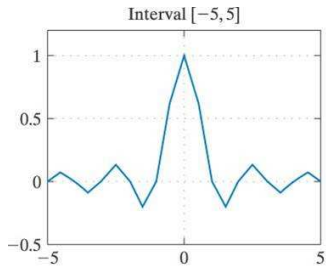
1.800000 -0.103943

2.000000 0.000000

# Results

- The `main` function of Solution 2 is easier to read because it is shorter than the `main` function in Solution 1.
- The next slide shows plots of the 21 values for four different intervals  $[a, b]$ .
- The program computes only 21 values, so the resolution in the plots is affected by the size of the interval—a smaller interval has better resolution than a larger interval.

# Plots for Different Intervals



# Function Definition

- A function consists of a definition statement followed by declarations and statements.
- The first part of the definition statement defines the type of value that is computed by the function (`double`, in our example).
- If the function does not compute a value, the type is `void`.
- The function name and parameter list follow the return type.

# Function Definition

- The general form of a function is:
  - `return_type function_name(parameter_declarations)`  
`{`  
    `declarations;`  
    `statements;`  
`}`
- The parameter declarations represent the information passed to the function.
- If there are no input parameters (arguments), then the parameter declarations should be `void`.

# Function Definition

- Additional variables used by a function are defined in the declarations.
- The declarations and the statements within a function are enclosed in braces.
- The function name should be selected to help document the purpose of the function.
- Comments should also be included within the function to further describe the purpose of the function and to document the steps. A comment line with dashes separates a programmer-defined function from the `main` function and from other programmer-defined functions.



# Return Statement

- All functions should include a `return` statement, which has the following general form:
  - `return expression;`
- The expression specifies the value to be returned to the statement that referenced the function.
- The expression type should match the `return_type` indicated in the function definition to avoid potential errors. The cast operator can be used to explicitly specify the type of the expression if necessary.

# void Function

- A `void` function does not return a value, and thus has this general definition statement:
  - `void function_name(parameter_declarations)`
- The `return` statement in a `void` function does not contain an expression and has this form:
  - `return;`

# Function Definition

- Functions can be defined before or after the `main` function.
- One function must be completely defined before another function begins; functions cannot be nested within each other.
- In our programs, we include the `main` function first, and then additional functions are included in the order in which they are referenced in the program.

# Function Prototype

- Program `chapter4_2` contained the following statement just after the preprocessor directives:
  - `double sinc(double x);`
- This statement is a **function prototype** statement. It informs the compiler that:
  - A function in the program will reference a function named `sinc`.
  - The `sinc` function expects a `double` parameter.
  - The `sinc` function returns a `double` value.

# Function Prototype

- The identifier `x` is not being defined as a variable; it is just used to indicate that a value is expected as an argument by the `sinc` function.
- In fact, it is valid to include only the argument types in the function prototype:
  - `double sinc(double);`
- Both of these prototype statements give the same information to the compiler.
- We recommend using parameter identifiers in prototype statements because the identifiers help document the order and definition of the parameters.

# Function Prototype

- Function prototype statements should be included for all functions referenced in a program.
- Header files, such as `stdio.h` and `math.h`, contain the prototype statements for many of the functions in the Standard C library.
- Otherwise, we would need to include individual prototype statements for functions such as `printf` and `sqrt` in our programs.

# User-defined Function, and Flow of Control

```
void func1();  
int main(void) { func1(); }
```

```
void func1() {  
    printf("one ");  
    func2();  
    printf("three ");  
}
```

```
void func2() {  
    printf("two ");  
}
```

Call sequence:

```
start main:  
call func1();  
start func1():  
    printf("one ");  
    call func2();  
        func2():  
            printf("two ");  
        end func2();  
    printf("three ");  
    end func1();  
end main
```

# Parameter List

- The definition statement of a function defines the parameters that are required by the function; these are called **formal parameters**.
- Any statement that references the function must include values that correspond to the parameters; these are called **actual parameters**.
- Consider the `sinc` function whose definition statement is:
  - `double sinc(double x)`
- The statement from the `main` function that references the function is:
  - `printf("%f %f \n", new_x, sinc(new_x));`
- The variable `x` is the formal parameter, and the variable `new_x` is the actual parameter.



# Parameter List

- When the reference to the `sync` function in the `printf` statement is executed, the value in the actual parameter is copied to the formal parameter, and the steps in the `sync` function are executed using the new value in `x`.
- The value returned by the `sync` function is then printed.
- Note that the value in the formal parameter is not moved back to the actual parameter when the function is completed.
- The next slide contains the memory snapshot that shows the transfer of the value from the actual parameter to the formal parameter.
- Assume that the value of `new_x` is 5.0.

# Memory Snapshot

actual parameter

new\_x

5.0



formal parameter

x

5.0

# Valid References

- Valid references to the `sinc` function can also include expressions or other function references:
  - `printf("%f \n", sinc(x+2.5));`
  - `scanf("%lf", &y);`  
`printf("%f \n", sinc(y));`
  - `z = x*x + sinc(2*x);`
  - `w = sinc(fabs(y));`
- In all these example references, the formal parameter is still `x`, but the actual parameter is `x+2.5`, or `y`, or `2*x`, or `fabs(y)`, depending on the reference selected.

# Multiple Parameters

- If a function has more than one parameter, the formal parameters and the actual parameters must match in number, type, and order.
- A mismatch between the number of formal parameters and actual parameters can be detected by the compiler using the function prototype statement.
- If the type of an actual parameter is not the same as the corresponding formal parameter, then the value of the actual parameter will be converted to the appropriate type; this conversion is called **coercion of arguments** and may or may not cause errors.

# Coercion of Arguments

- The coercion occurs according to the numeric conversions discussed in Slides 59–62 of Lecture 2.
- Converting values to a higher type (such as from `float` to `double`) generally works correctly.
- Converting values to a lower type (such as from `float` to `int`) often introduces errors.
- Consider the function on the next slide that returns the maximum of two values.

# Coercion of Arguments

```
/*-----*/  
/*  This function returns the maximum of two      */  
/*  integer values.                               */  
  
int max(int a,int b)  
{  
    if (a > b)  
        return a;  
    else  
        return b;  
}  
/*-----*/
```

# Coercion of Arguments

- Assume that a reference to this function is `max (x_sum, y_sum)` and that `x_sum` and `y_sum` are integers containing the values 3 and 8 respectively.
- The memory snapshot on the next slide shows the transfer of values from the actual parameters to the formal parameters when the reference `max (x_sum, y_sum)` is made.
- The statements in the function will then return the value 8 as the value of the reference `max (x_sum, y_sum)`.

# Memory Snapshot

actual parameters

x\_sum

3



y\_sum

8



formal parameters

a

3

b

8



# Coercion of Arguments

- Now suppose that a reference to the function `max` is made using `float` variables `t_1` and `t_2`.
- If `t_1` and `t_2` contain the value 2.8 and 4.6 respectively, then transfer of parameters occurs when the reference `max(t_1, t_2)` is executed.
- The statements in the function will then return the value 4 as the value of the reference `max(t_1, t_2)`.
- The wrong value has been returned by the function, but the problem is that the function was referenced with the wrong types of actual parameters.
- This is shown in the memory snapshot on the next slide.

# Memory Snapshot

actual parameters

t\_1 2.8

t\_2 4.6



formal parameters

a 2

b 4

# Call-By-Value

- The function reference in the `sin` example is a **call-by-value** reference, or a **reference-by-value**.
- When a function reference is made, the value of the actual parameter is passed to the function and is used as the value of the corresponding formal parameter.
- In general, a C function cannot change the value of an actual parameter.

# Call-By-Reference

- Exceptions occur when the actual parameters are arrays or pointers (discussed later in the course).
- These exceptions generated a **call-by-reference** or a **reference-by-address**.

# Storage Class and Scope

- So far, have always declared variables within a `main` function and within programmer-defined functions.
- We can also define a variable before the `main` function.
- It is important to be able to determine the **scope** of a function or a variable.
- Scope refers to the portion of the program in which it is valid to reference the function or variable.

# Storage Class and Scope

- Scope is also sometimes defined in terms of the portion of the program in which the function or variable is visible or accessible.
- Because the scope of a variable is directly related to its **storage class**:
  - automatic
  - external
  - static
  - register

**NOTE:** We will not discuss automatic and register further.

# Local Variables

- **Local variables** are defined within a function, and thus include the formal parameters and any other variables declared in the function.
- A local variable can be accessed only in the function that defines it.
- A local variable has a value when its function is being executed, but its value is not retained when the function is completed.

# Global Variables

- **Global variables** are defined outside the `main` function or other programmer-defined functions.
- The definition of a global variable is outside of all functions, so it can be accessed by any function within the program.
- To reference a global variable, some compilers require that the declaration within the function include the keyword `extern` before the type designation to tell the computer to look outside the function for the variable.



# Storage Class and Scope

```
#include
<stdio.h>
int count=0;
...
int main(void)
{
    int x, y, z;
    ...
}
```

```
int calc(int a,int b)
{
    int x;
    extern int count;
    ...
}

void check(int sum)
{
    extern int count;
    ...
}
```

# Storage Class and Scope

- The variable `count` is a global variable that can be referenced by the functions `calc` and `check`.
- The variables `x`, `y`, and `z` are local variables that can be referenced only in the `main` function.
- The variables `a`, `b`, and `x` are local variables that can be referenced only in the function `calc`.
- The variable `sum` is a local variable that can be referenced only in the function `check`.
- Note that there are two local variables `x`—these are two different variables with different scopes.

# Storage classes - Static

`static` is the default storage class for global variables.

The two variables below (`count` and `road`) both have a static storage class.

```
static int count = 0;
int road = 0;
main() {
    printf("%d\n", count); printf("%d\n", road);
}
```

`static` can also be defined within a function. The variable is then initialised at compilation time and **retains its value between calls**. Because it is initialised at compilation time, the initialisation value must be a constant.

```
void func3();

main() {
    func3(); func3(); func3();
}

void func3() {
    static int i = 0;
    printf("%d ", i++);
}
```

Output: 0 1 2

# Style

- The memory assigned to an external variable is retained for the duration of the program.
- Although an external variable can be referenced from a function using the proper declaration, using global variables is generally discouraged.
- In general, parameters are preferred for transferring information to a function because the parameter is evident in the function prototype, whereas the external variable is not visible in the function prototype.
- The use of global variables should be avoided whenever possible.

# Random Numbers

- A sequence of random numbers is not defined by an equation; instead, it has certain characteristics that define it.
- These characteristics include the minimum and maximum values and the average.
- They also indicate whether the possible values are equally likely to occur or whether some values are more likely to occur than others.

# Random Numbers

- Sequences of random numbers can be generated from experiments, such as tossing a coin, rolling a die, or selecting numbered balls.
- Sequences of random numbers can also be generated using the computer.
- Many engineering problems require the use of random numbers in the development of a solution.
- Sometimes the random numbers are used to develop a **simulation** of a complicated problem.

# Random Numbers

- The simulation can be run over and over to analyze the results; each repetition represents a repetition of the experiment.
- We also use random numbers to approximate noise sequences.
- For example, the static that we hear on radio is a noise sequence.
- If our test program uses an input data file that represents a radio signal, we may want to generate noise and add it to a speech signal or a music signal to provide a more realistic signal.

# Random Numbers

- Engineering applications often require random numbers distributed between specified values.
- For example, we may want to generate random integers between 1 and 500, or we may want to generate random floating-point values between 5 and  $-5$ .
- The random numbers generated are equally likely to occur; if the random number is supposed to be an integer between 1 and 5, each of the integers in the set  $\{1, 2, 3, 4, 5\}$  is equally likely to occur.
- Another way of saying this is that each integer should occur approximately 20% of the time.
- Random numbers that are equally likely to be any value in a specified set are also called **uniform random numbers**, or uniformly distributed random numbers.



# Integer Sequences

- The Standard C library contains a function `rand` that generates a random integer between 0 and `RAND_MAX`, where `RAND_MAX` is a system-dependent integer defined in `stdlib.h` (typically 32767).
- Thus, to generate and print a sequence of two random numbers, we could use this statement:
  - ```
printf("random numbers: %i %i \n",  
      rand(), rand());
```
- Each time that a program containing this statement is executed, the same two values are printed, because the `rand` function generates integers in a specified sequence.
- Because this sequence eventually begins to repeat, it is sometimes called a **pseudo-random** sequence instead of a random sequence.

# Integer Sequences

- However, if we generate additional random numbers in the same program, they will be different.
- This pair of statements generates four random numbers:
  - ```
printf("random numbers: %i %i \n",  
      rand(), rand());  
printf("random numbers: %i %i \n",  
      rand(), rand());
```
- Each time the `rand` function is referenced in a program, it generates a new value; however, each time the program is run, it generates the same sequence of values.

# Random Number Seed

- To cause a program to generate a new sequence of random values each time it is executed, we need to give a new **random-number seed** to the random-number generator.
- The function `srand` (from `stdlib.h`) specifies the seed for the random-number generator (default is 1).
- For each seed value, a new sequence of random numbers is generated by `rand`.
- The argument of the `srand` function is an unsigned integer that is used in computations that initialize the sequence; the seed value is not the first value in the sequence.

# Example Program

- In the next program, the user is asked to enter a seed value, and then the program generates 10 random numbers.
- Each time the user executes the program and enters the same seed, the same set of 10 random integers is generated.
- Each time a different seed is entered, a different set of 10 random integers is generated.
- The function prototype statements for `rand` and `srand` are included in `stdlib.h`.

# C Program Code

```
/*-----*/
/* Program chapter4_4 */
/* */
/* Generate and print ten random integers between 1 and RAND_MAX. */

#include <stdio.h>
#include <stdlib.h>

int main(void)
{
    unsigned int seed;
    int k;
    /* Get seed value from the user. */
    printf("Enter a positive integer seed value: \n");
    scanf("%u",&seed);
    srand(seed);
    /* Generate and print ten random numbers. */
    printf("Random Numbers: \n");
    for (k=1; k<=10; k++)
        printf("%i ",rand());
    printf("\n");
    return 0;
}
```

# Sample Output

- A sample output follows:
  - Enter a positive integer seed value:  
123  
Random Numbers:  
6727 22524 25453 13188 17448 3325 20812 11448  
23679 891
- Experiment with the program on your computer system.
- Use the same seed to generate the same numbers. Use different seeds to generate different numbers.

# Prototype Statements

- The prototype statements for `rand` and `srand` are included in `stdlib.h`, so we do not need to include the prototype statements. It is however instructive to analyze these prototype statements.
- The `rand` function returns an integer and has no input, so its prototype statement is:
  - `int rand(void);`
- The `srand` function returns no value and has an unsigned integer as an argument, so its prototype statement is:
  - `void srand(unsigned int);`

# Specified Range

- Generating random integers over a specified range is simple with the `rand` function.
- Suppose we want to generate random integers between 0 and 7.
- The following statement first generates a random number between 0 and `RAND_MAX`; then it uses the modulus operator to compute the modulus of the random number and the integer 8:
  - `x = rand() % 8;`
- The result of the modulus operation is the remainder after `rand()` is divided by 8.
- Thus, the value of `x` can assume integer values between 0 to 7.



# Specified Range

- Suppose we want to generate a random integer between  $-25$  and  $25$ .
- The total number of possible integers is  $51$ .
- The following statement first generates a value between  $0$  and  $50$  then it subtracts  $25$  from this value, yielding a new value between  $-25$  and  $25$ :
  - `x = rand()%51 - 25;`

# Specified Range

- We can now write a function that generates an integer between two specified integers,  $a$  and  $b$ .
- The function first computes  $n$ , which is the number of all integers between  $a$  and  $b$ , inclusive. Note that  $n = b - a + 1$ .
- The function then uses the modulus operation with the `rand` function to generate a new integer between 0 and  $n - 1$ .
- Finally, the lower limit,  $a$ , is added to the new integer to give a value between  $a$  and  $b$ .

# Function

```
/*-----*/  
/*  This function generates a random integer    */  
/*  between specified limits a and b (a<b).    */  
  
int rand_int(int a,int b)  
{  
    return rand()%(b-a+1) + a;  
}  
/*-----*/
```

# Function

- To illustrate the use of this function, the program on the next slide generates and prints 10 random integers between user-specified limits.
- The user also enters the seed to initiate the sequence.

# C Program Code

```
/*-----*/
/*  Program chapter4_5                                */
/*                                                    */
/*  This program generates and prints ten random      */
/*  integers between user-specified limits.          */

#include <stdio.h>
#include <stdlib.h>

/*  Declare function prototype.  */
int rand_int(int a, int b);

int main(void)
{
    /*  Declare variables.  */
    unsigned int seed;
    int a, b, k;

    /* Exit program.  */
    return 0;
}
```

Code on Next Slide

# Body code for Program chapter4\_5

```
/* Get seed value and interval limits. */
printf("Enter a positive integer seed value: \n");
scanf("%u",&seed);
srand(seed);
printf("Enter integer limits a and b (a<b): \n");
scanf("%i %i",&a,&b);
```

```
/* Generate and print ten random numbers. */
printf("Random Numbers: \n");
for (k=1; k<=10; k++)
    printf("%i ",rand_int(a,b));
printf("\n");
```

```
/* This function generates a random integer          */
/* between specified limits a and b (a<b).          */
```

```
int rand_int(int a,int b)
{
    return rand()%(b-a+1) + a;
}
```

# Sample Output

- A sample output follows:
  - Enter a positive integer seed value:  
13  
Enter integer limits a and b ( $a < b$ ):  
-5 5  
Random Numbers:  
-1 -1 1 -2 -5 -2 2 3 4 2
- Values generated are system dependent; you should not expect to get this same set of random numbers from a different compiler.

# Floating-Point Sequences

- In many engineering problems, we need to generate random floating-point values in a specified interval  $[a, b]$ .
- The computation to convert an integer between 0 and `RAND_MAX` to a floating-point value between  $a$  and  $b$  has three steps.
- The value from the `rand` function is first divided by `RAND_MAX` to generate a floating-point value between 0 and 1.
- The value between 0 and 1 is then multiplied by  $(b - a)$  (the width of the interval  $[a, b]$ ) to give a value between 0 and  $(b - a)$ .



# Floating-Point Sequences

- The value between 0 and  $(b - a)$  is then added to  $a$  to adjust it so that it will be between  $a$  and  $b$ .
- A cast operator is needed to convert the integer `rand()` to a `double` value so that the result of the division would be a `double` value.
- This function is shown on the next slide.

# Function

```
/*-----*/  
/*  This function generates a random double      */  
/*  value between a and b.                        */  
  
double rand_float(double a,double b)  
{  
    return ((double)rand()/RAND_MAX)*(b-a) + a;  
}  
/*-----*/
```

# Sample Output

- The program presented earlier can be easily modified to generate and print floating-point values.
- A sample output follows:
  - Enter a positive integer seed value:  
82
  - Enter limits a and b ( $a < b$ ):  
-5 5
  - Random Numbers:  
-3.631245 -1.566973 1.194647 -3.400525  
-4.427778 -2.601550 4.199805 2.670827 1.050905  
-0.629749

# References

Etter Sections 4.1 to 4.4

## Next Lecture

# Modular Programming with Functions (Part 2)