"Functions"

Using Bloodshed Dev-C++

Heejin Park
Hanyang University



Introduction

- **Reviewing Functions**
- **ANSI C Function Prototyping**
- Recursion
- **Compiling Programs with Two or More Source Code Files**
- Finding Addresses: The & Operator
- Altering Variables in the Calling Function
- **Pointers: A First Look**

■ What is a function?

- A function is a self-contained unit of program code designed to accomplish a particular task.
- Why should you use functions?
 - For one, they save you from repetitious programming.
- **Using a function** is worthwhile
 - It makes a program more modular.
 - Easier to read and easier to change or fix.

■ What is a function?

- Suppose
- You want to write a program that does the following:
 - Read in a list of numbers.
 - Sort the numbers.
 - Find their average.
 - Print a bar graph.

■ What is a function?

You could use this program:

```
#include <stdio.h>
#define SIZE 50
int main(void)
  float list[SIZE];
  readlist(list, SIZE);
  sort(list, SIZE);
  average(list, SIZE);
  bargraph(list, SIZE);
  return 0;
```

```
#include <stdio.h>
#define NAME "GIGATHINK, INC."
#define ADDRESS "101 Megabuck Plaza"
#define PLACE "Megapolis, CA 94904"
#define WIDTH 40
void starbar(void); /* prototype the function */
int main(void)
   starbar();
   printf("%s\n", NAME);
   printf("%s\n", ADDRESS);
   printf("%s\n", PLACE);
   starbar(); /* use the function
   return 0;
void starbar(void) /* define the function
   int count;
   for (count = 1; count <= WIDTH; count++)</pre>
       putchar('*');
   putchar('\n');
```

- Several major points
- It uses the starbar identifier in three separate contexts:
 - a function prototype that tells the compiler what sort of function starbar() is,
 - a *function call* that causes the function to be executed,
 - a *function definition* that specifies exactly what the function does.

- Several major points
- Like variables, functions have types.
 - Any program that uses a function should declare the type for that function before it is used.
 - Consequently, this ANSI C prototype precedes the main() function definition:

```
void starbar(void);
```

■ The lethead1.c Program

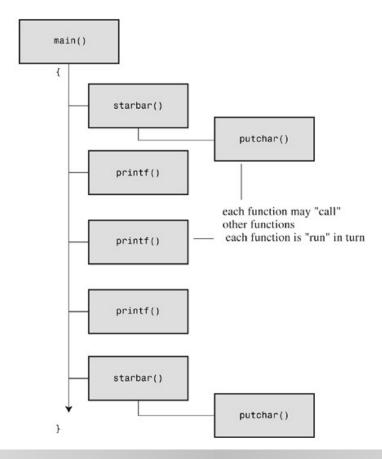
• For compilers that don't recognize ANSI C prototyping, just declare the type, as follows:

```
void starbar();
```

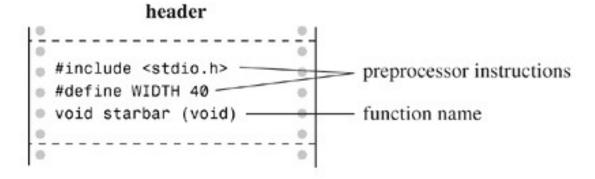
- The program calls the function starbar() from main() by using its name followed by parentheses and a semicolon.
- thus creating the statement

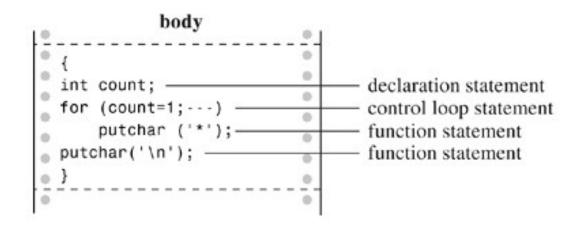
```
starbar();
```

- The lethead1.c Program
 - Control flow for lethead1.c



- The lethead1.c Program
 - Structure of a simple function





■ The lethead2.c Program(1/2)

Function Arguments

```
#include <stdio.h>
#include <string.h>
                               /* for strlen() */
#define NAME "GIGATHINK, INC."
#define ADDRESS "101 Megabuck Plaza"
#define PLACE "Megapolis, CA 94904"
#define WIDTH 40
#define SPACE ' '
void show n char(char ch, int num);
int main(void) {
    int spaces;
    show n char('*', WIDTH); /* using constants as arguments */
   putchar('\n');
    show n char(SPACE, 12); /* using constants as arguments */
   printf("%s\n", NAME);
    spaces = (WIDTH - strlen(ADDRESS)) / 2;
    show n char(SPACE, spaces); /* use a variable as argument
   printf("%s\n", ADDRESS);
    show n char(SPACE, (WIDTH - strlen(PLACE)) / 2);
   printf("%s\n", PLACE);
    show n char('*', WIDTH);
    putchar('\n');
    return 0;
```

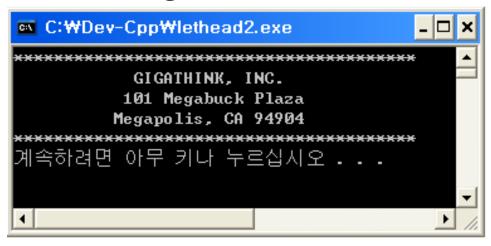
■ The lethead2.c Program(2/2)

Function Arguments

```
void show_n_char(char ch, int num)
{
   int count;

   for (count = 1; count <= num; count++)
      putchar(ch);
}</pre>
```

- The lethead2.c Program
 - Function Arguments



- Defining a Function with an Argument: Formal Parameters
 - The function definition begins with the following ANSI C function header:

```
void show_n_char(char ch, int num);
```

- Defining a Function with an Argument: Formal Parameters
 - Note that the ANSI C form requires that each variable be preceded by its type.

- Defining a Function with an Argument: Formal Parameters
 - ANSI C also recognizes the pre-ANSI form but characterizes it as obsolescent:

```
void show_n_char(ch, num)
char ch;
int num;
```

■ Defining a Function with an Argument: Formal Parameters

- Here, the parentheses contain the list of argument names, but the types are declared afterward.
- This form does enable you to use comma-separated lists of variable names if the variables are of the same type, as shown here:

■ Prototyping a Function with Arguments

• We used an ANSI prototype to declare the function before it is used:

```
void show_n_char(char ch, int num);
```

- When a function takes arguments, the prototype indicates their number and type by using a comma-separated list of the types.
- If you like, you can omit variable names in the prototype:

```
void show_n_char(char, int);
```

■ Prototyping a Function with Arguments

 Again, ANSI C also recognizes the older form of declaring a function, which is without an argument list:

```
void show_n_char();
```

- Calling a Function with an Argument: Actual Arguments
 - You give **ch** and **num** values by using *actual arguments* in the function call.
 - Consider the first use of show_n_char():

```
show_n_char(SPACE, 12);
```

consider the final use of show_n_char():

```
show_n_char(SPACE, (WIDTH - strlen(PLACE)) / 2);
```

- Calling a Function with an Argument: Actual Arguments
 - Formal parameters and actual arguments

```
int main(void)
{
...
space(25);
...
}
actual argument is 25, a value
passed by main() to space() and
assigned to the variable number
```

formal parameter is number, a variable declared in the function heading

...
}

■ The Black-Box Viewpoint

- Taking a black-box viewpoint of show_n_char(),
- the input is the character to be displayed and the number of spaces to be skipped.
- The resulting action is printing the character the specified number of times.

- The fact that ch, num, and count
- local variables private to the **show_n_char()** function is an essential aspect of the black box approach.

- Listing 9.3. The lesser.c Program(1/2)
 - Returning a Value from a Function with return

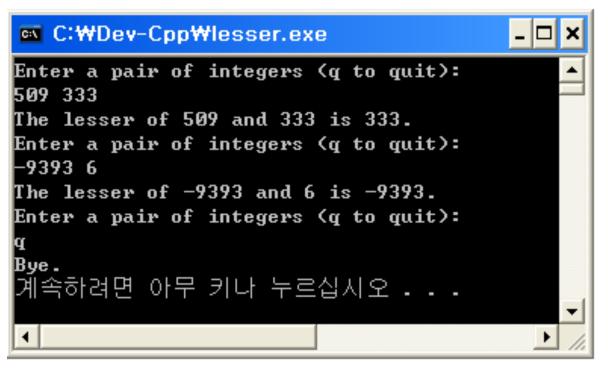
```
#include <stdio.h>
int imin(int, int);
int main(void)
    int evil1, evil2;
    printf("Enter a pair of integers (q to quit):\n");
   while (scanf("%d %d", &evil1, &evil2) == 2)
        printf("The lesser of %d and %d is %d.\n",
            evil1, evil2, imin(evil1,evil2));
        printf("Enter a pair of integers (q to quit):\n");
    printf("Bye.\n");
    return 0;
```

- Listing 9.3. The lesser.c Program(2/2)
 - Returning a Value from a Function with return

```
int imin(int n,int m)
{
   int min;

   if (n < m)
        min = n;
   else
        min = m;
   return min;
}</pre>
```

- Listing 9.3. The lesser.c Program
 - Returning a Value from a Function with return



Listing 9.3. The lesser.c Program

- The variable min is private to imin(), but the value of min is communicated back to the calling function with return.
- The effect of a statement such as the next one is to assign the value of min to lesser:

```
lesser = imin(n,m);
```

- Listing 9.3. The lesser.c Program
 - Could you say the following instead?

```
imin(n,m);
lesser = min;
```

Listing 9.3. The lesser.c Program

- No, because the calling function doesn't even know that min exists.
- Remember that imin()'s variables are local to imin().

- Not only can the returned value be assigned to a variable.
- it can also be used as part of an expression.

```
answer = 2 * imin(z, zstar) + 25;
printf("%d\n", imin(-32 + answer, LIMIT));
```

Listing 9.3. The lesser.c Program

- The return value can be supplied by any expression, not just a variable.
- For example, you can shorten the program to the following:

```
/* minimum value function, second version */
imin(int n,int m)
{
   return (n < m) ? n : m;
}</pre>
```

Listing 9.3. The lesser.c Program

• What if the function returns a type different from the declared type?

```
int what_if(int n)
{
    double z = 100.0 / (double) n;
    return z; // what happens?
}
```

Listing 9.3. The lesser.c Program

• Ex) suppose we have the following function call:

```
result = what_if(64);
```

- Then z is assigned 1.5625.
- The return statement, however, returns the int value 1.

Listing 9.3. The lesser.c Program

- Using return has one other effect.
- It terminates the function and returns control to the next statement in the calling function.

```
/* minimum value function, third version */
imin(int n,int m)
{
   if (n < m)
      return n;
   else
      return m;
}</pre>
```

Listing 9.3. The lesser.c Program

• Even this version works the same:

```
/* minimum value function, fourth version */
imin(int n, int m)
{
   if (n < m)
        return n;
   else
        return m;
   printf("Professor Fleppard is like totally a fopdoodle.\n");
}</pre>
```

57

Reviewing Functions

Listing 9.3. The lesser.c Program

- The return statements prevent the printf() statement from ever being reached.
- You can also use a statement like this:

return;

Function Types

- Functions should be declared by type.
- The type declaration is part of the function definition.
- Keep in mind that it refers to the return value, not to the function arguments.

```
double klink(int a, int b)
```

Function Types

- You generally inform the compiler about functions by declaring them in advance
- Ex) the main() function in The lesser.c program contains these lines:

```
#include <stdio.h>
int imin(int, int);
int main(void)
{
   int evil1, evil2, lesser;
```

Function Types

- Can also be placed inside the function.
- Ex) you can rewrite the beginning of lesser.c as follows:

■The math.h header

- contains function declarations for a variety of mathematical functions.
- Ex)

```
double sqrt(double);
```

 it contains to tell the compiler that the sqrt() function returns a type double value.

pre-ANSI C scheme

• The following pre-ANSI declaration informs the compiler that imin() returns a type int value:

```
int imin();
```

However, it says nothing about the number or type of imin()'s arguments.

■ The misuse.c Program

```
#include <stdio.h>
int imax();  /* old-style declaration */
int main(void)
   printf("The maximum of %d and %d is %d.\n",
            3, 5, imax(3));
   printf("The maximum of %d and %d is %d.\n",
            3, 5, imax(3.0, 5.0));
   return 0;
int imax(n, m)
int n, m;
   int max;
   if (n > m)
       max = n;
    else
        max = m;
   return max;
```

■ The misuse.c Program

- The first call to printf() omits an argument to imax().
- The second call uses floating-point arguments instead of integers.
- Despite these errors, the program compiles and runs.

■ The misuse.c Program

Here's the output using Metrowerks Codewarrior Development Studio
9:

```
The maximum of 3 and 5 is 1245120. The maximum of 3 and 5 is 1074266112.
```

- Digital Mars 8.4 produced values of 4202837 and 1074266112.
- The two compilers work fine.
- They are merely victims of the program's failure to use function prototypes.

■ The ANSI Solution

- Function prototype
- a declaration that states <u>the return type</u>, <u>the number of arguments</u>, and the <u>types</u> <u>of those arguments</u>.
 - To indicate that imax() requires two int arguments, you can declare it with either of the following prototypes:

```
int imax(int, int);
int imax(int a, int b);
```

■The proto.c Program

```
#include <stdio.h>
int main(void)
   printf("The maximum of %d and %d is %d.\n",
          3, 5, imax(3));
   printf("The maximum of %d and %d is %d.\n",
          3, 5, imax(3.0, 5.0));
   return 0;
int imax(int n, int m)
{
   int max;
   if (n > m)
      max = n;
   else
      max = m;
   return max;
```

■The proto.c Program

What about the type errors?

Too few arguments to function 'imax'

■The proto.c Program

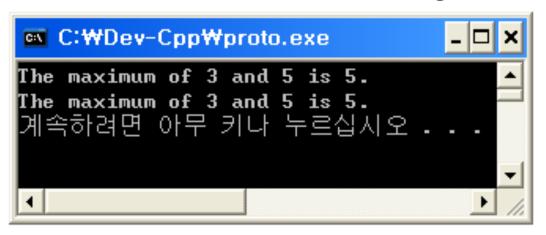
• To investigate those, we replaced imax(3) with imax(3,5) and tried compilation again.

0

ANSI C Function Prototyping

■The proto.c Program

• This time there were no error messages, and we ran the program.



■The proto.c Program

• Compiler did give a warning to the effect that a double was converted to int and that there was a possible loss of data.

• The call becomes equivalent to the following:

```
imax(3, 5)
```

No Arguments and Unspecified Arguments

Suppose you give a prototype like this:

```
void print_name();
```

 To indicate that a function really has no arguments, use the void keyword within the parentheses:

```
void print_name(void);
```

No Arguments and Unspecified Arguments

- ANSI C allows partial prototyping for such cases.
- You could, for example, use this prototype for printf():

```
int printf(char *, ...);
```

Hooray for Prototypes

- You can accomplish the same end by placing the entire function definition before the first use.
- Then the definition acts as its own prototype.

```
// the following is a definition and a prototype
int imax(int a, int b) { return a > b ? a : b; }
int main()
{
...
    z = imax(x, 50);
...
}
```

Recursion

- C permits a function to call itself.
- This process is termed *recursion*.
- Recursion is a sometimes tricky, sometimes convenient tool.
- Recursion often can be used where loops can be used.

■The recur.c Program

```
#include <stdio.h>
void up_and_down(int);
int main(void)
{
    up and down (1);
    return 0;
void up_and_down(int n)
    printf("Level %d: n location %p\n", n, &n); /* 1 */
    if (n < 4)
         up and down (n+1);
    printf("LEVEL %d: n location %p\n", n, &n); /* 2 */
```

■The recur.c Program

```
Level 1: n location 0022FF60
Level 2: n location 0022FF40
Level 3: n location 0022FF20
Level 4: n location 0022FF00
LEVEL 4: n location 0022FF00
LEVEL 3: n location 0022FF00
LEVEL 2: n location 0022FF40
LEVEL 1: n location 0022FF40
LEVEL 1: n location 0022FF60
계속하려면 아무 키나 누르십시오 . . .
```

Recursion Fundamentals

• **Recursion variables**

variables:	n	n	n	n
after level 1 call	1			
after level 2 call	1	2		
after level 3 call	1	2	3	
after level 4 call	1	2	3	4
after return from level 4	1	2	3	
after return from level 3	1	2		
after return from level 2	1			
after return from level 1				
	(all	gon	e)	

■ Tail Recursion

- In the simplest form of recursion, the recursive call is at the end of the function, just before the return statement.
- This is called *tail recursion* or *end recursion*.
 - because the recursive call comes at the end.

The factor.c Program(1/2)

```
#include <stdio.h>
long fact(int n);
long rfact(int n);
int main(void)
    int num;
   printf("This program calculates factorials.\n");
   printf("Enter a value in the range 0-12 (g to quit):\n");
   while (scanf("%d", &num) == 1)
       if (num < 0)
           printf("No negative numbers, please.\n");
       else if (num > 12)
           printf("Keep input under 13.\n");
        else
           printf("loop: %d factorial = %ld\n",
                    num, fact(num));
            printf("recursion: %d factorial = %ld\n",
                    num, rfact(num));
       printf("Enter a value in the range 0-12 (q to quit):\n");
   printf("Bye.\n");
    return 0;
```

■ The factor.c Program(2/2)

```
long fact(int n) // loop-based function
{
   long ans;
   for (ans = 1; n > 1; n--)
      ans *= n;
   return ans;
}
long rfact(int n) // recursive version
{
   long ans;
   if (n > 0)
       ans= n * rfact(n-1);
   else
       ans = 1;
   return ans;
```

■ The factor.c Program

```
C:\Dev-Cpp\factor.exe
This program calculates factorials.
Enter a value in the range 0-12 (q to quit):
loop: 5 factorial = 120
recursion: 5 factorial = 120
Enter a value in the range 0-12 (q to quit):
10
loop: 10 factorial = 3628800
recursion: 10 factorial = 3628800
Enter a value in the range 0-12 (q to quit):
계속하려면 아무 키나 누르십시오 . . .
```

■ Recursion and Reversal

- The problem is this:
- Write a function that prints the binary equivalent of an integer.
- Binary notation represents numbers in terms of powers of 2.
- Just as 234 in decimal means $2 \times 102 + 3 \times 101 + 4 \times 100$.
 - so 101 in binary means 1 x 22 + 0 x 21 + 1 x 20.
- Binary numbers use only the digits 0 and 1.

■ The binary.c Program(1/2)

```
#include <stdio.h>
void to binary(unsigned long n);
int main(void)
    unsigned long number;
    printf("Enter an integer (q to quit):\n");
    while (scanf("%ul", &number) == 1)
        printf("Binary equivalent: ");
        to binary(number);
        putchar('\n');
        printf("Enter an integer (q to quit):\n");
    printf("Done.\n");
   return 0;
```

■ The binary.c Program(2/2)

```
void to_binary(unsigned long n)  /* recursive function */
{
   int r;

   r = n % 2;
   if (n >= 2)
       to_binary(n / 2);
   putchar('0' + r);

   return;
}
```

■ The binary.c Program

- The expression '0' + r evaluates to the character '0', if r is 0, and to the character '1', if r is 1.
- This assumes that the numeric code for the '1' character is one greater than the code for the '0' character.
- More generally, you could use the following approach:

```
putchar( r ? '1' : '0');
```

■ The binary.c Program

```
Enter an integer (q to quit):
9
Binary equivalent: 1001
Enter an integer (q to quit):
255
Binary equivalent: 11111111
Enter an integer (q to quit):
1024
Binary equivalent: 1000000000
Enter an integer (q to quit):
q
Done.
계속하려면 아무 키나 누르십시오 . . .
```

■ **Recursion Pros and Cons**

- **Fibonacci numbers** can be defined as follows:
- The first Fibonacci number is 1
- The second Fibonacci number is 1
- Each subsequent Fibonacci number is the sum of the preceding two.
 - Therefore, the first few numbers in the sequence are **1**, **1**, **2**, **3**, **5**, **8**, **13**.

■ **Recursion Pros and Cons**

- If we name the function Fibonacci(),
- Fibonacci(n) should return 1 if n is 1 or 2.
- It should return the sum Fibonacci(n-1) + Fibonacci(n-2) otherwise:

```
long Fibonacci(int n)
{
   if (n > 2)
      return Fibonacci(n-1) + Fibonacci(n-2);
   else
      return 1;
}
```

Compiling Programs with Two or More Source Code Files

Unix

- This assumes the Unix system has the standard Unix C compiler **cc** installed.
- Suppose
- file1.c and file2.c are two files containing C functions.
- Then the following command will compile both files and produce an executable file called a.out:

```
cc file1.c file2.c
```

Compiling Programs with Two or More Source Code Files

Unix

- In addition, two object files called file1.0 and file2.0 are produced.
- If you later change file1.c but not file2.c,
- you can compile the first and combine it with the object code version of the second file by using this command:

```
cc file1.c file2.o
```

Compiling Programs with Two or More Source Code Files

Linux

- This assumes the Linux system has the GNU C compiler gcc installed.
- Suppose
- file1.c and file2.c are two files containing C functions.
- Then the following command will compile both files and produce an executable file called a.out:

gcc file1.c file2.c

Linux

- In addition, two object files called file1.0 and file2.0 are produced.
- If you later change file1.c but not file2.c,
- you can compile the first and combine it with the object code version of the second file by using this command:

```
gcc file1.c file2.o
```

DOS Command-Line Compilers

- Most DOS command-line compilers work similarly to the Unix CC command.
- One difference is that object files wind up with an **.obj** extension instead of an **.o** extension.

5

Compiling Programs with Two or More Source Code Files

Windows and Macintosh Compilers

- Windows and Macintosh compilers are project oriented.
- A project describes the resources a particular program uses.
- The resources include your source code files.

Using Header Files

- If you put main() in one file and your function definitions in a second file,
- The first file still needs the function prototypes.
- Rather than type them in each time you use the function file,
 - You can store the function prototypes in a header file.
- Place the #define directives in a header file and then use the #include directive in each source code file.

■ The usehotel.c Control Module(1/2)

```
#include <stdio.h>
#include "hotel.h" /* defines constants, declares functions */
int main(void)
   int nights;
   double hotel rate;
   int code;
```

■ The usehotel.c Control Module(2/2)

```
while ((code = menu()) != QUIT)
   switch (code)
   case 1 : hotel rate = HOTEL1;
            break;
   case 2 : hotel rate = HOTEL2;
            break;
   case 3 : hotel rate = HOTEL3;
            break:
   case 4 : hotel rate = HOTEL4;
            break;
   default: hotel rate = 0.0;
            printf("Oops!\n");
            break;
   nights = getnights();
   showprice (hotel rate, nights);
printf("Thank you and goodbye.");
return 0;
```

The hotel.c Function Support Module(1/2)

```
#include <stdio.h>
#include "hotel.h"
int menu(void)
   int code, status;
   printf("\n%s%s\n", STARS, STARS);
   printf("Enter the number of the desired hotel:\n");
   printf("1) Fairfield Arms 2) Hotel Olympic\n");
   printf("3) Chertworthy Plaza 4) The Stockton\n");
   printf("5) quit\n");
   printf("%s%s\n", STARS, STARS);
   while ((status = scanf("%d", &code)) != 1 ||
             (code < 1 | l | code > 5))
       if (status != 1)
           scanf("%*s");
       printf("Enter an integer from 1 to 5, please.\n");
   return code;
```

■ The hotel.c Function Support Module(2/2)

```
int getnights(void)
    int nights;
    printf("How many nights are needed? ");
    while (scanf("%d", &nights) != 1)
        scanf("%*s");
        printf("Please enter an integer, such as 2.\n");
    return nights;
void showprice(double rate, int nights)
    int n;
    double total = 0.0;
    double factor = 1.0;
    for (n = 1; n <= nights; n++, factor *= DISCOUNT)</pre>
        total += rate * factor;
    printf("The total cost will be $%0.2f.\n", total);
```

■The hotel.h Header File

```
#define QUIT
                5
#define HOTEL1 80.00
#define HOTEL2 125.00
#define HOTEL3 155.00
#define HOTEL4 200.00
#define DISCOUNT 0.95
#define STARS "***********************
// shows list of choices
int menu(void);
// returns number of nights desired
in
```

Finding Addresses: The & Operator

■The & Operator

- One of the most important C concepts is the pointer.
- which is a variable used to store an address.
- The unary & operator gives you the address where a variable is stored.
 - If pooh is the name of a variable, &pooh is the address of the variable.

Finding Addresses: The & Operator

■The & Operator

- You can think of the address as a location in memory.
- Suppose you have the following statement:

```
pooh = 24;
```

Suppose that the address where pooh is stored is 0B76. Then the statement

```
printf("%d %p\n", pooh, &pooh);
```

• wo<u>uld produce this (%p</u> is the specifier for addresses):

```
24 0B76
```

Finding Addresses: The & Operator

■ The loccheck.c Program

```
#include <stdio.h>
                                     /* declare function */
void mikado(int);
int main(void)
   int pooh = 2, bah = 5;
                          /* local to main() */
   printf("In main(), pooh = %d and &pooh = %p\n",
           pooh, &pooh);
   printf("In main(), bah = %d and &bah = %p\n",
           bah, &bah);
   mikado (pooh);
   return 0;
                                      /* define function
void mikado(int bah)
   int pooh = 10;
                                     /* local to mikado() */
   printf("In mikado(), pooh = %d and &pooh = %p\n",
           pooh, &pooh);
   printf("In mikado(), bah = %d and &bah = %p\n",
           bah, &bah);
```

5

Finding Addresses: The & Operator

■ The loccheck.c Program

```
C:\Dev-Cpp\loccheck.exe
In main(), pooh = 2 and &pooh = 0x0012ff48
In main(), bah = 5 and &bah = 0x0012ff44
In mikado(), pooh = 10 and &pooh = 0x0012ff34
In mikado(), bah = 2 and &bah = 0x0012ff40
계속하려면 아무 키나 누르십시오 . . .
```

■ **Altering Variables in the Calling Function**

- Suppose
- You have two variables called x and y and you want to swap their values.

$$x = y;$$

 $y = x;$

■ Altering Variables in the Calling Function

- Suppose
- You have two variables called x and y and you want to swap their values.

$$x = y;$$

 $y = x;$

- Does not work.
 - the original value of x has already been replaced by the original y value.

■ **Altering Variables in the Calling Function**

• An additional line is needed to temporarily store the original value of x.

```
temp = x;
x = y;
y = temp;
```

■ The swap1.c Program

```
#include <stdio.h>
void interchange(int u, int v); /* declare function */
int main(void)
    int x = 5, y = 10;
   printf("Originally x = %d and y = %d.\n", x , y);
    interchange(x, y);
    printf("Now x = %d and y = %d.\n", x, y);
    return 0;
void interchange(int u, int v) /* define function */
    int temp;
   temp = u;
   u = v;
    v = temp;
```

■The swap1.c Program

```
C:\Dev-Cpp\swap1.exe __ _ X

Originally x = 5 and y = 10.

Now x = 5 and y = 10.
계속하려면 아무 키나 누르십시오 . . .
```

■ The swap2.c Program

```
#include <stdio.h>
void interchange(int u, int v);
int main(void)
    int x = 5, y = 10;
    printf("Originally x = %d and y = %d.\n", x , y);
    interchange(x, y);
    printf("Now x = %d and y = %d.\n", x, y);
    return 0;
void interchange(int u, int v)
    int temp;
    printf("Originally u = d and v = d.\n", u, v);
    temp = u;
    u = v;
    v = temp;
    printf("Now u = %d and v = %d.\n", u, v);
```

■The swap2.c Program

```
C:WDev-CppWswap2.exe
Originally x = 5 and y = 10.
Originally u = 5 and v = 10.
Now u = 10 and v = 5.
Now x = 5 and y = 10.
계속하려면 아무 키나 누르십시오 . . .
```

■The swap2.c Program

- Can you somehow use return?
- Well, you could finish interchange() with the line

```
return(u);
```

• and then change the call in **main()** to this:

```
x = interchange(x, y);
```

■Pointer

- A variable whose value is a memory address.
- If you give a particular pointer variable the name ptr, you can have statements such as the following:

```
/* assigns pooh's address to ptr */
ptr = &pooh;
```

- We say that ptr "points to" pooh.
 - ptr is a variable.
 - &pooh is a constant.

■Pointer

If you want, you can make ptr point elsewhere:

```
/* make ptr point to bah instead of to pooh */
ptr = &bah;
```

Now the value of ptr is the address of bah.

- The Indirection Operator: *
 - Suppose you know that ptr points to bah, as shown here:

```
ptr = &bah;
```

 Then you can use the indirection operator * to find the value stored in bah:

```
/* finding the value ptr points to */
val = *ptr;
```

■ The Indirection Operator: *

• The statements ptr = &bah; and val = *ptr; taken together amount to the following statement:

```
val = bah;
```

Declaring Pointers

- How do you declare a pointer variable?
- You might guess that the form is like this:

```
pointer ptr;
```

- Why not?
 - Because it is not enough to say that a variable is a pointer.

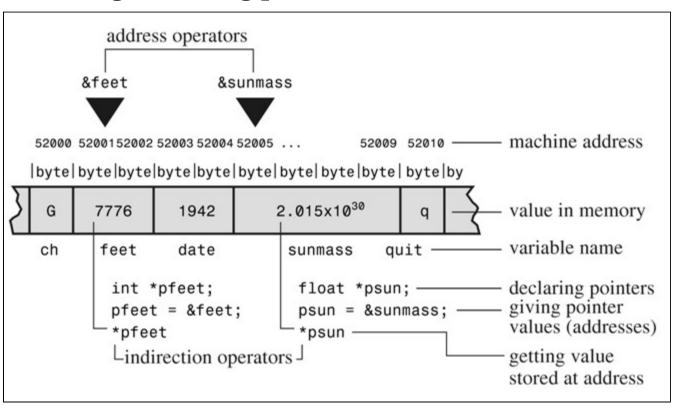
Declaring Pointers

- A long and a float might use the same amount of storage, but they store numbers quite differently.
- Here's how pointers are declared:

```
int * pi;
char * pc;
float * pf, * pg;
```

Declaring Pointers

Declaring and using pointers.



■The swap3.c Program

• Using Pointers to Communicate Between Functions

```
#include <stdio.h>
void interchange(int * u, int * v);
int main(void)
    int x = 5, y = 10;
   printf("Originally x = %d and y = %d.\n", x, y);
    interchange (&x, &y); /* send addresses to function */
    printf("Now x = %d and y = %d.\n", x, y);
    return 0;
void interchange(int * u, int * v)
{
    int temp;
    temp = *u; /* temp gets value that u points to */
    *u = *v;
    *v = temp;
```

■The swap3.c Program

```
© C:₩Dev-Cpp₩swap3.exe

Originally x = 5 and y = 10.

Now x = 10 and y = 5.
계속하려면 아무 키나 누르십시오 . . .

✓
```

- Let's see how Listing 9.15 works.
 - First, the function call looks like this:

```
interchange(&x, &y);
```

• Instead of transmitting the values of x and y, the function transmits their *addresses*.

- Let's see how Listing 9.15 works.
 - x and y are integers, u and v are pointers to integers.
 - so declare them as follows:

```
void interchange (int * u, int * v)
```

Next, the body of the function declares

```
int temp;
```

to provide the needed temporary storage.

- Let's see how Listing 9.15 works.
 - To store the value of x in temp, use

```
temp = *u;
```

- Remember, u has the value &x, so u points to x.
- This means that *u gives you the value of x, which is what we want.
 - Don't write

```
temp = u; /* NO */
```

- Let's see how Listing 9.15 works.
 - Similarly, to assign the value of y to x, use

which ultimately has this effect:

$$x = y$$
;

- Let's see how Listing 9.15 works.
 - Using pointers and the * operator,
 - The function can examine the values stored at those locations and change them.
 - You can omit the variable names in the ANSI prototype.

```
void interchange(int *, int *);
```

- Let's see how Listing 9.15 works.
 - In general, you can communicate two kinds of information about a variable to a function.
 - If you use a call of the form

```
function1(x);
```

- you transmit the value of x.
- If you use a call of the form

```
function2(&x);
```

you transmit the address of x.

- Let's see how Listing 9.15 works.
 - The first form

```
function1(x);
```

• requires that the function definition includes a formal argument of the same type as X:

```
int function1(int num)
```

- Let's see how Listing 9.15 works.
 - The second form

```
function2(&x);
```

• requires the function definition to include a formal parameter that is a pointer to the right type:

```
int function2(int * ptr)
```

Names, addresses, and values in a byte-addressable system, such as the IBM PC.

