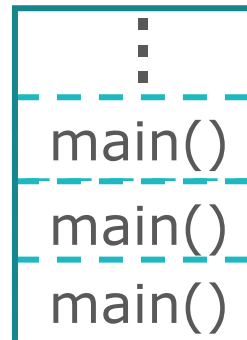


# Lecture 6 - Function and Scope

Meng-Hsun Tsai  
CSIE, NCKU

```
int main ( )  
{  
    return main();  
}
```



## 6.1 Defining and Calling Functions



# Function

- A **function** is a series of statements that have been grouped together and given a name.
- Each **function** is essentially a small program, with its own declarations and statements.
- **Advantages** of functions:
  - A program can be divided into small pieces that are easier to understand and modify.
  - We can avoid duplicating code that's used more than once.
  - A function that was originally part of one program can be reused in other programs.

# Function Definitions

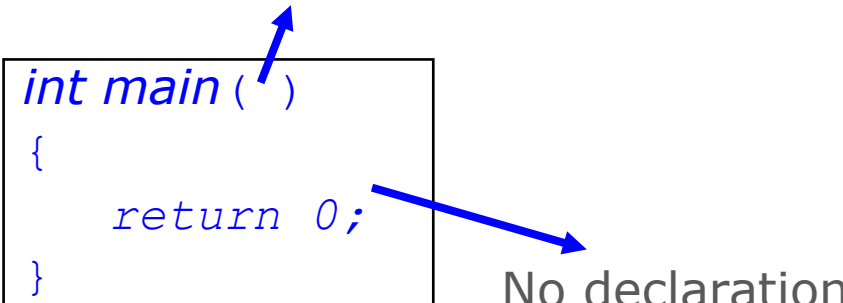
- General form of a **function definition**:

```
return-type function-name ( parameters )  
{  
    declarations  
    statements  
}
```

No parameter

```
int main ( )  
{  
    return 0;  
}
```

No declaration



# Function Definitions (cont.)

- The **return type** of a function is the **type of value that the function returns**.
- Rules governing the return type:
  - Functions **may not return arrays**.
  - Specifying that the return type is **void** indicates that the function **doesn't return a value**.

```
void print_pun(void)
{
    printf("To C, or not to C: that is the question.\n");
}
```

# Function Definitions (cont.)

- After the function name comes a **list of parameters**.
- Each parameter is **preceded by** a specification of its **type**; parameters are **separated by commas**.

```
double average(double a, double b, double c ) { ... }
```

- If the function has **no parameters**, the word `void` should appear between the parentheses.

```
int main(void) { ... }
```

```
void print_pun(void)
{
    printf("To C, or not to C: that is the question.\n");
}
```

# Function Definitions (cont.)

- The **body** of a function may include both **declarations** and **statements**.
- **Variables declared** in the body of **a function** **can't** be examined or modified by other functions.
- **Variable declarations and statements** can be **mixed**, as long as each variable is **declared prior to** the first statement that **uses** the variable.

```
double average(double a, double b)
{
    double sum;           /* declaration */

    sum = a + b;          /* statement */
    return sum / 2;       /* statement */
}
```

# Function Definitions (cont.)

- The body of a function whose **return type is void** (a “void function”) **can be empty**:

```
void print_pun(void)
{
}
```

- Leaving the body empty may make sense as a temporary step during program development.



# Function Calls

- A **function call** consists of a **function name** followed by a **list of arguments**, enclosed in **parentheses**:

```
average(x, y)
print_count(i)
print_pun()
```

- If the **parentheses are missing**, the function **won't be called**:

```
print_pun;    /** WRONG **/
```

This statement is **legal** but has **no effect**.

# Function Calls (cont.)

- A call of a **void function** is always followed by a **semicolon** to turn it into a statement:

```
print_count(i);  
print_pun();
```

- A call of a **non-void function** produces a value that can be stored in a variable, tested, printed, or used in some other way:

```
avg = average(x, y);  
if (average(x, y) > 0)  
    printf("Average is positive\n");  
printf("The average is %g\n", average(x, y));
```

# Function Calls (cont.)

- The value returned by a `non-void function` can always be discarded if it's not needed:

```
average(x, y); /* discards return value */
```

- Ignoring the return value of `average` is an odd thing to do, but for some functions it makes sense.

- `printf` returns the number of characters that it prints.

- After the following call, `num_chars` will have the value 9:

```
num_chars = printf("Hi, Mom!\n");
```

- We normally discard `printf`'s return value:

```
printf("Hi, Mom!\n"); /* discards return value */
```

# Program #1: Computing Averages

- A function named `average` that computes the average of two double values:

```
double average(double a, double b)
{
    return (a + b) / 2;
}
```

- The word `double` at the beginning is the *return type* of `average`.
- The identifiers `a` and `b` (the function's *parameters*) represent the numbers that will be supplied when `average` is called.

# Program #1: Computing Averages (cont.)

- Every function has an executable part, called the **body**, which is **enclosed in braces**.
- The body of `average` consists of a single **return statement**.
- Executing this statement causes the function to “**return**” **to the place from which it was called**; the **value of  $(a + b) / 2$  will be the value returned** by the function.

# Program #1: Computing Averages (cont.)

- A **function call** consists of a **function name** followed by **a list of arguments**.
  - `average(x, y)` is a call of the `average` function.
- **Arguments** are used to **supply information to a function**.
  - The call `average(x, y)` causes the **values of `x` and `y` to be copied into** the parameters **`a` and `b`**.
- An argument doesn't have to be a variable; **any expression of a compatible type** will do.
  - `average(5.1, 8.9)` and `average(x/2, y/3)` are legal.

# Program #1: Computing Averages (cont.)

- We'll put the call of `average` in the place where we need to use the return value.

- A statement that prints the average of `x` and `y`:

```
printf("Average: %g\n", average(x, y));
```

The return value of `average` isn't saved; the program prints it and then discards it.

- If we had needed the return value later in the program, we could have captured it in a variable:

```
avg = average(x, y);
```

# Program #1: Computing Averages (cont.)

- The `average.c` program reads three numbers and uses the `average` function to compute their averages, one pair at a time:

Enter three numbers: 3.5 9.6 10.2

Average of 3.5 and 9.6: 6.55

Average of 9.6 and 10.2: 9.9

Average of 3.5 and 10.2: 6.85



# Program #1: Computing Averages (cont.)

**average.c**

```
#include <stdio.h>

double average(double a, double b)
{
    return (a + b) / 2;
}

int main(void)
{
    double x, y, z;

    printf("Enter three numbers: ");
    scanf("%lf%lf%lf", &x, &y, &z);
    printf("Average of %g and %g: %g\n", x, y, average(x, y));
    printf("Average of %g and %g: %g\n", y, z, average(y, z));
    printf("Average of %g and %g: %g\n", x, z, average(x, z));

    return 0;
}
```

# Program #2: Printing a Countdown

- To indicate that a function has **no return value**, we **specify** that its **return type** is `void`:

```
void print_count(int n)
{
    printf("T minus %d and counting\n", n);
}
```

- `void` is a type with no values.
- A call of `print_count` appears in a statement by itself:  
`print_count(i);`
- The `countdown.c` program **calls** `print_count` **10 times** inside a loop.

# Program #2: Printing a Countdown (cont.)

**countdown.c**

```
#include <stdio.h>

void print_count(int n)
{
    printf("T minus %d and counting\n", n);
}

int main(void)
{
    int i;

    for (i = 10; i > 0; --i)
        print_count(i);

    return 0;
}
```

# Program #3: Testing Whether a Number Is Prime

- The `prime.c` program tests whether a number is prime:

```
Enter a number: 34  
Not prime
```

- The program uses a function named `is_prime` that returns `true` if its parameter is a prime number and `false` if it isn't.
- `is_prime` divides its parameter `n` by each of the numbers between 2 and the square root of `n`; if the remainder is ever 0, `n` isn't prime.

# Program #3: Testing Whether a Number Is Prime (cont.)

## prime.c

```
#include <stdbool.h>
#include <stdio.h>

bool is_prime(int n)
{
    int divisor;

    if (n <= 1)
        return false;

    for (divisor = 2; divisor *
        divisor <= n; divisor++)
        if (n % divisor == 0)
            return false;
    return true;
}
```

```
int main(void)
{
    int n;

    printf("Enter a number: ");
    scanf("%d", &n);
    if (is_prime(n))
        printf("Prime\n");
    else
        printf("Not prime\n");
    return 0;
}
```

# Function Declarations

- Either a declaration or a definition of a function must be present prior to any call of the function.
- A **function declaration** provides the compiler with a brief glimpse at a function whose full definition will appear later.
- General form of a function declaration:  
*return-type function-name ( parameters ) ;*
- The declaration of a function must be consistent with the function's definition.
- Here's the `average.c` program with a declaration of `average` added.

# Function Declarations (cont.)

```
#include <stdio.h>

double average(double a, double b);    /* DECLARATION */

int main(void)
{
    double x, y, z;

    printf("Enter three numbers: ");
    scanf("%lf%lf%lf", &x, &y, &z);
    printf("Average of %g and %g: %g\n", x, y, average(x,
y));
    printf("Average of %g and %g: %g\n", y, z, average(y,
z));
    printf("Average of %g and %g: %g\n", x, z, average(x,
z));

    return 0;
}

double average(double a, double b)    /* DEFINITION */
{
    return (a + b) / 2;
}
```

# Function Declarations (cont.)

- Function declarations of the kind we're discussing are known as *function prototypes*.
- A function prototype doesn't have to specify the names of the function's parameters, as long as their types are present:

```
double average(double, double);
```



## 6.2 Arguments



# Arguments

- In C, arguments are ***passed by value***: when a function is called, **each argument is evaluated** and its **value assigned to the corresponding parameter**.
- Since the parameter contains a copy of the argument's value, **any changes made to the parameter** during the execution of the function **don't affect the argument**.

# Arguments (cont.)

- Consider the following function, which raises a number  $x$  to a power  $n$ :

```
int power(int x, int n)
{
    int i, result = 1;

    for (i = 1; i <= n; i++)
        result = result * x;

    return result;
}
```

# Arguments (cont.)

- Since `n` is a *copy* of the original exponent, the function can safely modify it, removing the need for `i`:

```
int power(int x, int n)
{
    int result = 1;

    while (n-- > 0)
        result = result * x;

    return result;
}
```

# Arguments (cont.)

- C's requirement that arguments be **passed by value** makes it **difficult to write certain kinds of functions**.
- Suppose that we need a function that will **decompose a double value into an integer part and a fractional part**.
- Since **a function can't return two numbers**, we might try passing a pair of variables to the function and having it modify them:

```
void decompose(double x, long int_part,  
               double frac_part)  
{  
    int_part = (long) x;  
    frac_part = x - int_part;  
}
```

# Arguments (cont.)

- A call of the function:

```
decompose (3.14159, i, d) ;
```

- Unfortunately, `i` and `d` won't be affected by the assignments to `int_part` and `frac_part`.

# Argument Conversions

- C **allows** function calls in which the **types of the arguments don't match the types of the parameters**.
- **Note that the compiler has encountered a prototype prior to the call.**
- The **value of each argument** is **implicitly converted** to the type of the corresponding **parameter as if by assignment**.
- Example: If an **int argument** is passed to a function that was **expecting a double**, the argument is **converted to double automatically**.

# Array Arguments

- When a function parameter is a **one-dimensional array**, the **length of the array can be left unspecified**:

```
int f(int a[]) /* no length specified */  
{  
    ...  
}
```

- C doesn't provide any easy way** for a function **to determine the length** of an array passed to it.
- Instead, we'll **have to supply the length**—if the function needs it—**as an additional argument**.



# Array Arguments (cont.)

- Example:

```
int sum_array(int a[], int n)
{
    int i, sum = 0;

    for (i = 0; i < n; i++)
        sum += a[i];

    return sum;
}
```

- Since `sum_array` needs to know the **length of `a`**, we **must supply it as a second argument.**

# Array Arguments (cont.)

- The **prototype** for `sum_array` has the following appearance:

```
int sum_array(int a[], int n);
```

- As usual, **we can omit the parameter names** if we wish:

```
int sum_array(int [], int);
```

# Array Arguments (cont.)

- When `sum_array` is called, the **first argument** will be the **name of an array**, and the **second** will be its **length**:

```
#define LEN 100
```

```
int main(void)
{
    int b[LEN], total;
    ...
    total = sum_array(b, LEN);
    ...
}
```

- **Notice that we don't put brackets after an array name** when passing it to a function:

```
total = sum_array(b[], LEN);    /*** WRONG ***/
```

# Array Arguments (cont.)

- A function has **no way to check** that we've passed it the **correct array length**.
- Suppose that we've **only stored 50 numbers** in the `b` array, **even though it can hold 100**.

- We can **sum just the first 50 elements** by writing

```
total = sum_array(b, 50);
```

- **Be careful not to tell a function that an array argument is *larger* than it really is:**

```
total = sum_array(b, 150);    /*** WRONG ***/
```

`sum_array` will **go past the end of the array**, causing **undefined behavior**.

# Array Arguments (cont.)

- A function is **allowed to change the elements of an array parameter**, and the change is **reflected in the corresponding argument**.
- A function that modifies an array by **storing zero into each of its elements**:

```
void store_zeros(int a[], int n)
{
    int i;
    for (i = 0; i < n; i++)
        a[i] = 0;
}
```

```
store_zeros(b, 100);
```

# Array Arguments (cont.)

- If a parameter is a multidimensional array, only the length of the first dimension may be omitted.
- If we revise `sum_array` so that `a` is a two-dimensional array, we must specify the number of columns in `a`:

```
#define LEN 10
```

```
int sum_two_dimensional_array(int a[][LEN], int n)
{
    int i, j, sum = 0;

    for (i = 0; i < n; i++)
        for (j = 0; j < LEN; j++)
            sum += a[i][j];

    return sum;
}
```

## 6.3 Function and Program Termination



# The `return` Statement

- A `non-void function` **must** use the `return` statement to specify what **value** it will return.

- The `return` statement has the form

`return expression ;`

- The expression is **often** just a **constant** or **variable**:

`return 0;`

`return status;`

- More **complex expressions** are possible:

`return n >= 0 ? n : 0;`



# The `return` Statement (cont.)

- If the **type of the expression** in a `return` statement **doesn't match** the function's **return type**, the expression will be **implicitly converted** to the return type.
- If a function **returns an `int`**, but the `return` statement contains a `double` expression, the value of the expression is **converted to `int`**.

```
int average(double a, double b)
{
    return (a + b)/2;
}
```

`double`

# The `return` Statement (cont.)

- `return` statements **may appear** in functions whose **return type is `void`**, provided that no expression is given:

```
return;    /* return in a void function */
```

- **Example:**

```
void print_int(int i)
{
    if (i < 0)
        return;
    printf("%d", i);
}
```

# The `return` Statement (cont.)

- A `return` statement may appear at the end of a `void` function:

```
void print_pun(void)
{
    printf("To C, or not to C: that is the question.\n");
    return;    /* OK, but not needed */
}
```

Using `return` here is unnecessary.

- If a `non-void` function fails to execute a `return` statement, the behavior of the program is undefined if it attempts to use the function's `return` value.

# Program Termination

- Normally, the return type of `main` is `int`:

```
int main(void)
{
    ...
}
```

- Omitting the word `void` in `main`'s parameter list remains legal, but—as a matter of style—it's best to include it.

# Program Termination (cont.)

- The value returned by `main` is a status code that can be tested when the program terminates.
- `main` should return 0 if the program terminates normally.
- To indicate abnormal termination, `main` should return a value other than 0.
- It's good practice to make sure that every C program returns a status code.

# The `exit` Function

- Executing a `return` statement in `main` is one way to terminate a program.
- Another is calling the `exit` function, which belongs to `<stdlib.h>`.
- The argument passed to `exit` has the same meaning as `main`'s return value: both indicate the program's status at termination.
- To indicate normal termination, we pass 0:

```
exit(0);    /* normal termination */
```

# The `exit` Function (cont.)

- Since `0` is a bit cryptic, C allows us to pass `EXIT_SUCCESS` instead (the effect is the same):

```
exit(EXIT_SUCCESS);
```

- Passing `EXIT_FAILURE` indicates **abnormal termination**:

```
exit(EXIT_FAILURE);
```

- `EXIT_SUCCESS` and `EXIT_FAILURE` are macros defined in `<stdlib.h>`.
- The values of `EXIT_SUCCESS` and `EXIT_FAILURE` are **implementation-defined**; typical values are 0 and 1, respectively.

# The `exit` Function (cont.)

- The statement

`return expression;`

`in main` is equivalent to

`exit (expression) ;`

- The difference between `return` and `exit` is that `exit` causes program termination regardless of which function calls it.
- The `return` statement causes program termination only when it appears in the `main` function.



## 6.4 Scope



# Local Variables

- A variable **declared in the body of a function** is said to be **local to the function**:

```
int sum_digits(int n)
{
    int sum = 0;    /* local variable */

    while (n > 0) {
        sum += n % 10;
        n /= 10;
    }

    return sum;
}
```

# Local Variables

- Default properties of local variables:
  - ***Automatic storage duration.*** Storage is “**automatically**” **allocated** **when** the enclosing **function is called** and **deallocated** **when the function returns**.
  - ***Block scope.*** A local variable is **visible** **from its point of declaration** **to the end of** the enclosing **function body**.

# Local Variables

- Since C doesn't require variable declarations to come at the beginning of a function, **it's possible** for a local variable **to have a very small scope**:

```
void f(void)
{
    ...
    int i;
    ...
}
```

scope of i

# Static Local Variables

- Including `static` in the declaration of a local variable **causes it to have *static storage duration***.
- A variable with static storage duration **has a permanent storage location**, so it **retains its value throughout the execution of the program**.

- Example:

```
void f(void)
{
    static int i;    /* static local variable */
    ...
}
```

- A static local variable **still has block scope**, so it's **not visible to other functions**.

# Parameters

- **Parameters** have the same properties—**automatic storage duration** and **block scope**—as local variables.
- Each parameter is **initialized automatically** when a **function is called** (by being assigned the value of the corresponding argument).

# External Variables

- Passing arguments is one way to transmit information to a function.
- Functions can also communicate through **external variables**—variables that are declared outside the body of any function.
- External variables are sometimes known as **global variables**.

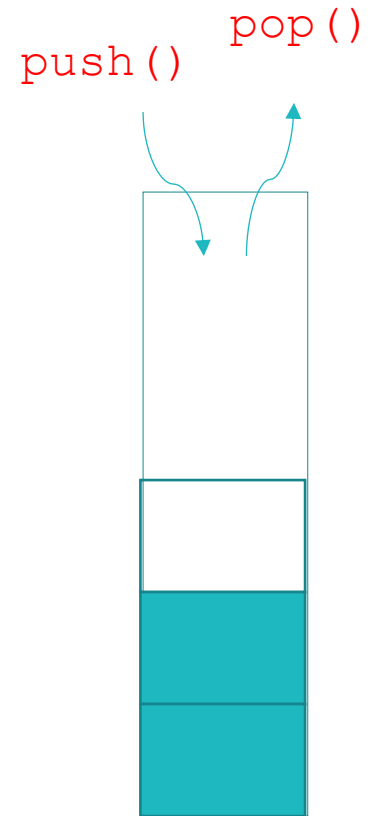
# External Variables

- Properties of external variables:
  - Static storage duration
  - File scope
- Having **file scope** means that an **external variable is visible from** its point of **declaration to the end of the enclosing file**.



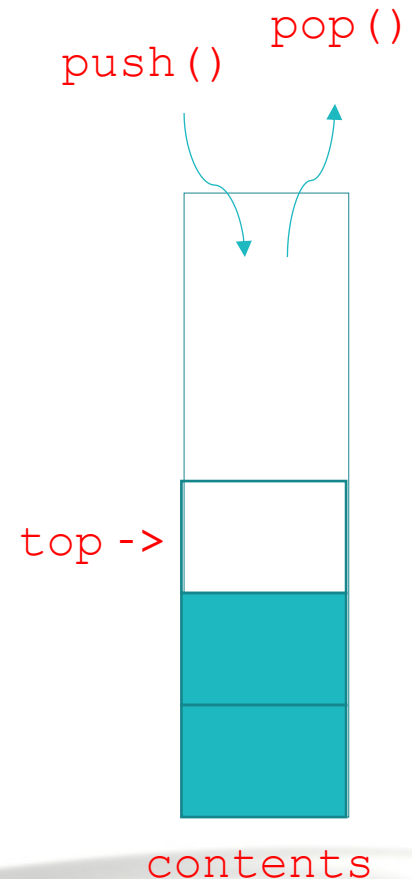
# Example: Using External Variables to Implement a Stack

- To illustrate how external variables might be used, let's look at a **data structure** known as a **stack**.
- A stack, like an array, **can store multiple data items of the same type**.
- The operations on a stack are limited:
  - **Push** an item (**add it to one end**—the “stack top”)
  - **Pop** an item (**remove it from the same end**)
- **Examining or modifying** an item that's **not at the top** of the stack **is forbidden**.



# Example: Using External Variables to Implement a Stack (cont.)

- One way to implement a stack in C is to store its items in an array, which we'll call `contents`.
- A separate integer variable named `top` marks the position of the stack top.
  - When the stack is empty, `top` has the value 0.
- To *push* an item: Store it in `contents` at the position indicated by `top`, then increment `top`.
- To *pop* an item: Decrement `top`, then use it as an index into `contents` to fetch the item that's being popped.



# Example: Using External Variables to Implement a Stack (cont.)

- The following program fragment **declares the contents and top variables** for a stack.
- It also **provides a set of functions** that represent **stack operations**.
- **All five functions need access to the top variable, and two functions need access to contents, so contents and top will be external.**

# Example: Using External Variables to Implement a Stack (cont.)

**stack.c**

```
#include <stdbool.h>

#define STACK_SIZE 100

/* external variables */
int contents[STACK_SIZE];
int top = 0;

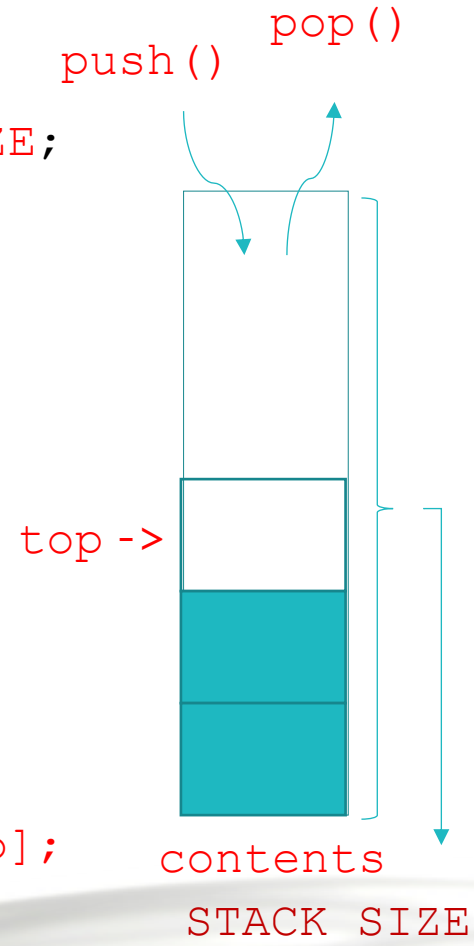
void make_empty(void)
{
    top = 0;
}

bool is_empty(void)
{
    return top == 0;
}
```

```
bool is_full(void)
{
    return top == STACK_SIZE;
}

void push(int i)
{
    if (is_full())
        stack_overflow();
    else
        contents[top++] = i;
}

int pop(void)
{
    if (is_empty())
        stack_underflow();
    else
        return contents[--top];
}
```



# Pros and Cons of External Variables

- External variables are **convenient** when **many functions** must **share a variable** or when a few functions share a large number of variables.
- In most cases, it's better for functions to communicate through parameters rather than by sharing variables:
  - If we change an external variable during program maintenance (by altering its type, say), we'll need to check every function in the same file to see how the change affects it.
  - If an external variable is assigned an incorrect value, it may be difficult to identify the guilty function.
  - Functions that rely on external variables are hard to reuse in other programs.

# Pros and Cons of External Variables (cont.)

- Don't use the same external variable for different purposes in different functions.
- Suppose that several functions need a **variable** named `i` to control a `for` statement.
- Instead of declaring `i` in each function that uses it, some programmers declare it just once at the top of the program.
- This practice is misleading; someone reading the program later may think that the uses of `i` are related, when in fact they're not.

# Pros and Cons of External Variables (cont.)

- Make sure that external variables have meaningful names.
- Local variables don't always need meaningful names: it's often hard to think of a better name than `i` for the control variable in a `for` loop.

# Pros and Cons of External Variables (cont.)

- Making variables external when they should be local can lead to some rather frustrating bugs.

- Code that is supposed to display a 10 × 10 arrangement of asterisks:

```
int i;

void print_one_row(void)
{
    for (i = 1; i <= 10; i++)
        printf("*");
}

void print_all_rows(void)
{
    for (i = 1; i <= 10; i++) {
        print_one_row();
        printf("\n");
    }
}
```

- Instead of printing 10 rows, `print_all_rows` prints only one.



# Program: Guessing a Number

- The `guess.c` program generates a random number between 1 and 100, which the user attempts to guess in as few tries as possible:

Guess the secret number between 1 and 100.

A new number has been chosen.

Enter guess: 55

Too low; try again.

Enter guess: 65

Too high; try again.

Enter guess: 60

Too high; try again.

Enter guess: 58

You won in 4 guesses!

# Program: Guessing a Number (cont.)

```
Play again? (Y/N) y  
A new number has been chosen.  
Enter guess: 78  
Too high; try again.  
Enter guess: 34  
You won in 2 guesses!  
Play again? (Y/N) n
```

- Tasks to be carried out by the program:
  - Initialize the random number generator
  - Choose a secret number
  - Interact with the user until the correct number is picked
- Each task can be handled by a separate function.

# Program: Guessing a Number (cont.)

**guess.c**

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

#define MAX_NUMBER 100

/* external variable */
int secret_number;

/* prototypes */
void initialize_number_generator(void);
void choose_new_secret_number(void);
void read_guesses(void);
```

```
void initialize_number_generator(void)
{
    srand((unsigned) time(NULL));
}
void choose_new_secret_number(void)
{
    secret_number = rand() % MAX_NUMBER + 1;
}
```

# Program: Guessing a Number (cont.)

```
int main(void)
{
    char command;
    printf("Guess the secret number between 1 and %d.\n\n",
          MAX_NUMBER);
    initialize_number_generator();
    do {
        choose_new_secret_number();
        printf("A new number has been chosen.\n");
        read_guesses();
        printf("Play again? (Y/N) ");
        scanf(" %c", &command);
        printf("\n");
    } while (command == 'y' || command == 'Y');

    return 0;
}
```

# Program: Guessing a Number (cont.)

```
void read_guesses(void)
{
    int guess, num_guesses = 0;

    for (;;) {
        num_guesses++;
        printf("Enter guess: ");
        scanf("%d", &guess);
        if (guess == secret_number) {
            printf("You won in %d guesses!\n\n", num_guesses);
            return;
        } else if (guess < secret_number)
            printf("Too low; try again.\n");
        else
            printf("Too high; try again.\n");
    }
}
```

# Program: Guessing a Number (cont.)

- Although `guess.c` works fine, it **relies on the external variable** `secret_number`.
- By altering `choose_new_secret_number` and `read_guesses` **slightly**, we can **move** `secret_number` **into the** `main` **function**.
- The new version of `guess.c` follows, with changes in **bold**.

# Program: Guessing a Number (cont.)

## guess2.c

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

#define MAX_NUMBER 100

/* external variable */
int secret_number;
```

```
/* prototypes */
void initialize_number_generator(void);
int new_secret_number(void);
void read_guesses(int secret_number);
```

```
void initialize_number_generator(void)
{
    srand((unsigned) time(NULL));
}

int new_secret_number(void)
{
    return rand() % MAX_NUMBER + 1;
}
```

# Program: Guessing a Number (cont.)

```
int main(void)
{
    char command;
    int secret_number;

    printf("Guess the secret number between 1 and %d.\n\n",
           MAX_NUMBER);
    initialize_number_generator();
    do {
        secret_number = new_secret_number();
        printf("A new number has been chosen.\n");
        read_guesses(secret_number);
        printf("Play again? (Y/N) ");
        scanf(" %c", &command);
        printf("\n");
    } while (command == 'y' || command == 'Y');

    return 0;
}
```



# Program: Guessing a Number (cont.)

```
void read_guesses(int secret_number)
{
    int guess, num_guesses = 0;
    for (;;) {
        num_guesses++;
        printf("Enter guess: ");
        scanf("%d", &guess);
        if (guess == secret_number) {
            printf("You won in %d guesses!\n\n", num_guesses);
            return;
        } else if (guess < secret_number)
            printf("Too low; try again.\n");
        else
            printf("Too high; try again.\n");
    }
}
```

# Blocks

- In Lecture 3, we encountered **compound statements** of the form  
`{ statements }`
- **C allows** compound statements to **contain declarations** as well as statements:  
`{ declarations statements }`
- This kind of compound statement is called a ***block***.

```
if (i > j) {  
    /* swap i and j */  
    int temp = i;  
    i = j;  
    j = temp;  
}
```

# Blocks (cont.)

- By default, **the storage duration** of a variable declared in a block **is automatic**: storage for the variable is **allocated** when the block is **entered** and **deallocated** when the block is **exited**.
- The variable has **block scope**; it **can't be referenced outside the block**.
- A variable that belongs to a block **can be declared static** to give it static storage duration.

# Blocks (cont.)

- The **body of a function** is a **block**.
- **Blocks** are also useful inside a **function** body when we need **variables** for **temporary** use.
- **Advantages** of declaring temporary variables in blocks:
  - **Avoids cluttering declarations** at the beginning of the function body with variables that are used only briefly.
  - **Reduces name conflicts**.
- **C** allows variables to be **declared anywhere within a block**.

# Scope Rules

- In a C program, the **same identifier may have several different meanings**.
- When a declaration inside a block names **an identifier that's already visible**, the **new declaration temporarily "hides" the old one**, and the identifier takes on a new meaning.
- At the **end of the block**, the identifier **regains its old meaning**.

# Scope Rules (cont.)

- In Declaration 1, `i` is a variable with **static storage duration** and **file scope**.
- In Declaration 2, `i` is a parameter with **block scope**.
- In Declaration 3, `i` is an automatic variable with **block scope**.
- In Declaration 4, `i` is also automatic and has **block scope**.

```
int i; /* Declaration 1 */

void f(int i) /* Declaration 2 */
{
    i = 1;
}

void g(void)
{
    int i = 2; /* Declaration 3 */
    if (i > 0) {
        int i; /* Declaration 4 */
        i = 3;
    }
    i = 4;
}

void h(void)
{
    i = 5;
}
```

The diagram illustrates the scope resolution for the variable `i` across different declarations. Arrows indicate the following: 1. The `i` in the first line points to Declaration 1. 2. The `i` in the function parameter of `f` points to Declaration 2. 3. The `i` in the assignment `i = 1;` inside `f` points to Declaration 2. 4. The `i` in the parameter of `g` points to Declaration 1. 5. The `i` in the assignment `i = 2;` inside `g` points to Declaration 3. 6. The `i` in the condition `(i > 0)` inside `g` points to Declaration 3. 7. The `i` in the assignment `i = 3;` inside the `if` block of `g` points to Declaration 4. 8. The `i` in the assignment `i = 4;` after the `if` block of `g` points to Declaration 3. 9. The `i` in the assignment `i = 5;` inside `h` points to Declaration 1.

# A Quick Review to This Lecture

- General form of a **function definition**:

```
return-type function-name ( parameters )  
{  
    declarations  
    statements  
}
```

- Variables declared in the body of a function can't be examined or modified by other functions.
- Function call: function name followed by arguments in parentheses:
- This statement is legal but has no effect.  
fun;        // fun() won't be called

```
average(x, y)  
print_count(i)  
print_pun()
```

# A Quick Review to This Lecture (cont.)

- Specifying return type as `void` indicates no return value.
- The word `void` is placed in parentheses indicates that a function has no parameters.
- Functions may not return arrays.
- General form of a function declaration:  
*return-type function-name ( parameters ) ;*
- Either a declaration or a definition of a function must be present prior to any call of the function.

```
void fun(int n) {  
}
```

```
void fun(void) {  
}  
fun();
```

The parentheses *must* be present.



# A Quick Review to This Lecture (cont.)

- In C, arguments are ***passed by value***: when a function is called, **each argument is evaluated** and its **value assigned to the corresponding parameter**.
- Passing **one-dimensional array**, **length is supplied as second argument**:

```
int sum_array(int a[], int n) { ... }
```

- Passing two-dimensional array, number of columns must be specified:

```
int sum_two_dimensional_array(int a[][LEN], int n) {...}
```

- The `return` statement has the form

```
return expression ;
```

# A Quick Review to This Lecture (cont.)

- The value returned by `main` is a status code that can be tested when the program terminates. (0: normal, non-0: abnormal)
- Program termination
  - `return statement in main()`
  - Calling `exit()` in any function

# A Quick Review to This Lecture (cont.)

```
int global;           → external variable
fun ( int parm )      → parameter
{
    int var;          → auto/local variable
    static int svar;  → static local variable

    return var;
}
```

Type	Storage duration	Scope
Local variable	Automatic	Block
Parameter	Automatic	Block
Static local variable	Static	Block
External variable	Static	File

