- In C++ there is no distinction between functions, procedure, and subroutine; we use the term function for all
- Consider a function function
 - with four parameters x, y, i, and j, of type
 float, float, int, and int, respectively
 - which computes and returns

```
» (x-y)/(i-j), i \neq j

» 10^{20}, i = j and x \neq y (with sign of (x-y))

» 0, i = j and x = y
```

```
// FDEMO1: Demonstration program with a function
#include <iostream.h>
int main()
  float fun(float x, float y, int i, int j);
  float xx, yy;
  int ii, jj;
  cout << "Enter two real numbers followed by two integers:
n'';
  cin >> xx >> yy >> ii >> jj;
  cout << "Value returned by function: "
       << fu(xx, yy, ii, jj) << endl;
  return 0;
```

```
float fun(float x, float y, int i, int j)
{  float a = x - y;
  int b = i - j;
  return b != 0 ? a/b :
      a > 0 ? +1e20 :
      a < 0 ? -1e20 : 0.0;
}</pre>
```

```
float fun(float x, float y, int i, int j)//ALTERNATIVE
  float a, result;
                                        //FORMULATION
  int b;
  a = x - y; b = i - j;
  if (b != 0)
     result = a/b;
                          // non-zero denominator
  else
     if (a > 0)
        result = +1e20; // +ve numerator
     else
        if (a < 0)
           result = -1e20; // -ve numerator
        else
           result = 0.0; // zero numerator
  return result;
```

Key points

- fun(xx, yy, ii, jj) is a function call
- xx, yy, ii, jj are called arguments
- the parameters x, y, i, j are used as local variables within the function
- the initial values of x, y, i, j correspond to the passed arguments xx, yy, ii, jj
- the return expression; statement assigns the value of expression to the function and then returns to the calling function (main, in this case)

Key points

– The type of each parameter must be specified:

```
float fun(float x, float y, int i, int j) // correct
float fun(float x, y, int i, j) // incorrect
```

- We can omit the parameter names in the function declaration (but not the definition) but it's not good practice float fun(float, float, int, int) // declaration in // main()
- A function may be delared either inside a function that contains a call to it or before it at the global level

Key points

 A function may be delared either inside a function that contains a call to it or before it at the global level

```
float fun(float x, float y, int i, int j);
...
main()
{
}
```

- Global declarations are valid until the end of the file
- Can have many declarations
- Can have only one definition (which must not occur inside another function)

- Key points
 - If the definition occurs before the first usage of the function, there is no need to declare it (as a definition is also a declaration)
 - Function arguments can be expressions

```
float result = fun(xx+1, 2*yy, ii+2, jj-ii);
```

» NOTE: the order in which the arguments are evaluated is undefined

```
/* ill defined function call */
float result = fun(xx, yy, ++ii, ii+3);
```

- Some functions do not return a value
- Similar to procedures and subroutines
- The functions are given the type void

```
void max(int x, int y, int z)
{  if (y > x) x = y;
  if (z > x) x = z;
  cout << "the maximum is " << x << endl;
}
// Poor programming style; why?</pre>
```

 Functions with no parameters are declared (and defined) with parameters of type void

```
/* read a real number */
double readreal(void)
{   double x;   char ch;
   while (scanf("%lf", &x) != 1)
   {      // skip rest of incorrect line
      do ch = getchar(); while (ch != '\n');
      printf("\nIncorrect. Enter a number:\n";
   }
   return x;
}
```

- In C omission of void would have implied that the function could have had any number of parameters
- In C++ omission of information about parameters is not allowed
 - no parameters means NO parameters
 - double readreal(void) = double readreal()

In C one normally writes

```
main()
```

This is equivalent to:

```
int main()
```

not void main() and implies return 0; at the end of the main function.

• It makes sense to adopt the int formulation (with the required return statement) since the operating system often picks up the main return value as a run-time error code

Global Variables

- Local variables
 - defined within a function
 - visible only within that function (local scope)
- Global variables
 - defined outside functions
 - visible from the point of definition to end of the file (global scope)
 - modification of a global variable by a function is called a side-effect ... to be avoided

Global Variables

Scope Rules

- If two variables have the same name and are both in scope, then the one with local scope is used
- Scope resolution operator ::
 - C++ enables us to explicitly over-ride the local scope rule
 - Indicate that the global variable is meant by writing the scope-resolution-operator in front of the variable name

Scope Resolution

```
#include <iostream.h>;
int i = 1;
int main()
   int i=2;
   cout << ::i << endl; // Output: 1 (global variable)</pre>
   cout << i      << endl; // Output: 2 (local variable)</pre>
   return 0;
 more on :: in the section on structures and classes
```

C++ allows reference parameters

```
void swap1(int &x, int &y)
{  int temp;
  temp = x;
  x = y;
  y = temp;
}
```

The arguments of swap1 must be Ivalues

- C does not allow reference parameters
- Instead of passing parameters by reference
 - we pass the address of the argument
 - and access the parameter indirectly in the function
- & (unary operator)
 - address of the object given by the operand
- * (unary operator)
 - object that has the address given by the operand

```
void swap1(int *p, int *q)
{   int temp;
   temp = *p;
   *p = *q;
   *q = temp;
}
```

swap(&i, &j); // function call

Pointers

- *p has type int
- But p is the parameter, not *p
- Variables that have addresses as their values are called pointers
- p is a pointer
- The type of p is pointer-to-int

Functions Types of Arguments and Return Values

Argument Types

- Function arguments are automatically converted to the required parameter types, if possible
- If it is not, an (compile) error message is given
- Thus it is valid to pass an integer argument to a function with a float parameter
- The same rules for type conversion apply as did in assignment statements

Functions Types of Arguments and Return Values

- Types of return values
 - The conversion rules also apply to returnstatements

```
int g(double x, double y)
{ return x * x - y * y + 1;
}
```

 Since the definition says that g has type int, the value returned is int and truncation take place

Functions Types of Arguments and Return Values

- Types of return values
 - It would be better to explicitly acknowledge this with a cast

```
int g(double x, double y)
{ return int (x * x - y * y + 1);
}
```

- Variables can be initialized when the are declared. However:
 - Variables can be initialized only when memory locations are assigned to them
 - In the absence of explicit initialization, the intial value 0 is assigned to all variables that are global or static

- global
 - » variables that are declared outside functions
 - » have a permanent memory location
 - » can only be intialized with a constant expression
- static
 - » a keyword used in the declaration to enforce the allocation of a permanent memory location
 - » static variables local to a function are initialized ONLY the first time the function is called
 - » can only be intialized with a constant expression

- auto

- » a keyword used in the declaration to enforce the (default) allocation of memory from the stack
- » such variables are called automatic
- » memory associated with automatic variables is released when the functions in which they are declared are exited
- » unless initialized, you should not assume automatic variables have an initial value of 0 (or any value)
- » can be intialized with any valid expression (not necessarily a constant expression

```
#include <iostream.h>
void f()
  static int i=1;
   cout << i++ << endl;
int main()
 f();
   f();
  return 0;
```

```
#include <iostream.h>
void f()
  static int i=1;
   cout << i++ << endl;</pre>
int main()
                  // prints 1
{ f();
                  // prints 2
   f();
   return 0;
```

- Uses of local static variables
 - For example, as a flag which can indicate the first time a function is called

- Initialization of arrays
 - write the initial values in braces
 - There must not be more initial values than there are array elements
 - There can be fewer (but at least one!)
 - Trailing elements are initialized to 0

```
float a[a100] = {23, 41.5};
// a[0]=23; a[1]=41.5; a[2]= ... = a[99]= 0
char str[16] = "Charles Handy";
```

Default arguments

- C++ allows a function to be called with fewer arguments than there are parameters
- Must supply the parameters with default argument values (i.e. initialized parameters)
- Once a parameter is initialized, all subsequent parameters must also be initialized

```
void f(int i, float x=0, char ch='A')
{
    ...
}
```

```
void f(int i, float x=0, char ch='A')
{
    ...
}
...
f(5, 1.23, 'E');
f(5, 1.23); // equivalent to f(5,1.23,'A');
f(5); // equivalent to f(5,0,'A');
```

Default arguments

- functions which are both defined and declared can also have default argument
- Default value may only be specified once, either in the declaration or in the definition

```
// declaration
void f(int i, float, char ch);

// definition
void f(int i, float x=0; char ch='A')
{ ...
}
```

Functions Separate Compilation

 Large programs can be split into modules, compiled separately, and subsequently linked

Functions Separate Compilation

```
// MODULE1
#include <iostream>
int main()
 void f(int i), g(void);
   extern int n; // declaration of n
                  // (not a definition)
   f(8);
   n++i
   q();
   cout << "End of program.\n";
   return 0;
```

Functions Separate Compilation

```
// MODULE2
#include <iostream>
int n=100; // Defintion of n (also a declaration)
static int m=7;
void f(int i)
\{ n += i+m;
void g(void)
   cout << "n = " << n << endl;
                                                 36 of 73.
```

- n is used in both modules
 - » defined in module 2
 - » declared (to be extern) in module 1
- f() and g() are used in module 1
 - » defined in module 2
 - » declared in module 1
- A variable may only be used after it has been declared
- Only definitions reserve memory (and hence can only be used with initializations)

- we defined a variable only once
- we can declare it many times
- a variable declaration at the global level (outside a function) is valid from that declaration until the end of the file (global scope)
- a declaration inside a function is valid only in that function (*local scope*)
- we don't need to use the keyword extern with functions

- static int m=7;
 - » m is already global and so its memory location is permanent
 - » Thus, the keyword static might seem unnessary;
 - » However, static global variables are the private to the module in which they occur
 - » cannot write

```
extern int m; // error
```

- Static can also be used with functions
 - » This makes them private to the module in which they are defined
- The keyword static, both for global variables and for functions, is very for
 - » avoiding name-space pollution
 - » restricting scope and usage to instances where usage is intended
 - » Avoid global variables (and make them static if you must use them)
 - » make functions static if they are private to your code

Functions Standard Mathematical Functions

#include <math.h>

Declare standard maths functions by

```
double cos(double x);
 double sin(double x);
  double tan(double x);
 double exp(double x);
 double ln(double x);
  double log10(double x);
  double pow(double x, double y); // x to the y
  double sqrt(double x);
  double floor(double x); // truncate

    double ceil(double x); // round up

    double fabs(double x); // x
```

Functions Standard Mathematical Functions

values

```
double acos(double x);
double asin(double x);
double atan(double x); // -pi/2 .. +pi/2
double atan2(double y, double x);
double cosh(double x);
double sinh(double x);
double tanh(double x);
```

abs and labs are defined in stdlib.h but return integer

- C++ allows the definition of two or more functions with the same name
- This is known as Function Overloading
 - number or types of parameters must differ

```
- void writenum(int i)  // function 1
    {     printf("%10d", i);
    }

void writenum(float x) // function 2
    {     printf(%10.4f", x);
    }
```

```
writenum(expression);
```

- function 1 is called if expression is type int
- function 2 is called if expression is type float
- The functions are distinguished by their parameter types and parameter numbers

Allowable or not?

```
int g(int n)
{ ...
}

float g(int n)
{ ...
}
```

Allowable or not?

```
int g(int n)
{ ...
}

float g(int n)
{ ...
}
```

Not! parameters don't differ.

- Type-safe linkage
 - Differentiation between functions is facilitated by name mangling
 - » coded information about the parameters is appended to the function name
 - » all this information is used by the linker

- Type-safe linkage
 - Of use even if not using function overloading:

• C++ compilers will catch this; C compilers won't

Functions References as Return Values

 The return value can also be a reference (just as parameters can be reference parameters)

Functions References as Return Values

```
//REFFUN: Reference as return value.
#include <iostream.h>
int &smaller(int &x, int &y)
\{ \text{ return } (x < y ? x : y); 
int main()
  int a=23, b=15;
   cout << "a = " << a << " b = " << b << endl;
   cout << "The smaller of these is "
   << smaller(a, b) << endl;
   smaller(a, b) = 0; // a function on the LHS!
   cout << " The smaller of a and b is set to 0:";
   cout << "a = " << a << " b = " << b << endl;
                                                 50 of 73.
   return 0;
```

Functions References as Return Values

Key points about the assignment

```
smaller(a, b) = 0;
```

- Function smaller returns the argument itself (i.e. either a or b)
- This gets assigned the value 0
- The arguments must be variables
- The & must be used with the parameters
- The returned value must exist outside the scope of the function

- A call to a function causes
 - a jump to a separate and unique code segment
 - the passing and returning of arguments and function values
- This trades off time efficiency in favour of space efficiency
- Inline functions cause
 - no jump or parameter passing
 - duplication of the code segment in place of the function call

Functions References as Return Values

```
inline int sum(int n)
{  return n*(n+1)/2; // 1+2+ ... n
}
```

- Should only use for time-critical code
- and for short functions
- Inline functions are available only in C++, not C

- In C we would have used a macro to achieve the effect of inline functions
 - define a macro
 - macro expansion occurs every time the compiler preprocessor meets the macro reference
 - for example

```
\#define sum(n) ((n)*((n)+1); // note ()
```

The following macro call

```
y = 1.0 / sum(k+1)/2;
```

expands to

```
y = 1.0 / ((k+1) * ((k+1)+1)/2);
```

 If we had defined the macro without full use of parentheses

```
\#define sum(n) n*(n+1)/2;
```

the expansion would have been

```
y = 1.0 / k+1 * (k+1+1)/2;
```

– which is seriously wrong … why?

Some macros have no parameters

```
#define LENGTH 100

#define ID_number(i) array_id[i];
```

 Since macro expansion occurs at preprocessor stage, compilation errors refer to the expanded text and make no reference to the macro definition per se

```
#define f(x) ((x)*(x)+(x)+1);
...
y = f(a) * f(b);
```

produces the syntactically incorrect code (and a possibly confusing "invalid indirection" error)

```
y = ((a)*(a)+(a)+1); * ((b)*(b)+(b)+1);;
```

- Previously defined macros can be used in the definition of a macro.
- Macros cannot call themselves
 - if, in a macro definition, its own name is used then this name is not expanded

```
#define cos(x) cos((x) * PI/180)
//cos (a+b) expands to cos((a+b))*PI/180)
```

- A macro can be defined more than once
 - The replacement text MUST be identical

```
#define LENGTH 100
...
#define LENGTH 1000 // not allowed
```

- Consequently, the same macro can now be defined in more than one header file
- And it is valid to include several such header files in the same program file

- The string generating character #
 - In macro definitions, parameters immediately preceded by a
 # are surrounded by double quotes in the macro expansion

```
#define print_value(x) printf(#x " = %f\n", x)
...
print_value(temperature);
// expands to printf("temperature" " = %f\n",
temperature);
```

- Consequently, the same macro can now be defined in more

Header files

The preprocessor also expands #include lines

```
#include <stdio.h>
#include "myfile.h"
```

- The two lines are logically replaced by the contents of these header files
- <...> search for the header file only in the general include directories
- search in the current directory first, then search in the general include direct.

Header files

- normally used to declare functions and to define macros
- included in several module files
- header files can also include files
- function definition should NOT be written in header files (except, perhaps, inline functions)

- Conditional compilation
 - compile a program fragment (A) only if a certain condition is met

```
#if constant expression
    program fragment A
#else
    program fragment B
#endif
```

The #else clause is optional

- Conditional compilation
 - a useful way to 'comment out' large sections of text which comprises statements and comments
 - (remember, we can't nest comments)

```
#if SKIP
    /* lots of statements */
    a = PI;
    ...
#endif
```

Tests about names being known

```
#if !defined(PI)
#define PI 3.14159265358979
#endif
```

- defined() can be used with the logical operators !,
||, and &&

– Older forms:

```
#ifdef name is equivalent to #if defined (name)
#ifndef name is equivalent to #if !defined (name)
```

Tests about names being known

```
#undef PI
```

undefines a name (even if it hasn't been defined)

Making the compiler print error messages

```
#include "myfile.h"
#if !(defined(V_B)
#error You should use Ver. B of myfile.h
#endif
```

Compilation terminates after printing the error message

- Predefined names
 - can be used in constant expressions

LINE	integer: current line number
FILE	string: current file being compiled
DATE	string: date in the form Mmm dd yyyy
	(date of compilation)
TIME	string: date in the form Mmm dd yyyy
	(time of compilation)
cplusplus	a constant defined only if we are using
	a C++ compiler

7. Write and test a function sort4, which has four parameters. If the integer variables a, b, c, and d are available and have been assigned values, we wish to write:

```
sort4(&a, &b, &c, &d);
```

- to sort these four variables, so that, after this call, we have a<= b <= c <= d
- 8. Write and test a function sort4_2 which uses reference parameters

9. Investigate (on paper and then with a computer) the effect of the following recursive function and calling program with values k=0,1,2,...5

```
sort4(&a, &b, &c, &d);
```

```
#include <iostream.h>
void f(int n)
\{ if (n > 0) \}
   \{ f(n-2); cout << n << ""; f(n-1); \}
int main()
  int k;
   cout << "Enter k: "; cin >> k;
   cout << "Output:\n";</pre>
   f(k);
   return 0;
```

10. Write and test a (recursive) function gcd(x, y) which computes the greatest common divisor of the integers x and y. These two integers are non-negative and not both equal to zero. Use Euclid's algorithm:

$$gcd(x,y) = x$$
 if $y = 0$ $gcd(y, x%y)$ if $y!=0$