

# Chapter 7

# Functions

# Introduction

- During the 1970s and into the 80s, the primary software engineering methodology was *structured programming*.
- Structured programming makes
  - programs more comprehensible.
  - programming errors less frequent.
- A *function* is a self-contained block of program statements that performs a particular task.

# Why are Functions Needed?

- It breaks up a program into easily manageable chunks and makes programs significantly easier to understand.
- Well written functions may be reused in multiple programs. e.g. the C standard library functions.
- Functions can be used to protect data.
- Different programmers working on one large project can divide the workload by writing different functions.

# Why are Functions Needed?

- All C programs contain at least one function, called `main()`, where execution starts.
- When a function is called, the code contained in that function is executed.
- When the function has finished executing, control returns to the point at which that function was called.

# Function Prototype Declaration

- The general form of function declaration statement is as follows:

`return_data_type function_name (data_type variable1,...);`

Or

`return_data_type function_name (data_type_list);`

# Function Prototype Declaration

- `function_name` :
  - This is the name given to the function
  - It follows the same naming rules as that for any valid variable in C.
- `return_data_type`:
  - This specifies the type of data given back to the calling function after it executes its specific task.
- `data_type_list`:
  - This list specifies the data type of each of the variables.

# Function Prototype Declaration

- The name of a function is global.
- No function can be defined in another function body.
- Number of arguments must agree with the number of parameters specified in the prototype.
- The function return type cannot be an array or a function type.

# Rules for Parameters

- The number of parameters in the actual and formal parameter lists must be consistent.
- Parameter association in C is *positional*.
- Actual parameters and formal parameters must be of compatible data types.
- Actual (input) parameters may be a variable, constant, or any expression matching the type of the corresponding formal parameter.



# Call By Value Mechanism

- In call by value, a copy of the data is made and the copy is sent to the function.
- The copies of the value held by the arguments are passed by the function call.
- As only copies of the values held in the arguments are sent to the formal parameters, the function cannot directly modify the arguments passed.

# An Example of Call by Value Mechanism

```
#include <stdio.h>
int mul_by_10(int num); /* function prototype */
int main(void)
{
    int result, num = 3;
    printf("\n num = %d before function call.", num);
    result = mul_by_10(num);
    printf("\n result = %d after return from
        function", result);
    printf("\n num = %d", num);
    return 0;
}
/* function definition follows */
int mul_by_10(int num)
{
    num *= 10;
    return num;
}
```

## Output

```
num = 3, before function call.
result = 30, after return from function.
num = 3
```

# Passing Arrays to Functions

- When an array is passed to a function, the address of the array is passed and not the copy of the complete array.
- During its execution the function has the ability to modify the contents of the array that is specified as the function argument.
- The array is not passed to a function by value.
- This is an exception to the rule of passing the function arguments by value.

# Passing Arrays to Functions

- Consider the following example

## Output

The given numbers are :1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10,  
The double numbers are : 2, 4, 6, 8, 10, 12, 14, 16, 18, 20,

```
#include <stdio.h>
void doubleThem(int [], int);
/* declaration of function */
int main(void)
{
    int myInts[10] = {1,2,3,4,5,6,7,8,9,10};
    int size=10;
    printf("\n\n The given numbers are :");
    for (i = 0; i < size; i++)
        printf("%d,",myInts[i]);
    doubleThem(myInts,size); /* function call */
    printf("\n\n The double numbers are : ");
    for (i = 0; i < size; i++)
        printf("%d,",myInts [i]);
    return 0;
}
/***** function definition *****/
void doubleThem(int a[], int size)
{
    int i;
    for(i = 0; i < size; i++)
    {
        a[i] = 2 * a[i];
    }
}
```

# Scope Rules

- The region of the program over which the declaration of an identifier is accessible is called the *scope of the identifier*.
- The scope relates to the accessibility, the period of existence, and the boundary of usage of variables declared in a program.
- Scopes can be of four types.
  - Block
  - File
  - Function
  - Function prototype

# Storage Classes

| Storage class specifier | Place of storage | Scope  | Lifetime  | Default value |
|-------------------------|------------------|--|---|---------------|
| auto                    | Primary memory   | Within the block or function where it is declared.   | Exists from the time of entry in the function or block to its return to the calling function or to the end of block.  | garbage       |
| register                | Register of CPU  | Within the block or function where it is declared.   | Exists from the time of entry in the function or block to its return to the calling function or to the end of block.  | garbage       |
| static                  | Primary memory   | <i>For local</i><br>Within the block or function where it is declared.<br><i>For global</i><br>Accessible within the program file where it is declared | <i>For local</i><br>Retains the value of the variable from one entry of the block or function to the next or next call.<br><i>For global</i><br>Preserves value in the program file | 0             |
| extern                  | Primary memory   |  | Exists as long as the program is in execution.  | 0             |

# Storage Class Specifiers for Functions

- The only storage class specifiers that may be assigned with functions are extern and static.
- extern signifies that the function can be referenced from other files.
- static signifies that the function cannot be referenced from other files.
- If no storage class appears in a function definition, extern is presumed.



# Linkage

- An identifier's linkage determines which of the references to that identifier refer to the same object.
- C defines three types of linkages – external, internal, and no linkage.
- Functions and global variables have external linkage.
- Identifiers with file scope declared as static have internal linkage.
- Local identifiers have no linkage and are therefore known only within their own block.
- The same identifier cannot appear in a file with both internal and external linkage.



# Inline Function

- C99 has added the keyword *inline*, which applies to functions.
- By preceding a function declaration with *inline*, the compiler is instructed to optimize calls to the function.
- Here the function's code will be expanded in line, rather than called.

- Function definition:

```
inline int sum(int x, int y)
{
    return x+y;
}
```

# Recursion

- *Recursion* in programming is a technique for defining a problem in terms of one or more smaller versions of the same problem.
- A function that calls itself directly or indirectly to solve a smaller version of its task until a final call which does not require a self-call is a recursive function.
- The following are necessary for implementing recursion:
  - Decomposition into smaller problems of same type
  - Recursive calls must diminish problem size
  - Necessity of base case
  - Base case must be reached
    - It acts as a terminating condition. Without an explicitly defined base case, a recursive function would call itself indefinitely.
    - It is the building block to the complete solution. In a sense, a recursive function determines its solution from the base case(s) it reaches.

# What is Needed for Implementing Recursion?

- Decomposition into smaller problems of same type
- Recursive calls must diminish problem size
- Necessity of base case
- Base case must be reached
- It acts as a terminating condition. Without an explicitly defined base case, a recursive function would call itself indefinitely.
- It is the building block to the complete solution. In a sense, a recursive function determines its solution from the base case(s) it reaches.

# Recursion

- A recursive function is one that calls itself directly or indirectly to solve a smaller version of its task until a final call which does not require a self-call.
- Recursion is like a top–down approach to problem solving; it divides the problem into pieces or selects one key step, postponing the rest.
- On the other hand, iteration is more of a bottom–up approach; it begins with what is known and from this constructs the solution step by step.
- What is a base case? An instance of a problem the solution of which requires no further recursive calls is known as a base case. It is a special case whose solution is known. Every recursive algorithm requires at least one base case in order to be valid.

```
if (this is a base case) then
    solve it directly
else
    redefine the problem using recursion.
```

# Recursion

Four questions can arise for constructing a recursive solution.

- ❑ How can the problem be defined in terms of one or more smaller problems of the same type?
- ❑ What instance(s) of the problem can serve as the base case(s)?
- ❑ As the problem size diminishes, will this/these base case(s) be reached?
- ❑ How is/are the solution(s) from the smaller problem(s) used to build a correct solution to the current larger problem?

It is not always necessary or even desirable to ask the above questions in strict order.

# Recursion

## **Linear recursion**

- This term is used to describe a recursive function where at most one recursive call is carried out as part of the execution of a single recursive process.

## **Non-linear recursion**

- This term is used to describe a recursive function where more than one recursion can be carried out as part of the execution of a single recursive process.

## **Mutual recursion**

- Two functions are called mutually recursive if the first function makes a recursive call to the second function and the second function, in turn, calls the first one.

# Fibonacci Sequence

$fib(n) = 1, 1, 2, 3, 5, 8, 13, 21, 34, 55, 89, 144, \dots$

- How can the problem be defined in terms of one or more smaller problems of the same type?

$$fib(n) = fib(n-2) + fib(n-1) \text{ for } n > 2$$

- What instance of the problem can serve as the base case?

$$fib(1) = 1 \text{ for } n = 1$$

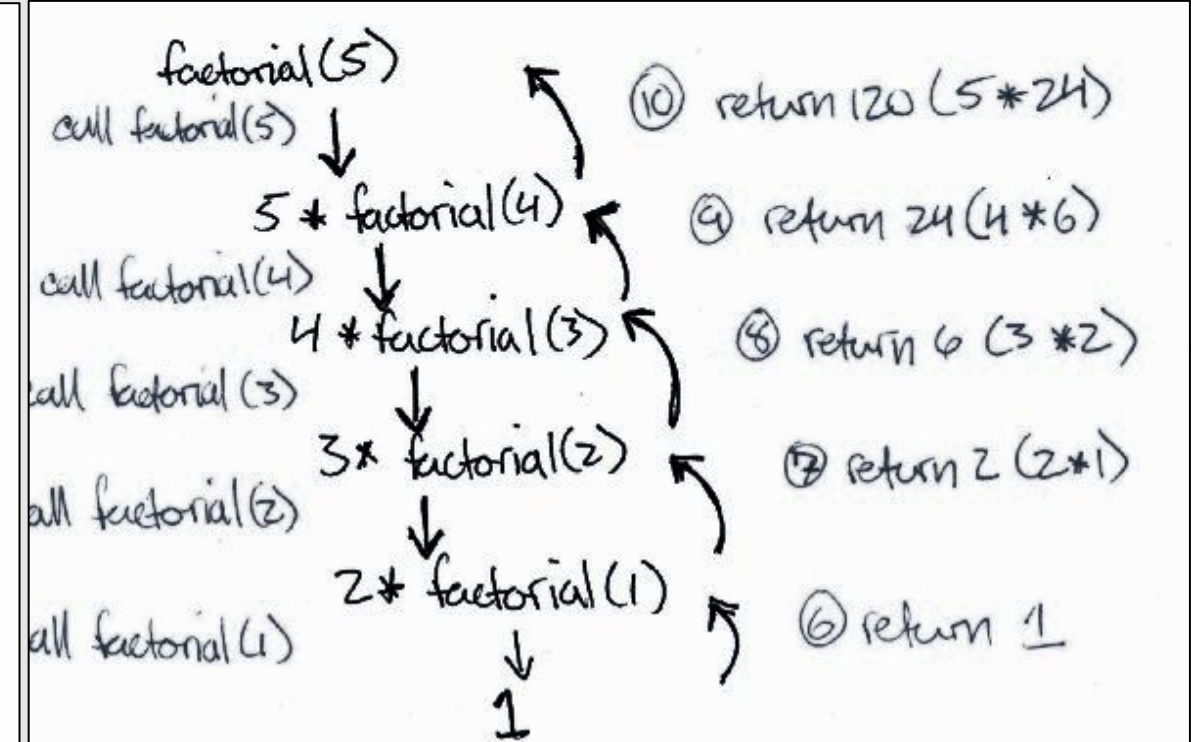
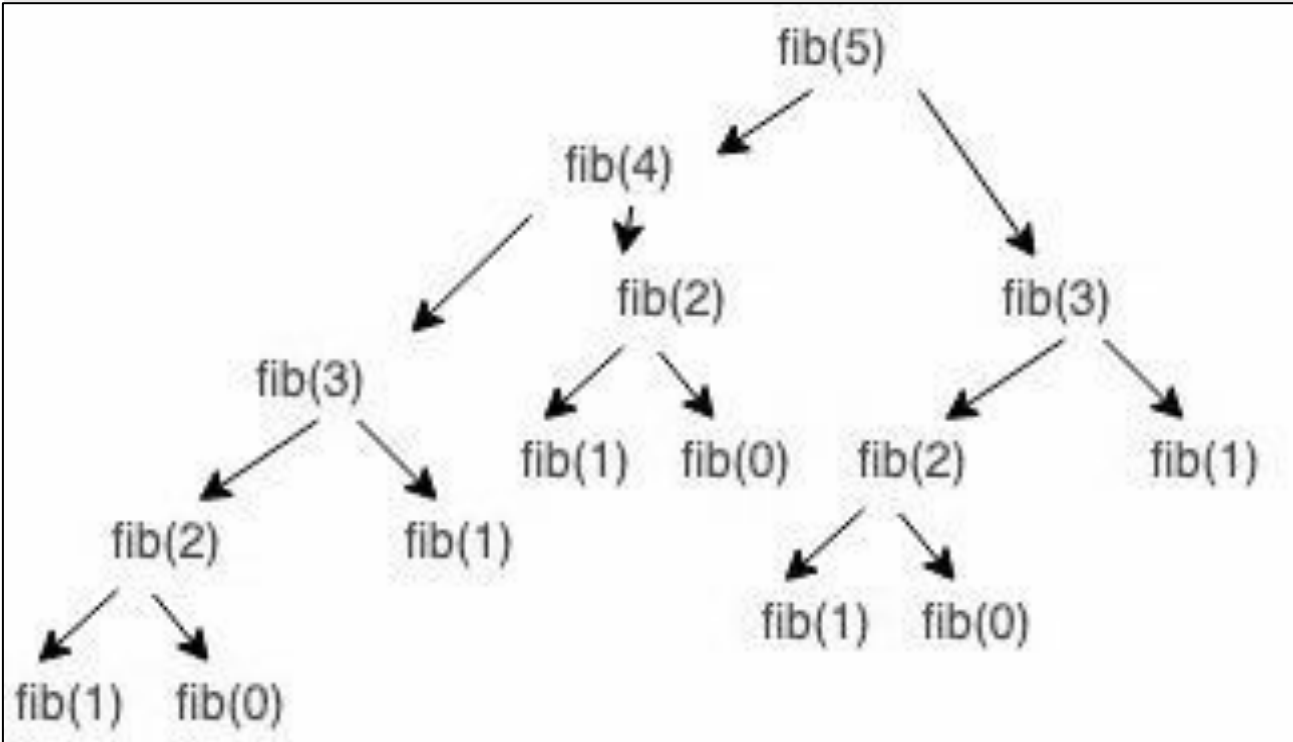
$$fib(2) = 1 \text{ for } n = 2$$

- As the problem size diminishes, will one reach these base cases?
  - $n$  = non-negative integer - each call to the function will reduce the parameter  $n$  by 1 or 2
- How are the solutions from the smaller problems used to build a correct solution to the current larger problem? [ $fib(n) = fib(n-2) + fib(n-1)$ ]
  - function uses non-linear recursion.

# Fibonacci Sequence

```
int fib(int val)
{
    if(val <= 2)
        return 1;
    else
        return (fib(val - 1) + fib(val - 2));
}
```





# Greatest Common Divisor

The greatest common divisor of two integers is the largest integer that divides them both.

```
int gcd(int a, int b)
{
    int remainder;
    remainder = a % b;
    if(remainder == 0)
        return b;
    else
        return gcd(b, remainder);
}
```

# Examples

Iterative:

$$f(n) = 1 + 2 + 3 + \dots + n$$

Recursive:

$$f(n) = 1 \quad n=1$$

$$f(n) = n + f(n-1) \quad n>1$$

Iterative:

$$f(n) = 1 * 2 * 3 * \dots * n$$

Recursive:

$$f(n) = 1 \quad n=1$$

$$f(n) = n * f(n-1) \quad n>1$$

For user input : 5

Factorial Recursion Function

$$n * f(n-1)$$

Final Result

$$5 * f(4) = 5 * 24 = 120$$

$$4 * f(3) = 4 * 6 = 24$$

$$3 * f(2) = 3 * 2 = 6$$

$$2 * f(1) = 2 * 1 = 2$$

# Example

**INPUT:** n - a natural number.

**OUTPUT:** true if n is even; false otherwise

**odd(n)**

```
if n = 0 then return FALSE
return even(n-1)
```

**even(n)**

```
if n = 0 then return TRUE
else return odd(n-1)
```

# Recursion and Iteration

- Recursion is a very powerful tool for solving complex problem, particularly when the underlying problem or data to be treated are already defined in recursive terms.
- Depending on the implementation available and the algorithm being used, recursion can require a substantial amount of runtime overhead.
- Thus, the use of recursion illustrates the classic trade off between time spent in constructing and maintaining a program and the cost in time and memory of execution of that program

# Recursion and Iteration

- Two factors contribute to the inefficiency of some recursive solutions.
  - The overhead associated with function calls
  - The inefficient utilization of memory
- Every time a new recursive call is made a new set of local variables is allocated to function.
- Moreover it also slows down execution speed, as function calls require jumps, and saving the current state of the calling function onto stack before jump.
- Recursion is of value when the return values of the recursive function are used in further processing within the calling version of the function



**Thank You!**