

COMP10002 Workshop Week 4

Functions: The Lazy Programmers' Best Friend

1. Functions, discuss 6.02
2. Pointers, Pointers as Function Parameters

LAB:

- minimum requirements: 5.06 (amicable pair), 6.09 (coin change)
- other exercises (a lot!) in Chapters 5 and 6
- Q&A for the coming-soon MST

PROGRAM STRUCTURE

- A C program is a set of functions, with one and only one function `main()`.
- Execution of a C program is the execution of its `main()`.
- Good convention: `main()` be the first implemented function.
- Functions other than `main()` must be declared before use and implemented at some stage.

	my_program.c
<div>#include & #define</div> <div>function declarations (prototypes)</div> <div>main() function –start</div> <div>– end</div>	<pre>#include <stdio.h> #include <stdlib.h> #define... int intPow(int n, int k) ; ... int main(int argc, char *argv[]) { int n= 2, m= 3; ... printf("n^m + m^n = %d\n", intPow(n, m) + intPow(m, n)); ... return 0; }</pre>
<div>implementation of declared function(s)</div>	<pre>int intPow(int n, int k) { // supposing k>=0 and and no overflow int i, pow= 1; for (i=0; i<k; i++) { pow *= n; } return pow; } ...</pre>

How Functions Work Independently & Together?

- All variables declared inside a function, including its parameters, are local to that function.
- A function can access (use and modify) its own local variables but **cannot** directly access the local variables of other functions.
- Functions share data by passing parameters and returning values.

my_program.c	
<pre> #include <stdio.h> #include <stdlib.h> #define... int intPow(int n, int k) ; ... int main(int argc, char *argv[]) { int n= 2, m= 3; ... printf("n^m + m^n = %d\n", intPow(n, m) + intPow(m, n)); ... return 0; } </pre>	<p>main() can only access:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> argc argv n m
<pre> int intPow(int n, int k) { // supposing k>=0 and no overflow int i, pow= 1; for (i=0; i<k; i++) { pow *= n; } return pow; } ... </pre>	<p>intPow can only access n, k, i, pow.</p> <p>Note that this n differs from that n declared in main()</p>

Exercise 6.02: understanding local and global declarations and their scopes

6.2: For each of the 3 marked points, write down a list of all of the program-declared variables and functions that are in scope at that point, and for each identifier, its type. Don't forget **main**, **argc**, **argv**. Where there are more than one choice of a given name, be sure to indicate which one you are referring to.

```
1  int bill(int jack, int jane);
2  double jane(double dick, int fred, double dave);
3
4  int trev;
5
6  int main(int argc, char *argv[]) {
7      double beth;
8      int pete, bill;      /* -- point #1 -- */
9      return 0;
10 }
11
12 int bill (int jack, int jane) {
13     int mary;
14     double zack;          /* -- point #2 -- */
15     return 0;
16 }
17
18 double jane(double dick, int fred, double dave) {
19     double trev;          /* -- point #3 -- */
20     return 0.0;
21 }
```

Why Functions in Programming?

Programs can get long and messy. Functions help us:

- **Organization**: Break down a large problem into smaller, manageable chunks.
- **Reusability**: Write a piece of code once and use it many times.
- **Readability**: Make your code easier for others (and yourself!) to understand.
- **Maintainability**: Easier to debug and update a small, specific function than a giant block of code.

Anatomy of a C Function

Structure: Each function has:

A **name**

Inputs (**parameters**)

A process (**the body**)

An output (**return value**)

```
return_type function_name(parameter_list) {  
    // function body  
    // statements to be executed  
    return value; // if return_type is not void  
}
```

Key Components:

return_type: The type of data the function sends back after it's done (e.g., int, float, void).

function_name: A unique name that follows standard C naming conventions.

parameter_list: The list of variables the function takes as input. This can be empty.

function body: The code block that contains the instructions to perform the task.

return statement: Passes the result back to the calling function.

pass-by-value: parameters are always passed by values

When executing function call

`add(a, b+2):`

- the value of *expression* `a+4` is computed and passed to `m`
- the value of *expressions* `b` is computed and passed to `n`

when the function finishes, the value of *expression* `total` is computed and sent back to the caller

```
1 int main(...) {  
2   int a=2, b=4, sum= 0;  
3  
4   sum = add(a+4, b );  
5   // sum= ?  
   // n = ?  
   // b = ?  
  
   ...  
}  
  
int add(int m, int n) { // m and n are local in add  
  int total= m + n;  
  n= 10;  
  return total;  
}
```

6 is passed to m

4 is passed to n

8

- Via a parameter (such as `n`) a function receives a **copy** of the argument, so it cannot change the original variable (in this case: cannot change `b`).

- Via return, a function sends a value back to the caller.

Why Functions Matter for Algorithms?

Algorithms = step-by-step problem solving.

Functions help us to think abstractly!

Functions let us:

- Express each step as a function
- Build bigger algorithms from smaller ones
- Focus on logic, not messy details

Class Example:

- Discuss Ex5.06

How can function produce 2 (or more) outputs?

Consider the function call

`sAndP(a,b, sum, product)`:

- Would it change sum to 6, product to 8?
- If not, how can `sAndP` send back two outputs, `s` and `p`, back to `main()`?

```
1 int main(...) {  
2   int a=2, b=4,   sum = 0, product = 0 ;  
3  
4   sAndP(a, b, sum , product);  
5  
6  
7 }  
  
void sAndP( int m, int n, int s , int p ) {  
  
    s = m + n ;  
    p = m * n ;  
  
}
```

How to produce 2 (or more) outputs? How about sending addresses?

Consider the function call

`sAndP(a,b, sum, product):`

- Would it change sum to 6, product to 8?
- If not, how can `sAndP` send back two outputs, `s` and `p`, back to `main()`?

```
1 int main(...) {
2   int a=2, b=4,   sum = 0, product = 0 ;
3
4   sAndP(a, b, address of sum , address of product);
      // need: sending address of sum and address of product
5   //      to sAndP
      //
6 }

void sAndP( int m, int n, address s , address p ) {



    memory_at_address_s = m + n ;
    memory_at_address_p = m * n ;

7 }
```

Data type: `int` * \Leftrightarrow “pointer to `int`” \Leftrightarrow “address of `int`”

Declaration	Memory storages and its (supposed) address	
<code>int a = 18;</code>	<div>1000</div> <div>18</div> <div>a</div>	a is a int cell in the memory, with value of 18. Suppose that the cell is at address 1000.
<code>int * pa;</code>	<div>1000</div> <div>18</div> <div>a</div> <div>1008</div> <div>?</div> <div>pa</div>	pa is an int pointer , it can hold the address of an int Here we supposed that pa itself is at address 1008.

Data type: `int *` \Leftrightarrow "pointer to int" \Leftrightarrow "address of int"

<code>int *pa;</code>	<div><div>1000</div><div>18</div><div>a</div></div> <div><div>1008</div><div>?</div><div>pa</div></div>	
<code>pa = &a;</code>	<div><div>1000</div><div>18</div><div>a</div></div> <div><div>1008</div><div>1000</div><div>pa</div></div> 	<p><code>pa</code> now holds the address of <code>a</code>. We say that <code>pa</code> "points" to <code>a</code>. using the value of <code>pa</code> we can have <i>indirect access</i> to <code>a</code></p>
<code>(*pa)++;</code>	<div><div>1000</div><div>19</div><div>a</div><div>*pa</div></div> <div><div>1008</div><div>1000</div><div>pa</div></div> 	<p><code>pa</code> has value 1000, <code>*pa</code> is <code>*(1000)</code> and has value 19</p> <p><code>(*pa)++;</code> is equivalent to: <code>a++;</code></p> <p>So: <code>*pa</code> is an alias for <code>a</code></p>

Notes on pointers:

Symbol `*` has different meanings in:

```
int* pA = &A;
```

`*` specifies that `pA` is a pointer

`pA` is an integer pointer (datatype `int *`)

```
*pA = 100;
```

`*` is the dereference operator

`*pA` is the memory cell `pA` points to

- Each datatype has its own pointer type. Example:

```
int I;    char C;    float F;    double D;
```

```
int *pI;  char *pC;  float *pF;  double *pD;
```

- Different pointer type are ... different, they cannot be cross-compared:

Example of Valid Use

```
if (*pI == *pC) ...
```

Example of Invalid Use

```
if ( pI == pC) ...
```

How to produce 2 (or more) outputs? How about sending addresses?

```
1  int main(...) {  
2      int a=2, b=4,    sum = 0, product = 0 ;  
3  
4      sAndP(a, b, &sum , &product);  
5      // need: sending address of sum and address of product  
      //      to sAndP  
      //  
  }  
  
void sAndP( int m, int n, int * ps, int * pp ) {  
  
    /* memory_at_address_ps */  *ps = m + n ;  
    /* memory_at_address_pp */  *pp = m * n ;  
  
}
```

Function parameters: passing values and passing addresses (references)

Consider the function call
`sAndP(a,b, &sum,&product):`

can it change the value of:

- `a` ?
- `b` ?
- `&sum` ?
- `&product` ?
- `sum` ?
- `product` ?

```
1 int main(...) {  
2   int a=2, b=4,   sum = 0, product = 0 ;  
3  
4   sAndP(a, b, &sum, &product);  
5  
6   // a= ?  
7   // sum= ?  
8   // product= ?  
9  
10  ...  
11 }
```

```
void sAndP( int m, int n, int * ps , int *pp ) {  
  
    *ps = m + n ;      // equivalent to sum= m + n;  
  
    *pp = m * n ;  
    m = 10;  
}
```

`pp= &product,`
and so `*pp` and
`product` refer to
the same cell

What are passed to functions scanf and printf, why?

Compare:

```
scanf ("%d", &n) ;
```

and

```
printf ("%d", n) ;
```

What's the difference in the values passed to functions? Why?

Given function:

```
void foo(int a, int *b) {
    a= 1;
    *b = 2;
}
```

what are printed after the following fragment:

```
m= 5;
n= 10;
foo(m, &n);
printf("%d and %d\n", m, n);
```

A) 5 and 10

B) 1 and 2

C) 5 and 2

D) 1 and 10

Discuss: Top-Down Design with Exercise 6.9

6.9: *You'd better only read this description instead of the whole Exercises 6.09 and 3.06.*

The Task: Suppose that you're working at a shop's counter and need to return some money which is less than \$10 to a customer, using only Australian coins.

Write a program that reads an integer amount of cents between 0 and 999 then prints out the coin changes, using coins from \$2 to 5c.

As a programmer, you are required to have good function decomposition.

Note: valid coins are 200c, 100c, 50c, 20c, 10c, and 5c

Example of running the program:

```
./program
```

```
Enter amount in cents: 122
```

```
give 1 100-cent coins
```

```
give 1 20-cent coins
```

```
./program
```

```
Enter amount in cents: 533
```

```
give 2 200-cent coins
```

```
give 1 100-cent coins
```

```
give 1 20-cent coins
```

```
give 1 10-cent coins
```

```
give 1 5-cent coins
```

The Task: Suppose that you're working at a shop's counter and need to return some money which is less than \$10 to a customer, using only Australian coins.

Write a program that reads an integer amount of cents between 0 and 999 then prints out the coin changes, using coins from \$2 to 5c. As a programmer, you are required to have good function decomposition.

Note: valid coins are 200c, 100c, 50c, 20c, 10c, and 5c

Example of running the program:

```
./program
```

```
Enter amount in cents:
```

```
122
```

```
give 1 100-cent coins
```

```
give 1 20-cent coins
```

Class Exercises: writing functions [preferably in groups on papers]

5.06

Two numbers are an *amicable pair* if their factors (excluding themselves) add up to each other. Write a function that takes two int arguments and returns true if they are an amicable pair.

5.03 & 5.13

notes: supposing no overflow

5.3: Write an int function `int_pow` that raises its first argument to the power of its second argument, where the first argument is an int, and the second argument is a positive int. For example, `int_pow(3, 4)` should return the value 81.

5.13: Ditto, but write a recursive function.

5.05a

A number is *perfect* if it is equal to the sum of its factors (including one, but not including itself). (eg. 6, as $1+2+3=6$)

Write a function that returns true if its argument `n` is a perfect number, and false otherwise.

Lab Time: Do as many as possible

Simplest:	Ex5.01: Largest of two integers Ex5.02: Largest of four integers Ex5.x1: Median of three ints
Basic:	Ex5.03: Integer power Ex5.04: Combinations Ex5.05: Perfect Numbers Ex5.06: Amicable pairs Ex5.06b: Searching for amicable pairs Ex5.07: isupper() and tolower()
Recursion:	Ex5.13: Integer power with recursion Ex5.14: logstar, recursively Ex5.15: Mutually recursive
Others:	Ex5.08: Near-equality for doubles Simpler near-equality for doubles Ex5.08b: cube_root near-equality Ex5.11: Sum a real-valued sequence
Then:	all exercises in chapter 6 😊

Wrap-up

Good function decomposition is essential!

- Functions make your code **modular, reusable, and readable**.
- They help avoid **repetition** and make code easier to **debug** and **maintain**.
- Always think about which parts of your code could be encapsulated into a function.

In C, parameters are passed by value

- This means a function receives a **copy** of the argument, so it cannot change the original variable.
- To modify the original variable, you must pass its **memory address** using a **pointer**. The function then uses this address to directly access and change the variable's value.

Additional Slides

Recursive functions

Recursive function: function that calls itself

```
int factorial( int n ) {  
    if (n) {  
        return 1;  
    }  
    return n*factotial(n-1);  
}
```

Recursive functions: How

- **general case**: reduce the task of size n to the same tasks of smaller sizes
- clearly describe **the base cases** where the solutions are trivial
- when writing code, start with *solving the base cases first*

Example1: **factorial (n)**

- general case: **factorial(n)** can be computed by using **factorial(n-1)**
- base case: when $n==0$ the solution is trivial
- writing code:

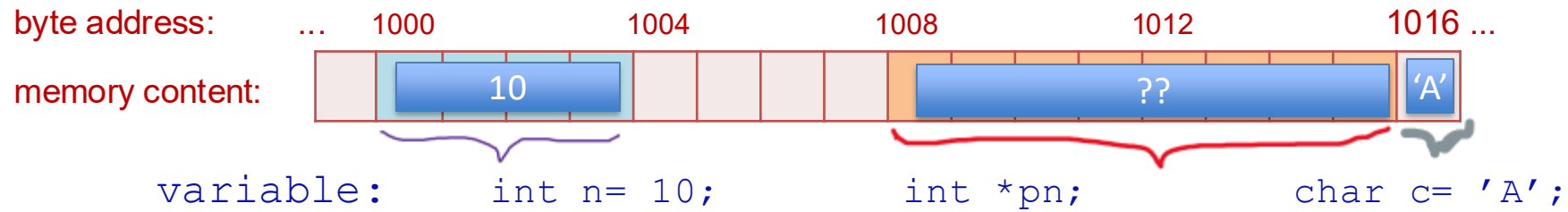
```
int factorial( int n ) {  
    if (n==0) { // base case  
        ???;  
    }  
    // general case [note: else is not needed]  
    ???  
}
```

Example 2: **5.13: int_pow** or **HanoiTower**

- the task
- what's: relationship between the input size a smaller size?
- what's: the base case?

Pointers: variables and addresses

- Each variable `x` has a memory cell.
- The memory cell has an address `&x`, which is address of the variable.
- But variable has type, and so address is also bound to that type.
- The address of a cell is called the cell's reference, or a pointer to the cell.



Operator: & = reference
`&n` is 1000

Operator: * = dereference
`pn = &n;`
`*pn` now is another name for `n`