

BLG 102E

Introduction to Scientific Computing and Engineering

SPRING 2025

WEEK 5

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ISTANBUL TECHNICAL UNIVERSITY

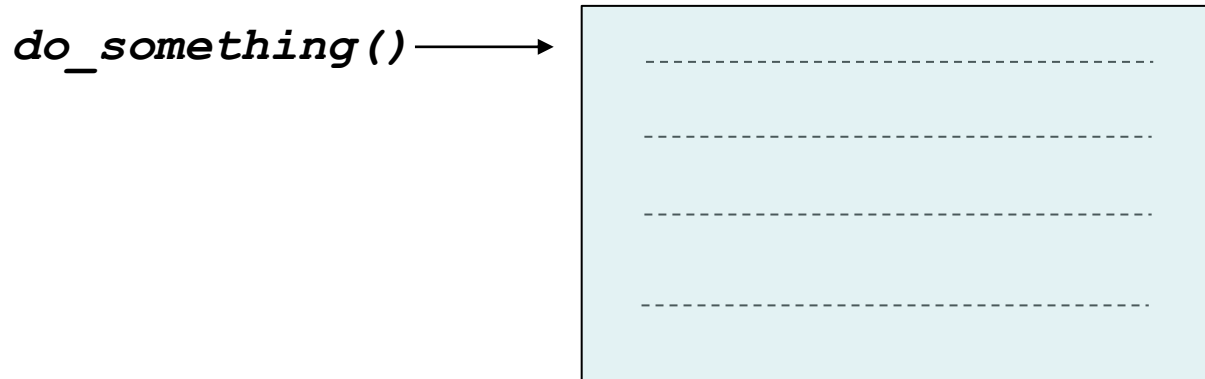


Functions

What Is a Function? Why Functions?

A function is a sequence of instructions with a name.

A function packages a computation into a form that can be easily understood and reused.



Program Modules in C

- Functions
 - C functions are subprogram modules
 - Function categories:
 - Built-in library functions (ready-made C standard libraries)
 - Programmer-defined functions
- Function calls
 - Invoking functions
 - Provide function name and arguments (data)
 - Function performs operations or manipulations
 - Function returns a result

Implementing Functions

Write the function that will do this:



(*any* cube)

Compute the volume of a
cube with a given side length

Implementing Functions

When writing this function, you need to:

- Pick a good, descriptive name for the function

Implementing Functions

When writing this function, you need to:

- Pick a good, descriptive name for the function

(What else would a function
named `cube_volume` do?)

cube_volume

Implementing Functions

When writing this function, you need to:

- Pick a good, descriptive name for the function
- Give a type and a name for each parameter.

`cube_volume`

Implementing Functions

When writing this function, you need to:

- Pick a good, descriptive name for the function
- Give a type and a name for each parameter.
There will be one parameter for each piece of information the function needs to do its job.

(And don't forget the parentheses)

`cube_volume(double side_length)`

Implementing Functions

When writing this function, you need to:

- Pick a good, descriptive name for the function
- Give a type and a name for each parameter.
There will be one parameter for each piece of information the function needs to do its job.
- Specify the type of the return type

```
cube_volume(double side_length)
```

Implementing Functions

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```
double cube_volume(double side_length)
```

Implementing Functions

When writing this function, you need to:

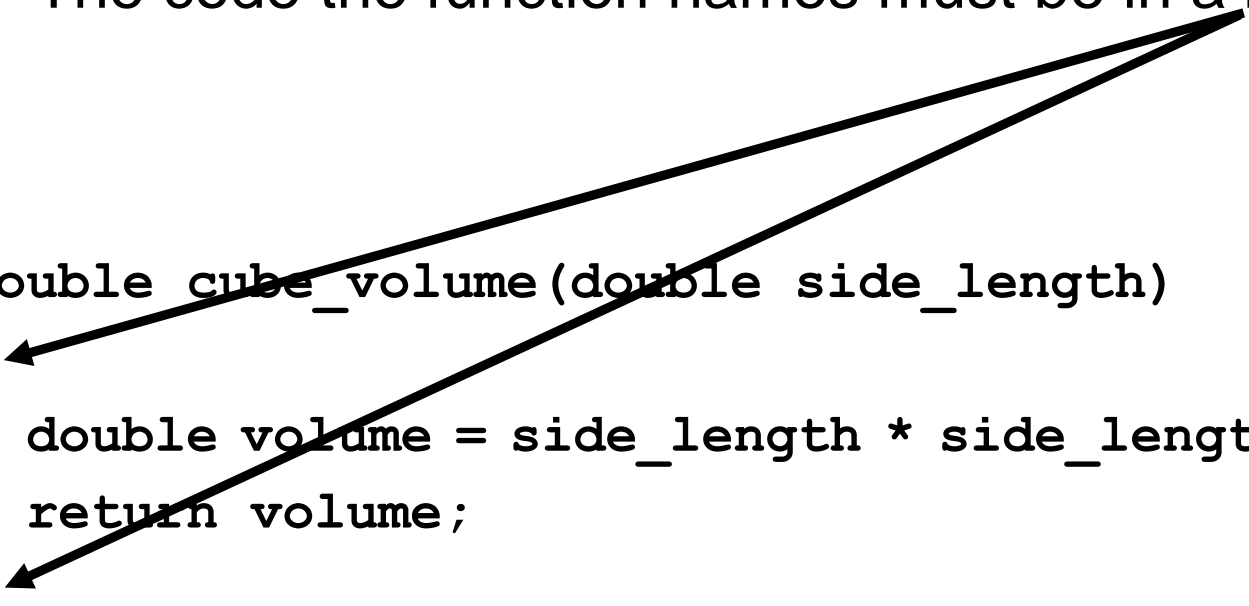
- Pick a good, descriptive name for the function
- Give a type and a name for each parameter.
There will be one parameter for each piece of information the function needs to do its job.
- Specify the type of the return type

Now write the *body* of the function:

the code to do the cubing

Implementing Functions

The code the function names must be in a block:



```
double cube_volume(double side_length)
{
    double volume = side_length * side_length * side_length;
    return volume;
}
```

Implementing Functions

The parameter allows the caller to give the function information it needs to do its calculating.

```
double cube_volume(double side_length)
{
    double volume = side_length * side_length * side_length;
    return volume;
}
```

Implementing Functions

The code calculates the volume.

```
double cube_volume(double side_length)
{
    double volume = side_length * side_length * side_length;
    return volume;
}
```

Implementing Functions

The **return** statement gives the function's result to the caller.

```
double cube_volume(double side_length)
{
    double volume = side_length * side_length * side_length;
    return volume;
}
```

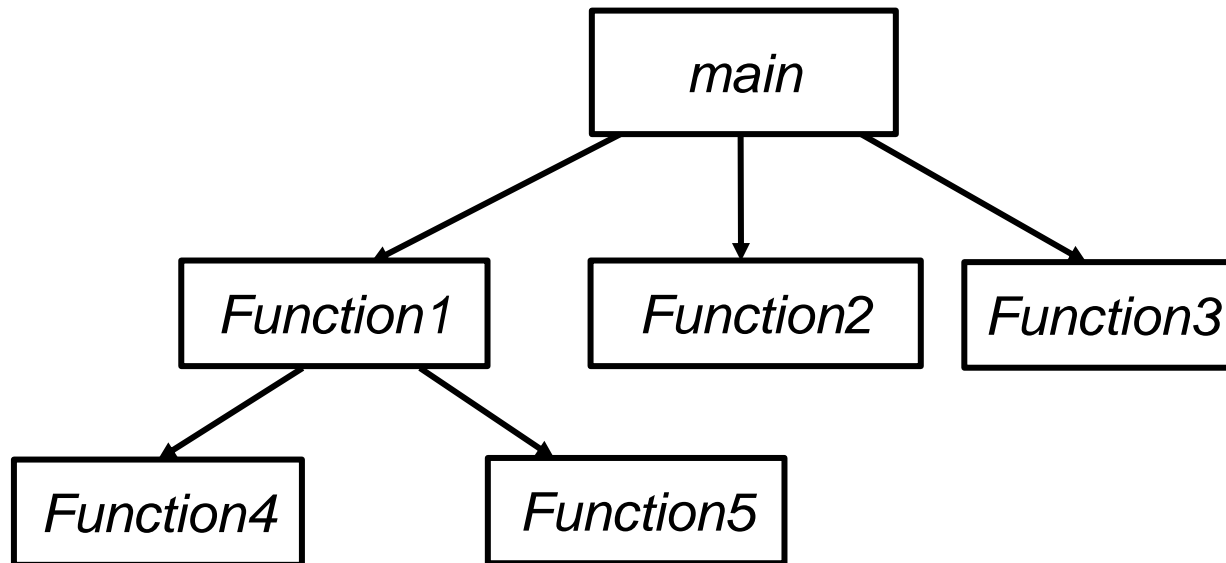

Test Your Function

You should always test the function.

You'll write a **main** function to do this.

Calling Functions

Consider the order of activities when a function is called.



Calling (i.e., using) a function

```
#include <stdio.h>

double cube_volume(double side_length)
{
    double volume = side_length * side_length * side_length;
    return volume;
}

int main()
{
    double result1 = cube_volume(2);
    double result2 = cube_volume(10);
    printf("A cube with side length 2 has volume %f\n", result1);
    printf("A cube with side length 10 has volume %f\n", result2);

    return 0;
}
```

The diagram illustrates the flow of execution between the `main` function and the `cube_volume` function. Three numbered callouts are present:

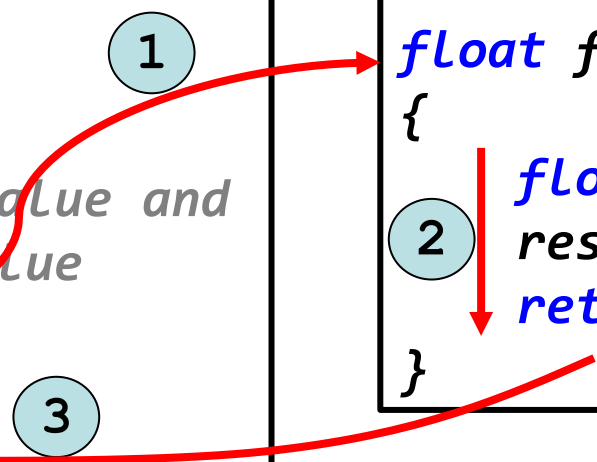
- 1**: A red arrow originates from the `cube_volume` function definition and points to the `cube_volume(2)` call in the `main` function.
- 2**: A red arrow originates from the `return volume;` line in the `cube_volume` function and points to the `cube_volume(2)` call in the `main` function.
- 3**: A red arrow originates from the `cube_volume(10)` call in the `main` function and points back to the `cube_volume` function definition.

Example: Calling a function

- When **f** function is called from main program, value of the **a** variable is automatically copied to the **x** parameter variable of the function.
- The returned result is assigned to the **b** variable in main.

```
// Caller program
#include <stdio.h>
int main()
{
    float a = 1.5;
    float b;
    // Send the argument value and
    // get the returned value

    b = f (a);
    printf( "%f", b);
    return 0;
}
```

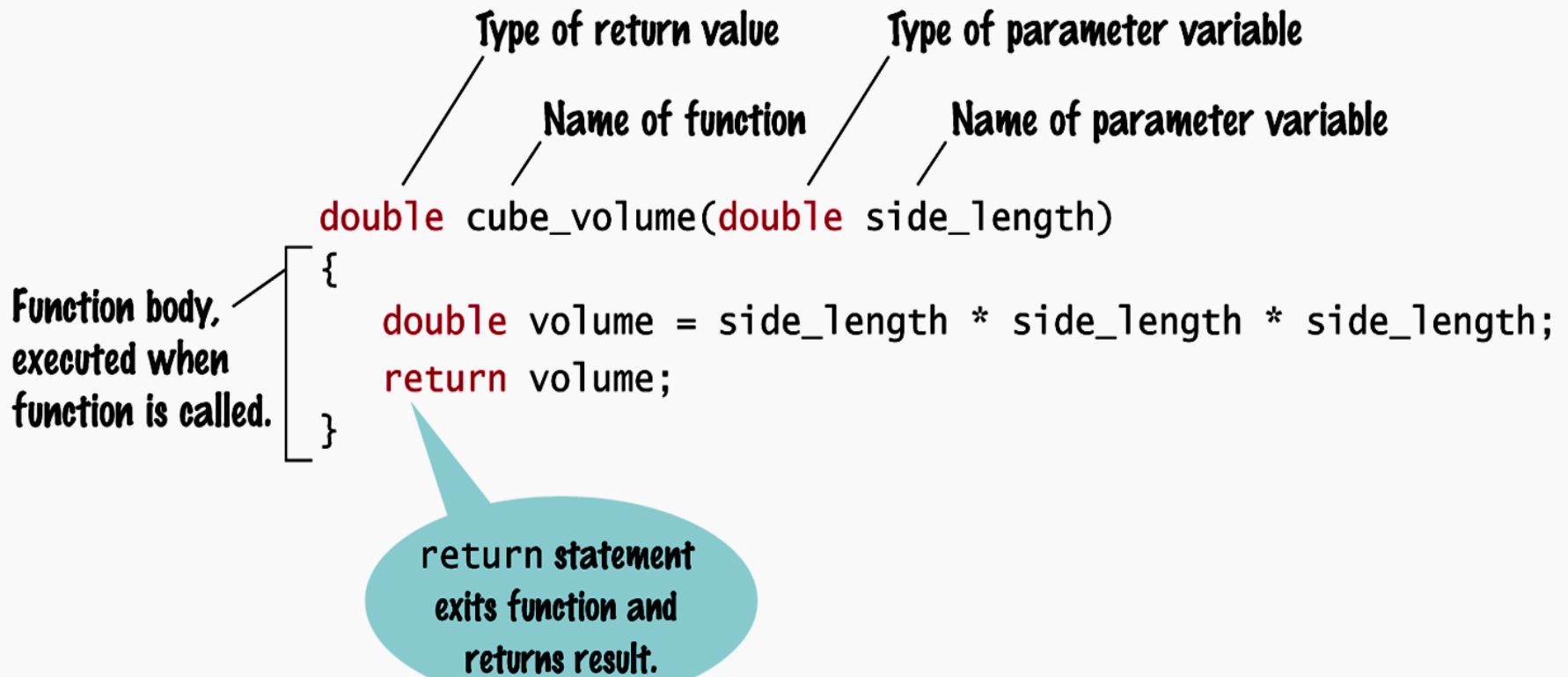


```
// Called function

float f (float x)
{
    float result;
    result = x * 2;
    return result;
}
```

Implementing Functions

SYNTAX 5.1 Function Definition



An Output Statement Does Not Return a Value

output on terminal \neq return

If a function needs to display something for a user to see, it cannot use a **return** statement.

An output statement using **printf** communicates *only* with the user running the program.

The Return Statement Does Not Display (Good!)

output on terminal \neq return

If a programmer needs the result of a calculation done by a function, the function *must* have a **return** statement.

An output statement using `printf` does *not* communicate with the calling programmer

The Return Statement Does Not Display (Good!)

```
int main()
{
    double z = cube_volume(2);

    // display result of calculation
    // stored in variable z
    printf("%f",z);

    // return from main - no output here!!!
    return 0;
}
```


Main function

- The main is a function called by the operating system.

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

- In Windows command-line, the returned value of main can be shown as following:

```
C:\>myprog.exe
```

```
C:\>echo %ERRORLEVEL%
```

```
0
```

Return Values

The **return** statement yields the function result.

Also,

- The **return** statement
 - terminates a function call
 - immediately

Return Values

This behavior can be used to handle unusual cases.

What should we do if the side length is negative?

We choose to return a zero and not do any calculation:

```
double cube_volume(double side_length)
{
    if (side_length < 0)
        return 0;
    double volume = side_length * side_length * side_length;
    return volume;
}
```

Return Values

The **return** statement can return the value of any expression.

Instead of saving the return value in a variable and returning the variable, it is often possible to eliminate the variable and return a more complex expression:

```
double cube_volume(double side_length)
{
    return side_length * side_length * side_length;
}
```

Common Error – Missing Return Value

Your function always needs to return something.

Consider putting in a guard against negatives and also trying to eliminate the local variable:

```
double cube_volume(double side_length)
{
    if (side_length >= 0)
    {
        return side_length * side_length * side_length;
    }
}
```

Common Error – Missing Return Value

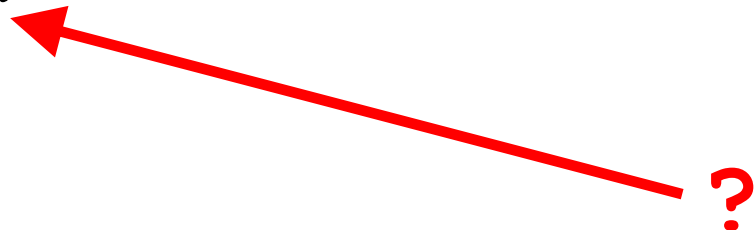
Consider what is returned if the caller *does* pass in a negative value!

```
double cube_volume(double side_length)
{
    if (side_length >= 0)
    {
        return side_length * side_length * side_length;
    }
}
```

Common Error – Missing Return Value

Every possible execution path
should return a meaningful value:

```
double cube_volume(double side_length)
{
    if (side_length >= 0)
    {
        return side_length * side_length * side_length;
    }
}
```

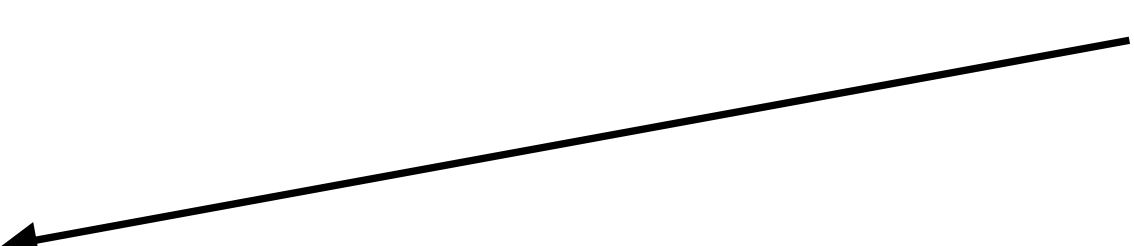


Common Error – Missing Return Value

Depending on circumstances, the compiler might flag this as an error, or the function might return a random value.

This is always bad news, and you must protect against this problem by returning some safe value.

Functions Without Return Values – The void Type



```
void square_display( int y )  
{  
    printf("%d  ", y * y ); // print the result  
}
```

void

Notice the return type of this function

Functions Without Return Values – The `void` Type

This kind of function is called a *void function*.

```
void square_display( int y )
```

Use a return type of `void` to indicate that a function does not return a value.

`void` functions are used to
simply do a sequence of instructions

- They do not return a value to the caller.
- > Returning a value will lead to an error.

Functions Without Return Values – The `void` Type

Because there is no return value, you cannot use `square_display` in an expression.

You can make this kind of call:

```
square_display(5) ;
```

but not this kind:

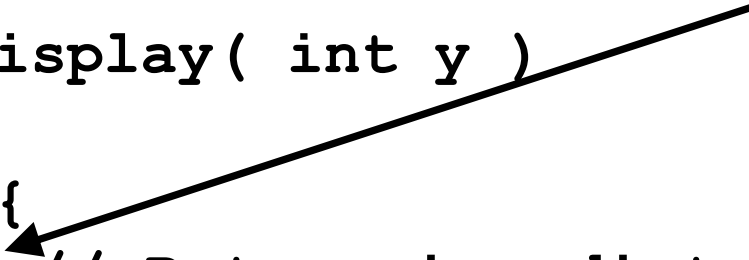
```
result = square_display(5) ;  
// Error: square_display doesn't  
//         return a result.
```

Functions Without Return Values – The `void` Type

If you want to return from a `void` function before reaching the end, you use a `return` statement without a value. For example:

```
void square_display( int y )
{
    if (n < 0) {
        return; // Return immediately
    }
    // The following lines will not be
    // executed if n < 0

    printf("%d  ", y * y ); // print the result
}
```

An arrow originates from the `return;` statement inside the `if` block and points back to the `if (n < 0)` condition, illustrating that the `return` statement causes an immediate exit from the function before the rest of the code is executed.

Calling (i.e., using) a function

```
#include <stdio.h>

double cube_volume(double side_length)
{
    double volume = side_length * side_length * side_length;
    return volume;
}

int main()
{
    double result1 = cube_volume(2);
    double result2 = cube_volume(10);
    printf("A cube with side length 2 has volume %f\n", result1);
    printf("A cube with side length 10 has volume %f\n", result2);

    return 0;
}
```

The diagram illustrates the flow of execution between the `main` function and the `cube_volume` function. Three numbered callouts are present:

- 1**: A red arrow originates from the `cube_volume` function definition and points to the `cube_volume(2)` call in the `main` function.
- 2**: A red arrow originates from the `return volume;` line in the `cube_volume` function and points to the `cube_volume(2)` call in the `main` function.
- 3**: A red arrow originates from the `cube_volume(10)` call in the `main` function and points to the `cube_volume` function definition.

Parameter Passing

1. In the calling function, the local variable **result1** already exists. When the **cube_volume** function is called, the parameter variable **side_length** is created.

```
double result1 = cube_volume(2);
```

1 Function call

result1 =

side_length =

Parameter Passing

2. The parameter variable is initialized with the value that was passed in the call. In our case, **side_length** is set to 2.

```
double result1 = cube_volume(2);
```

2 Initializing function parameter

result1 =

side_length =

Parameter Passing

3. The function computes the expression `side_length * side_length * side_length`, which has the value 8. That value is stored in the local variable `volume`.

[inside the function]

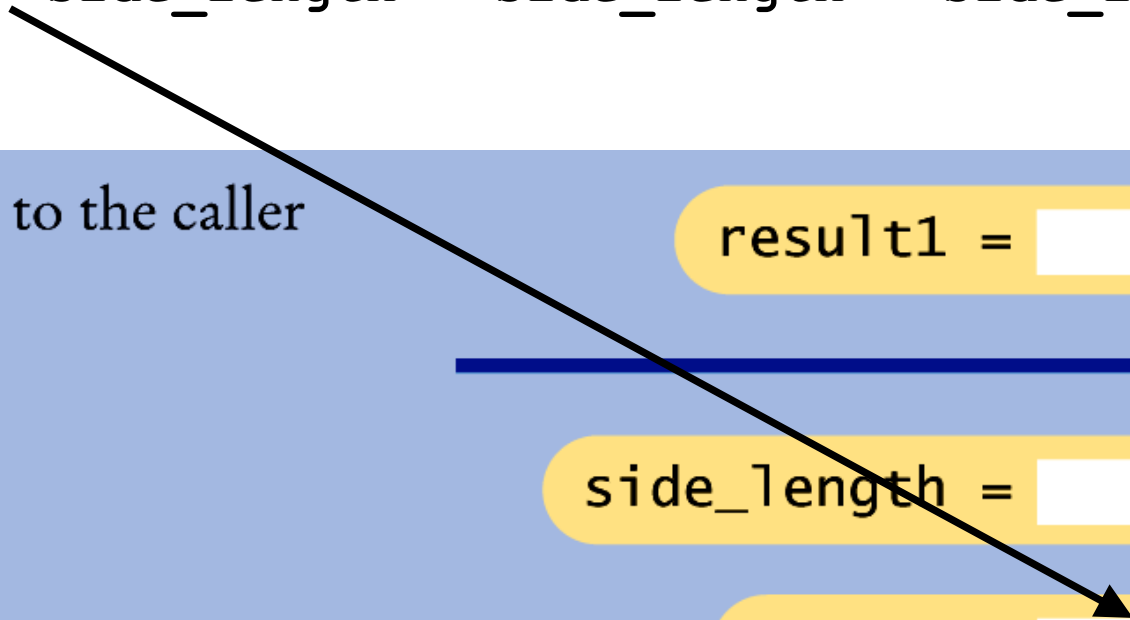
```
double volume = side_length * side_length * side_length;
```

3 About to return to the caller

result1 =

side_length =

volume =



Parameter Passing

4. The function returns. All of its variables are removed.
The return value is transferred to the caller, that is, the function calling the `cube_volume` function.

```
double result1 = cube_volume(2);
```

4 After function call

result1 =

The function executed: `return volume;`
which gives the caller the value 8

Parameter Passing

4. The function returns. All of its variables are removed.
The return value is transferred to the caller, that is, the function calling the `cube_volume` function.

```
double result1 = cube_volume(2);
```

the returned 8 is about to be stored

4 After function call


result1 =

The function is over.
`side_length` and `volume` are gone.

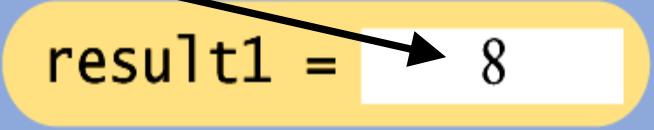
Parameter Passing

The caller stores this value in their local variable `result1`.

```
double result1 = cube_volume(2);
```

A curved arrow points from the closing parenthesis of the function call `cube_volume(2)` to the variable `result1` in the assignment statement.

4 After function call

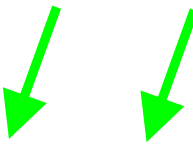
A yellow rounded rectangle contains the text `result1 =` followed by a white box containing the number `8`. An arrow points from the `result1` in the code above to this box.

`result1 = 8`

Parameter Passing

In the function call,
a value is supplied for each parameter,
called the *parameter value*.
(Other commonly used terms for this value
are: *actual parameter* and *argument*.)

```
int hours = read_value_between(1, 12) ;  
.  
.  
.
```



Parameter Passing

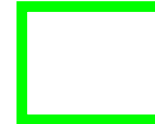
When a function is called,
a *parameter variable* is created for each value passed in.

```
int hours = read_value_between(1, 12);
```



```
. . .
```

```
int read_value_between(int low, int high)
```



Parameter Passing

Each parameter variable is *initialized* with the corresponding parameter value from the call.

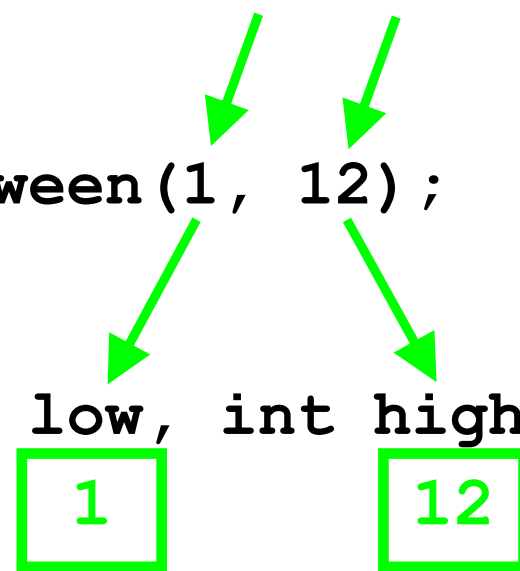
```
int hours = read_value_between(1, 12);
```

```
...
```

```
int read_value_between(int low, int high)
```

1

12



Parameter Passing

```
int hours = read_value_between(1, 12);  
  
int read_value_between(int low, int high)  
{  
    int input;  
    do  
    {  
        printf("Enter a value between %d and  
                %d\n", low, high);  
        scanf("%d", &input);  
    } while (input < low || input > high);  
    return input;  
}
```

The diagram illustrates the flow of data during function calls. Green arrows show the following connections:

- From the argument `1` in the function call `read_value_between(1, 12)` to the parameter `low` in the function definition `read_value_between(int low, int high)`.
- From the argument `12` in the function call to the parameter `high` in the function definition.
- From the `return input;` statement inside the function to the variable `hours` in the function call, indicating the return value.

The values `1` and `12` in the function call are highlighted with green boxes.

Parameter Passing

Here is a **call** to the `cube_volume` function:

```
double result1 = cube_volume(2);
```

Here is the function **definition**:

```
double cube_volume(double side_length)
{
    double volume = side_length * side_length * side_length;
    return volume;
}
```

We'll keep up with their variables and parameters:

```
result1
side_length
volume
```


Commenting Functions

- Whenever you write a function, you should comment its behavior.
- Comments are for human readers, not compilers
- There is no universal standard for the layout of a function comment.
 - The layout used in the previous program is borrowed from the Java programming language and is used in some C++ tools to produce documentation from comments.

Commenting Functions

Function comments do the following:

- explain the purpose of the function
- explain the meaning of the parameters
- state what value is returned
- state any special requirements

```
/**
```

```
    Computes the volume of a cube.
```

```
    @param side_length the side length of the cube
```

```
    @return the volume
```

```
*/
```

```
double cube_volume(double side_length)
```

Comments state the things a developer who wants to use your function needs to know.

Function Prototypes

- Function prototype
 - Function definition line without function body.
 - Consists of followings:
 - Function name
 - Parameters – what the function takes in
 - Return type – data type function returns (default `int`)
 - Important: Prototype only needed if function definition comes after use in program.
 - Example: The function with the prototype

```
int maximum( int x, int y, int z );
```

 - Takes in 3 `ints` (function input parameters)
 - Returns an `int` (function output result)

Example: Function that returns square of a number

```
/* Creating and using a programmer-defined function */
#include <stdio.h>

int square( int y ); // function prototype line

int main() {
    int x; // counter

    // loop 10 times and calculate and output square of x each time
    for ( x = 1; x <= 10; x++ ) {
        printf( "%d ", square(x) ); // function call
    }
} // end main

// Square function body : Calculates the square of parameter
// and returns the result.
int square( int y ) // y is a copy of argument to function
{
    return y * y; // returns square of y as an int
} // end function square
```

Control is transferred to the function.

Control is transferred back to main.

Program
Output

1 4 9 16 25 36 49 64 81 100

Alternative : Without writing a prototype line

- If a function body is placed at the beginning of program, before it is called the first time by main program (or by other functions), then there is no need to write a prototype line.
- Execution always begins at main program.

```
#include <stdio.h>

int square( int y )
{
    return y * y;
}

int main()
{
    int x;

    for ( x = 1; x <= 10; x++ ) {
        printf( "%d ", square(x) );
    }
}
```

Functions Without Return Values

```
#include <stdio.h>

void square_display( int y )
{
    printf("%d  ", y * y ); // function prints the result
}

int main() {
    int x;

    for ( x = 1; x <= 10; x++ ) {
        square_display( x ); // function call
    }
}
```

Program
Output

1 4 9 16 25 36 49 64 81 100

BUILT-IN FUNCTIONS

Math Library Functions

- Math library functions (built-in)
 - perform common mathematical calculations
 - `#include <math.h>`
- Format for calling functions
 - `FunctionName(argument) ;`
 - If multiple arguments, use comma-separated list
 - `printf("%f \n", sqrt(900.0));`
 - Calls function `sqrt`, which returns the square root of its argument
 - All math functions return data type double
 - Arguments may be constants, variables, or expressions

Some Math Library Functions

C Function	Description	Examples
sqrt(x)	square root of x	sqrt(900.0) is 30.0 sqrt(9.0) is 3.0
exp(x)	exponential function e^x	exp(1.0) is 2.718282 exp(2.0) is 7.389056
log(x)	natural logarithm of x (base e)	log(2.718282) is 1.0 log(7.389056) is 2.0
log10(x)	logarithm of x (base 10)	log10(1.0) is 0.0 log10(10.0) is 1.0 log10(100.0) is 2.0
fabs(x)	absolute value of float x	fabs(5.0) is 5.0 fabs(0.0) is 0.0 fabs(-5.0) is 5.0
ceil(x)	rounds x to the smallest integer not less than x	ceil(9.2) is 10.0 ceil(-9.8) is -9.0
floor(x)	rounds x to the largest integer not greater than x	floor(9.2) is 9.0 floor(-9.8) is -10.0

Additional Math Library Functions

C Function	Description	Examples
pow(x, y)	x raised to power y (x^y)	pow(2, 7) is 128.0 pow(9, 0.5) is 3.0
fmod(x, y)	remainder of x/y as a floating point number	fmod(13.657, 2.333) is 1.992
sin(x)	trigonometric sine of x (x in radians)	sin(0.0) is 0.0
cos(x)	trigonometric cosine of x (x in radians)	cos(0.0) is 1.0
tan(x)	trigonometric tangent of x (x in radians)	tan(0.0) is 0.0

Calling a Function

```
#include <math.h>
int main()
{
    double z = pow(2, 3);
    ...
}
```

By using the expression: `pow(2, 3)`
`main` *calls* the `pow` function, asking it to compute 2^3 .

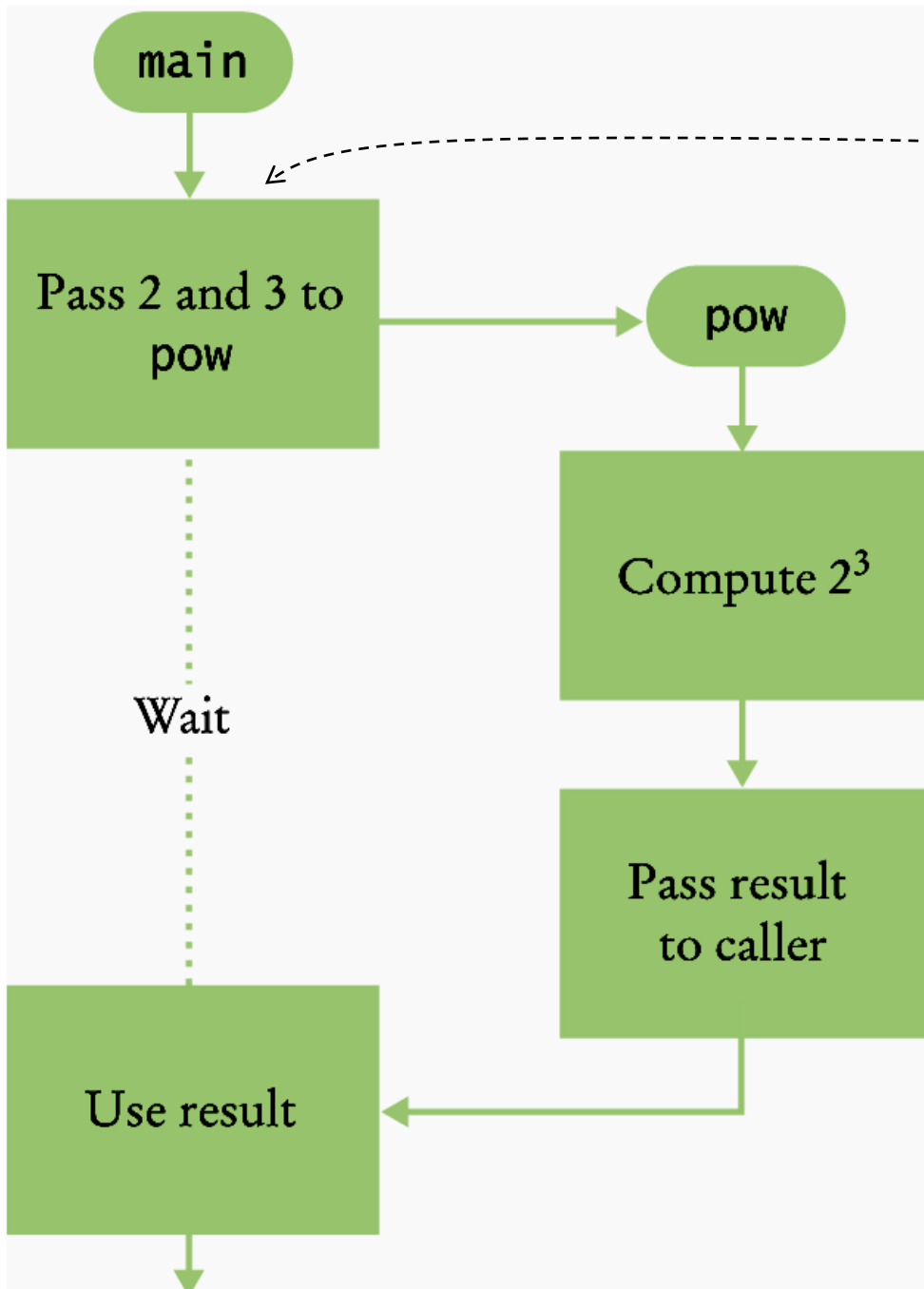
The `main` function is temporarily suspended.

The instructions of the `pow` function execute and compute the result.

The `pow` function *returns* its result back to `main`, and the `main` function resumes execution.

Calling a Function

```
int main()  
{  
    double z = pow(2, 3);  
    ...  
}
```



Execution flow
during a
function call

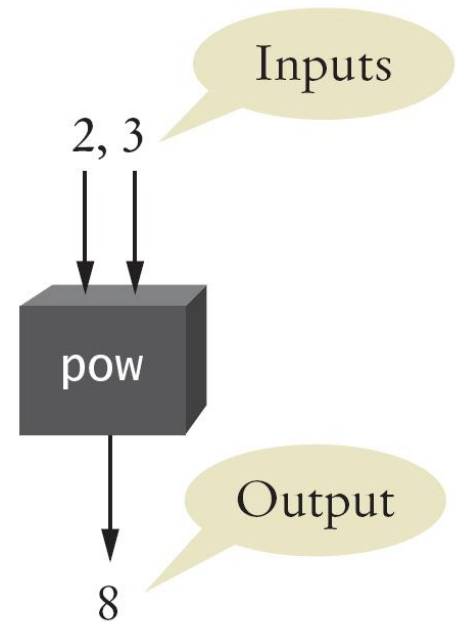
Parameters

```
int main()  
{  
    double z = pow(2, 3);  
    ...  
}
```

When another function calls the **pow** function, it provides “inputs”, such as the values 2 and 3 in the call **pow(2, 3)**. In order to avoid confusion with inputs that are provided by a human user, these values are called *parameter values*. The “output” that the **pow** function computes is called the return value.

The Black Box Concept

- You can think of it as a “black box” where you can’t see what’s inside but you know what it does.
- How did the `pow` function do its job?
- You don’t need to know.
- You only need to know its *specification*.



Example: Trigonometric functions

- Program calls the built-in cos and sin functions.

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

#define PI 3.14159265 // Symbolic constant

int main()
{
    printf("Cos(90) = %f\n", cos(90 * PI / 180.0));
    printf("Cos(0) = %f\n", cos(0));
    printf("Sin(90) = %f\n", sin(90 * PI / 180.0));
    printf("Sin(0) = %f\n", sin(0));
}
```

Formula for converting
degree to radian :

$$Radian = \frac{Degree \cdot \pi}{180}$$

DESIGNING FUNCTIONS

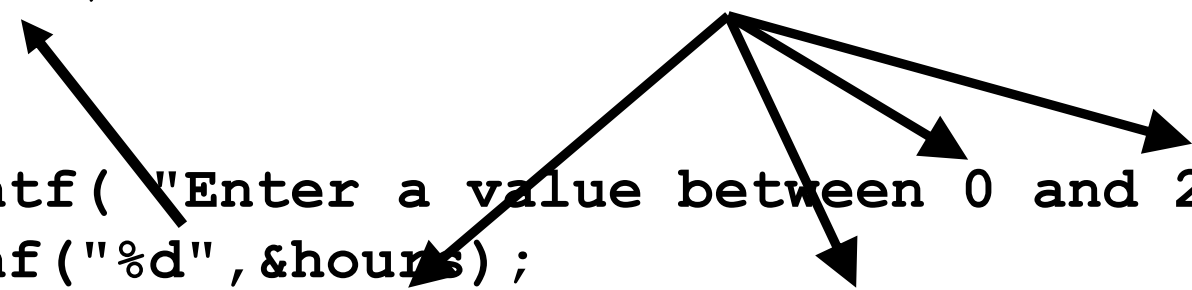
Designing Functions – Turn Repeated Code into Functions

When you write nearly identical code multiple times,
you should probably introduce a function.

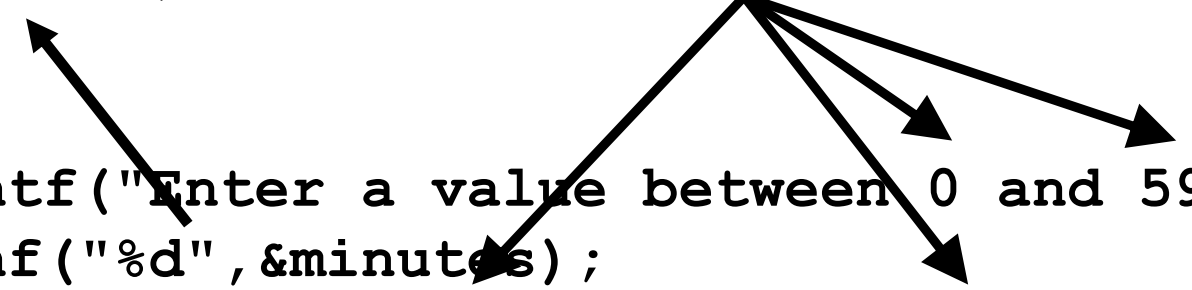
Designing Functions – Turn Repeated Code into Functions

Consider how similar the following code blocks are:

```
int hours;  
do  
{  
    printf("Enter a value between 0 and 23:");  
    scanf("%d",&hours);  
} while (hours < 0 || hours > 23);
```



```
int minutes;  
do  
{  
    printf("Enter a value between 0 and 59: ");  
    scanf("%d",&minutes);  
} while (minutes < 0 || minutes > 59);
```



Designing Functions – Turn Repeated Code into Functions

The values for the high end of the range are different.

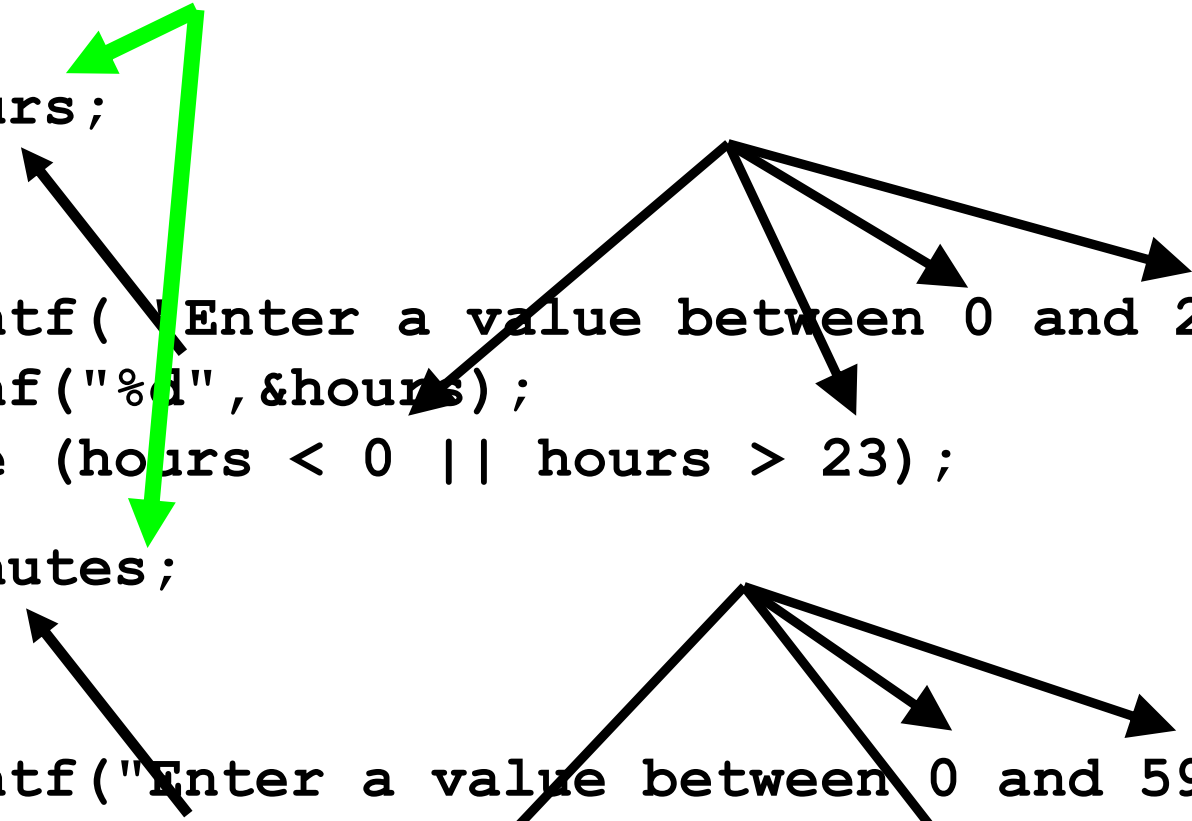
The diagram illustrates the process of identifying repeated code for abstraction into functions. Two code snippets are shown. The first snippet for 'hours' has a loop condition with a high end of 23. The second snippet for 'minutes' has a loop condition with a high end of 59. Black arrows point from the 'Enter a value between 0 and 23:' string to the 'printf' statement in the first snippet, and from the 'Enter a value between 0 and 59: ' string to the 'printf' statement in the second snippet. Another black arrow points from the '&hours' argument to the 'scanf' statement in the first snippet, and from the '&minutes' argument to the 'scanf' statement in the second snippet. Two green arrows originate from a single point above the text 'The values for the high end of the range are different.' One green arrow points to the '23' in the first snippet's while condition, and the other points to the '59' in the second snippet's while condition, highlighting the difference in the high end of the range.

```
int hours;
do
{
    printf( "Enter a value between 0 and 23:");
    scanf("%d",&hours);
} while (hours < 0 || hours > 23);

int minutes;
do
{
    printf("Enter a value between 0 and 59: ");
    scanf("%d",&minutes);
} while (minutes < 0 || minutes > 59);
```

Designing Functions – Turn Repeated Code into Functions

The names of the variables are different.



```
int hours;
do
{
    printf("Enter a value between 0 and 23:");
    scanf("%d",&hours);
} while (hours < 0 || hours > 23);

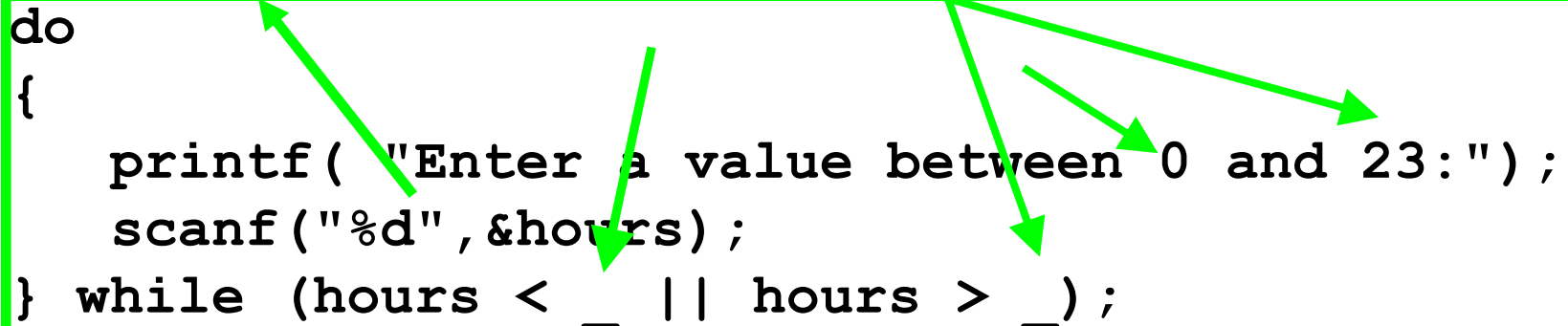
int minutes;
do
{
    printf("Enter a value between 0 and 59: ");
    scanf("%d",&minutes);
} while (minutes < 0 || minutes > 59);
```

Designing Functions – Turn Repeated Code into Functions

But there is common behavior.

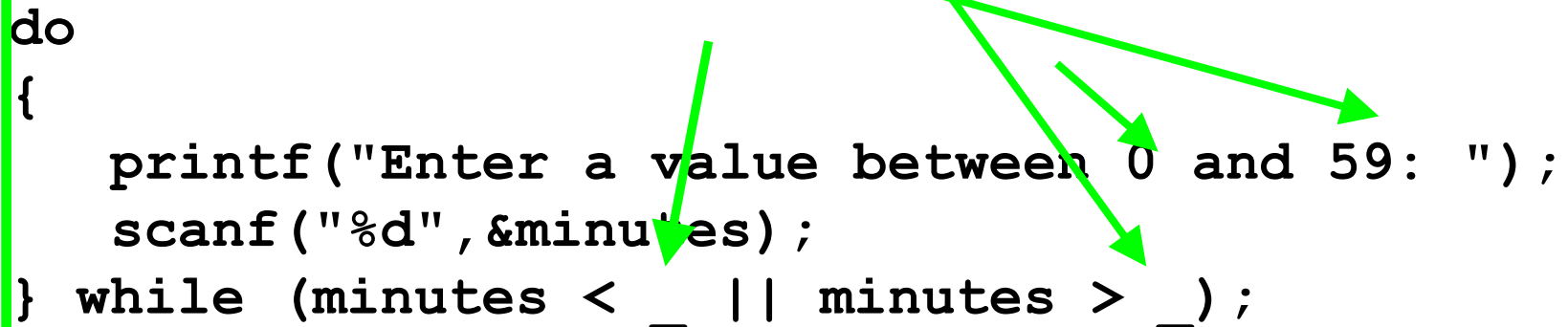
```
int hours;
```

```
do
{
    printf("Enter a value between 0 and 23:");
    scanf("%d",&hours);
} while (hours < _ || hours > _);
```

A green rectangular box highlights the code for validating 'hours'. Four green arrows originate from the right side of the box and point to the corresponding lines in the 'minutes' code block below: one to the 'do' keyword, one to the 'scanf' function, one to the '0' in the range, and one to the '>' operator in the while loop.

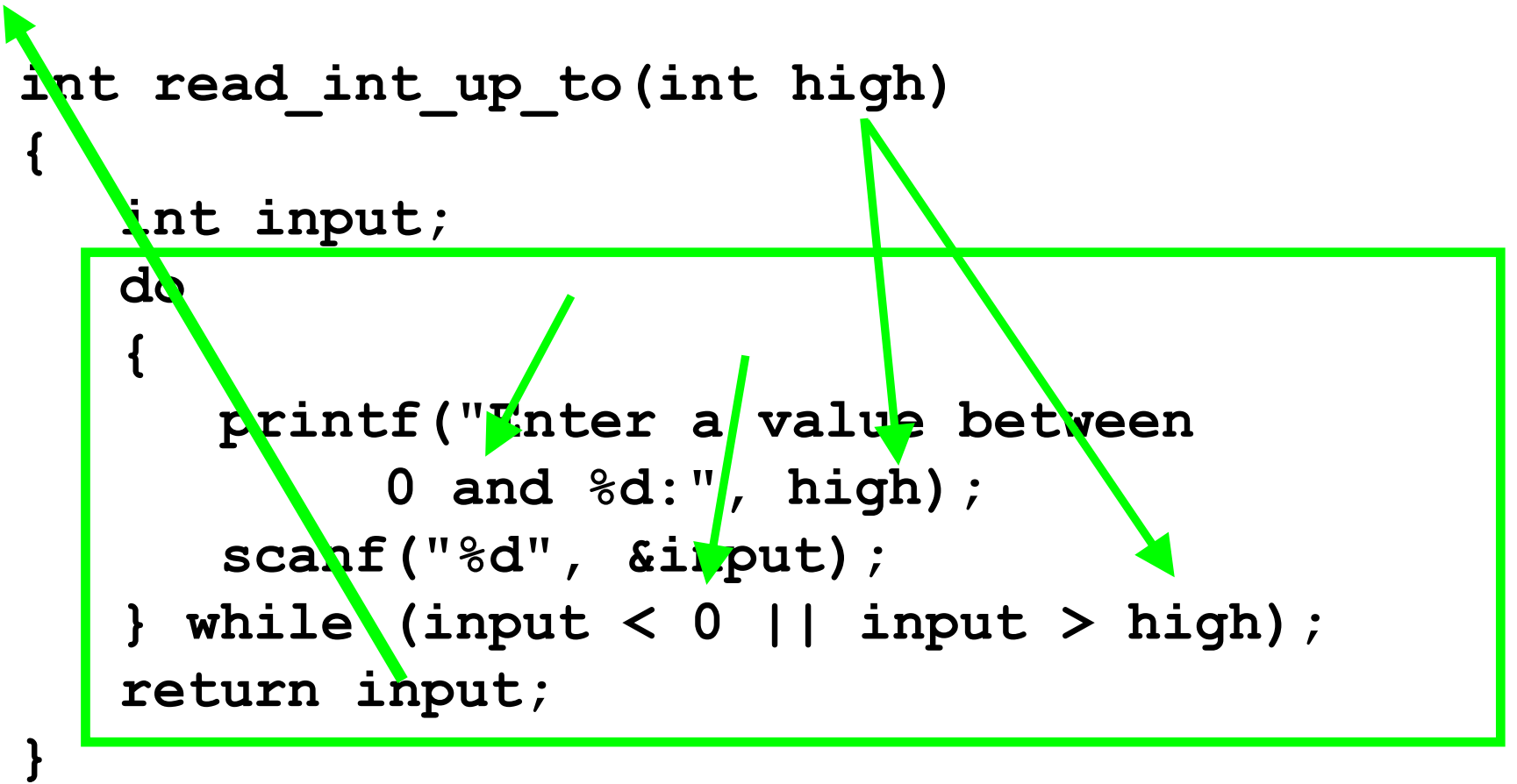
```
int minutes;
```

```
do
{
    printf("Enter a value between 0 and 59: ");
    scanf("%d",&minutes);
} while (minutes < _ || minutes > _);
```

A green rectangular box highlights the code for validating 'minutes'. Four green arrows originate from the right side of the box and point to the corresponding lines in the 'hours' code block above: one to the 'do' keyword, one to the 'scanf' function, one to the '0' in the range, and one to the '>' operator in the while loop.

Designing Functions – Turn Repeated Code into Functions

Move the *common behavior* into *one* function.

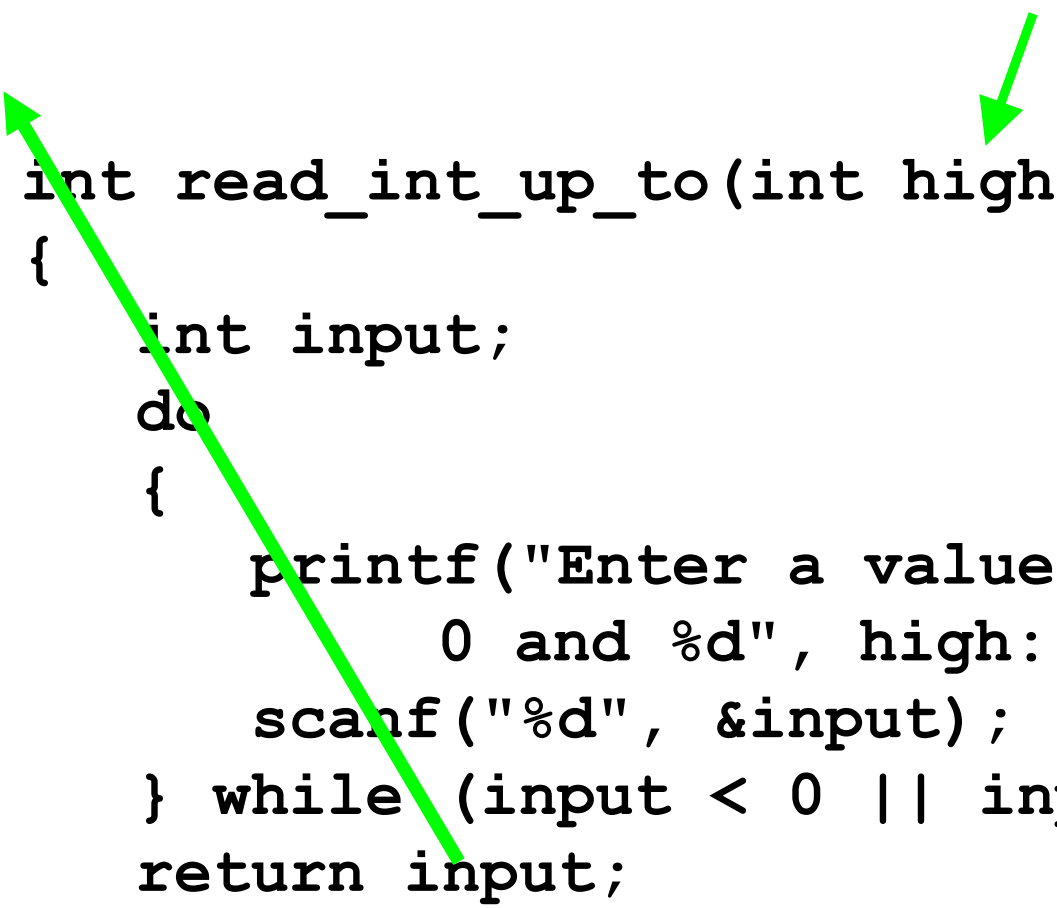


The diagram illustrates the process of designing a function by identifying common behavior. A green box highlights the code block that is repeated, and green arrows point from this box to the function signature and the function body, indicating the transformation process.

```
int read_int_up_to(int high)
{
    int input;
    do
    {
        printf("Enter a value between
               0 and %d:", high);
        scanf("%d", &input);
    } while (input < 0 || input > high);
    return input;
}
```

Designing Functions – Turn Repeated Code into Functions

Here we read one value, making sure it's within the range.



```
int read_int_up_to(int high)
{
    int input;
    do
    {
        printf("Enter a value between
               0 and %d", high: ");
        scanf("%d", &input);
    } while (input < 0 || input > high);
    return input;
}
```

Designing Functions – Turn Repeated Code into Functions

Then we can use this function as many times as we need:

```
int hours = read_int_up_to(23);  
int minutes = read_int_up_to(59);
```

Note how the code has become much easier to understand.

And we are not rewriting code

– code reuse!

Designing Functions – Turn Repeated Code into Functions

Perhaps we can make this function even better:

```
int months = read_int_up_to(12) ;
```

Can we use this function to get a valid month?

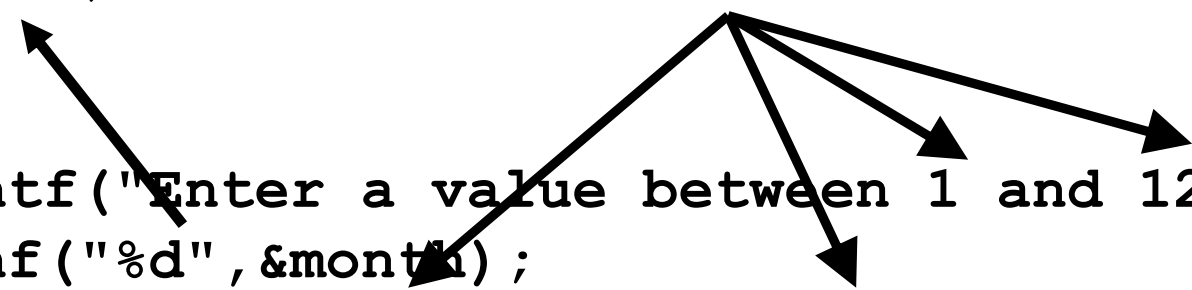
Months are numbered starting at 1, not 0.

We can modify the code to take two parameters:
the end points of the valid range.

Designing Functions – Turn Repeated Code into Functions


Again, consider how similar the following statements are:

```
int month;  
do  
{  
    printf("Enter a value between 1 and 12:");  
    scanf("%d",&month);  
} while (month < 1 || month > 12);
```



The diagram illustrates the similarity between the two code blocks. A central point has four arrows pointing to the four lines of the first code block: the variable declaration, the loop keyword, the printf statement, and the scanf statement. Another central point has four arrows pointing to the four lines of the second code block: the variable declaration, the loop keyword, the printf statement, and the scanf statement. This visualizes how the same sequence of operations is repeated for different variables.

```
int minutes;  
do  
{  
    printf("Enter a value between 0 and 59: ");  
    scanf("%d",&minutes);  
} while (minutes < 0 || minutes > 59);
```



The diagram illustrates the similarity between the two code blocks. A central point has four arrows pointing to the four lines of the first code block: the variable declaration, the loop keyword, the printf statement, and the scanf statement. Another central point has four arrows pointing to the four lines of the second code block: the variable declaration, the loop keyword, the printf statement, and the scanf statement. This visualizes how the same sequence of operations is repeated for different variables.

Designing Functions – Turn Repeated Code into Functions

As before, the values for the range are different.

The diagram illustrates the process of identifying repeated code blocks for function extraction. Two code blocks are shown. The first block, for the 'month' variable, contains a do-while loop with a printf statement, a scanf statement, and a while condition. The second block, for the 'minutes' variable, contains a similar do-while loop but with different range values (0 to 59). Black arrows point from the code lines to a central point between the two blocks, indicating the code to be abstracted. Two green arrows originate from a single point above this central area and point to the 'month' and 'minutes' code blocks respectively, indicating the abstraction of the range values into function parameters.

```
int month;  
do  
{  
    printf("Enter a value between 1 and 12:");  
    scanf("%d",&month);  
} while (month < 1 || month > 12);  
  
int minutes;  
do  
{  
    printf("Enter a value between 0 and 59: ");  
    scanf("%d",&minutes);  
} while (minutes < 0 || minutes > 59);
```

Designing Functions – Turn Repeated Code into Functions

But the names of the variables are different.

```
int month;  
do  
{  
    printf("Enter a value between 1 and 12:");  
    scanf("%d", &month);  
} while (month < 1 || month > 12);
```

The diagram illustrates the reuse of code between two loops. A green double-headed arrow connects the `month` variable in the first loop to the `minutes` variable in the second loop, highlighting that the same logic is repeated with different variable names. Black arrows point from a common central point to the `printf` and `scanf` statements in both loops, indicating that these two lines of code are identical in structure and logic, differing only in the variable names used.

```
int minutes;  
do  
{  
    printf("Enter a value between 0 and 59: ");  
    scanf("%d", &minutes);  
} while (minutes < 0 || minutes > 59);
```

Designing Functions – Turn Repeated Code into Functions

Notice the common behavior?

```
int month;
```

```
do
{
    printf("Enter a value between 1 and 12:");
    scanf("%d",&month);
} while (month < _ || month > _);
```

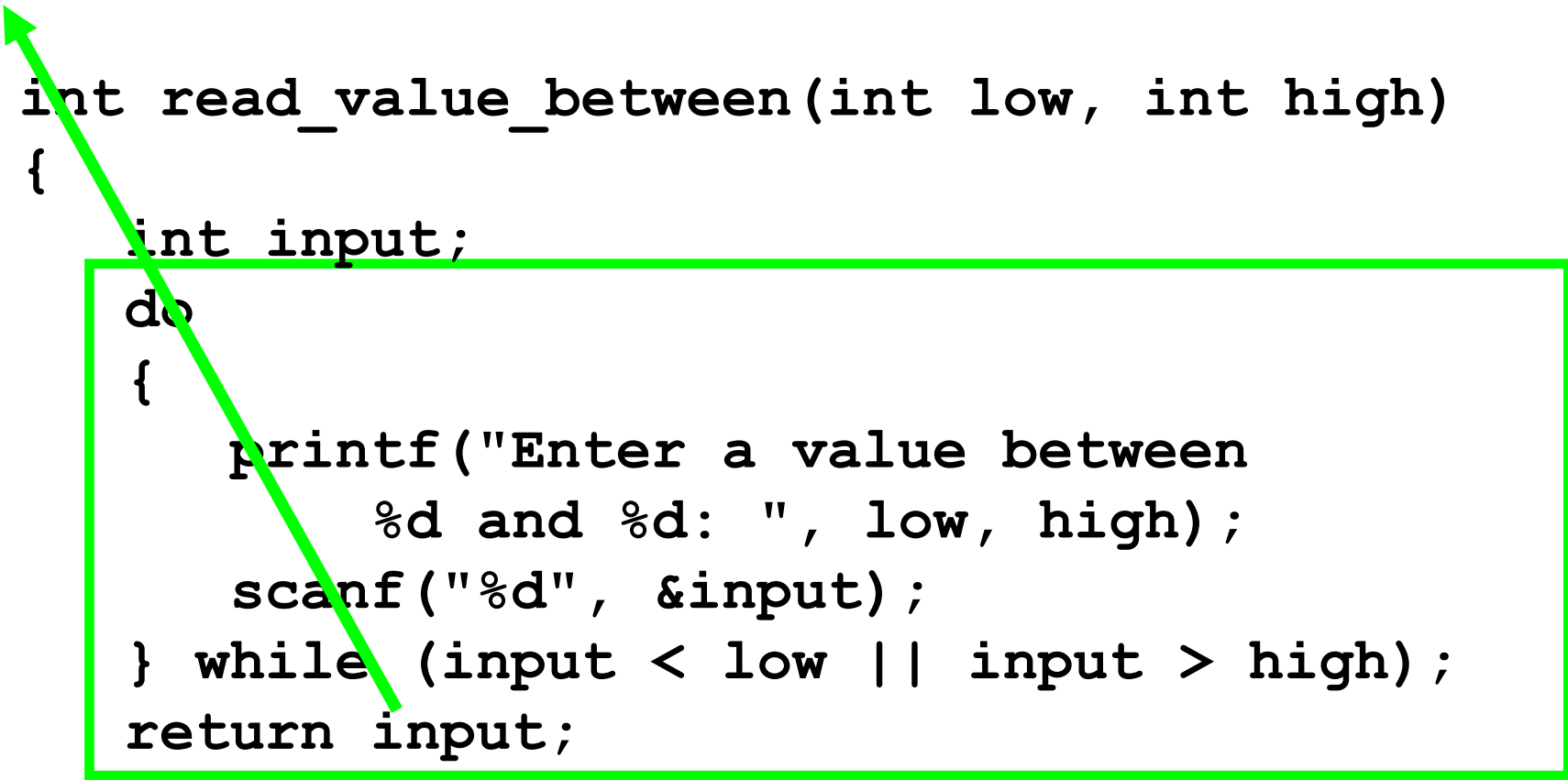
The diagram illustrates the common behavior between the two loops. A central point from which four green arrows originate is positioned above the space between the two code blocks. One arrow points to the 'do' keyword of the first loop, another to the 'do' keyword of the second loop, a third to the 'scanf' function call in the first loop, and a fourth to the 'scanf' function call in the second loop. This highlights the identical structure and input handling logic shared by both loops.

```
int minutes;
```

```
do
{
    printf("Enter a value between 0 and 59: ");
    scanf("%d",&minutes);
} while (minutes < _ || minutes > _);
```

Designing Functions – Turn Repeated Code into Functions

Again, move the *common behavior* into *one* function.



```
int read_value_between(int low, int high)
{
    int input;
    do
    {
        printf("Enter a value between
                %d and %d: ", low, high);
        scanf("%d", &input);
    } while (input < low || input > high);
    return input;
}
```

Designing Functions – Turn Repeated Code into Functions

A different name would need to be used, of course because it does a different activity.

```
int read_value_between(int low, int high)
{
    int input;
    do
    {
        printf("Enter a value between
               %d and %d: ", low, high);
        scanf("%d", &input);
    } while (input < low || input > high);
    return input;
}
```

The diagram illustrates the mapping of function parameters to their usage within the function body. Green arrows point from the parameter names 'low' and 'high' in the function signature to their respective uses in the code: 'low' is used in the printf statement and the while loop condition, while 'high' is used in the printf statement and the while loop condition. A long green arrow points from the opening curly brace of the function to the closing curly brace, indicating the scope of the function.

Designing Functions – Turn Repeated Code into Functions

We can use this function as many times as we need, passing in the end points of the valid range:

```
int months = read_value_between(1, 12) ;  
int hours  = read_value_between(1, 23) ;  
int minutes = read_value_between(0, 59) ;
```

Note how the code has become even better.

And we are still not rewriting code

– code reuse!

Stepwise Refinement

- One of the most powerful strategies for problem solving is the process of *stepwise refinement*.
- To solve a difficult task, break it down into simpler tasks.
- Then keep breaking down the simpler tasks into even simpler ones, until you are left with tasks that you know how to solve.

Stepwise Refinement

Use the process of stepwise refinement to decompose complex tasks into simpler ones.

Stepwise Refinement



Stepwise Refinement

We will break this problem into steps

(and for then those steps that can be
further broken, we'll break them)

(and for then those steps that can be
further broken, we'll break them)

(and for then those steps that can be
further broken, we'll break them)

(and for then those steps that can be
further broken, we'll break them)

... and so on...

until the sub-problems are small enough to be just a few steps

Stepwise Refinement

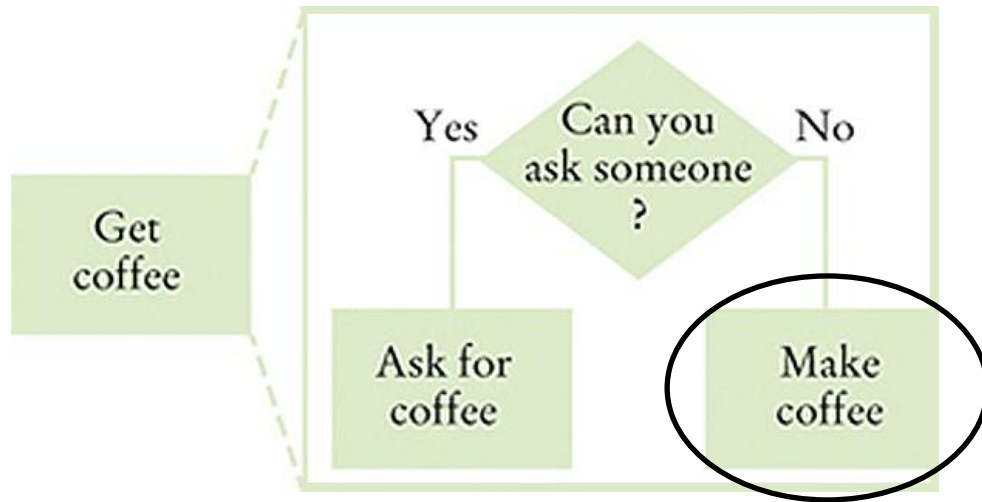
Get
coffee



I need to get
coffee!

This is the whole problem: this is like **main**.

Stepwise Refinement



Beg?
or
Make?

The whole problem can be broken into:
if we can ask someone to give us coffee, we are done
but if not, we can make coffee (which we will
have to break into its parts)

Stepwise Refinement

Make
coffee

Yes
Do you
have instant
coffee?
No

Make
instant
coffee

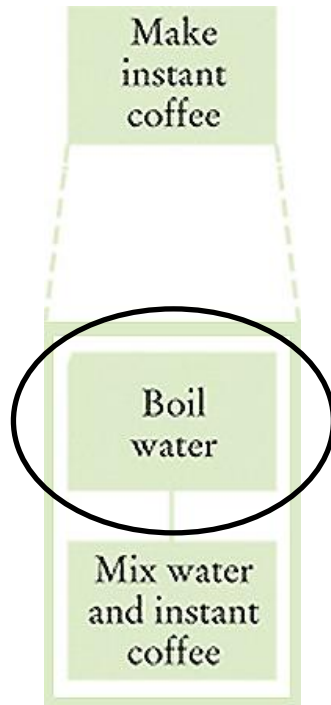
Brew
coffee



OK.
I'll make it
myself

The make coffee sub-problem can be broken into:
if we have instant coffee, we can make that
but if not, we can brew coffee
(maybe these will have parts)

Stepwise Refinement

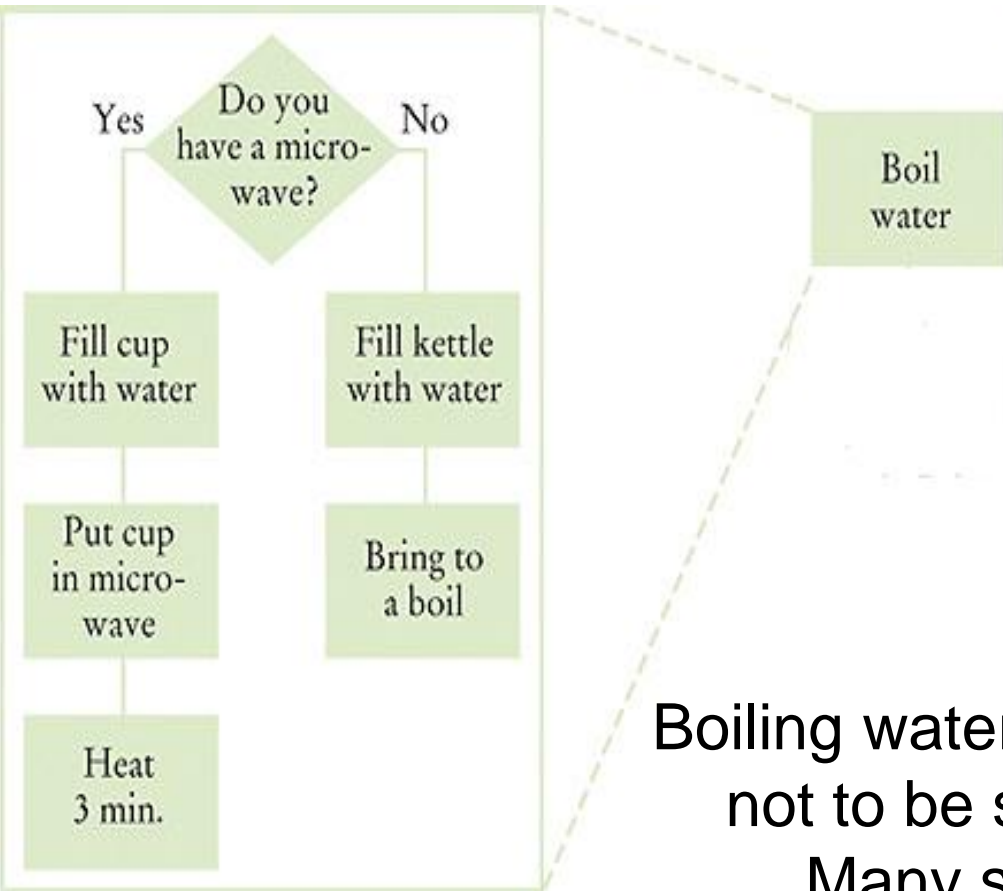


Instant?
Easy...

Making instant coffee breaks into:

1. Boil Water
2. Mix (stir if you wish)
(Do these have sub-problems?)

Stepwise Refinement



Boiling water appears
not to be so easy.
Many steps,
but none have sub-steps.

Stepwise Refinement

Make
coffee

Yes

Do you
have instant
coffee?

No

Make
instant
coffee

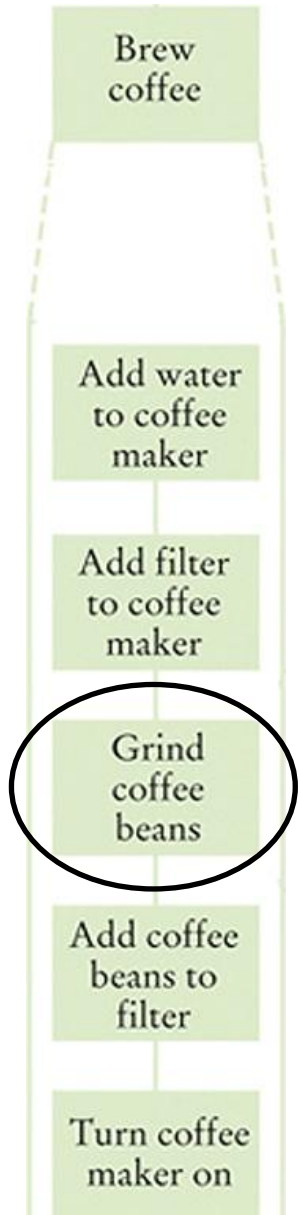
Brew
coffee



OK.
I'll make it
myself

Going back to the branch between
instant or brew, we need to think about brewing.
Can we break that into parts?

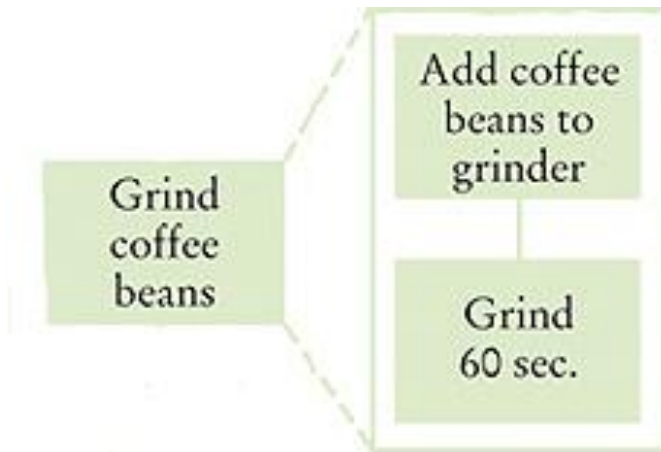
Stepwise Refinement



Or I can brew

Brewing coffee has several steps.
Do any need more breakdown
(grind coffee beans)?

Stepwise Refinement



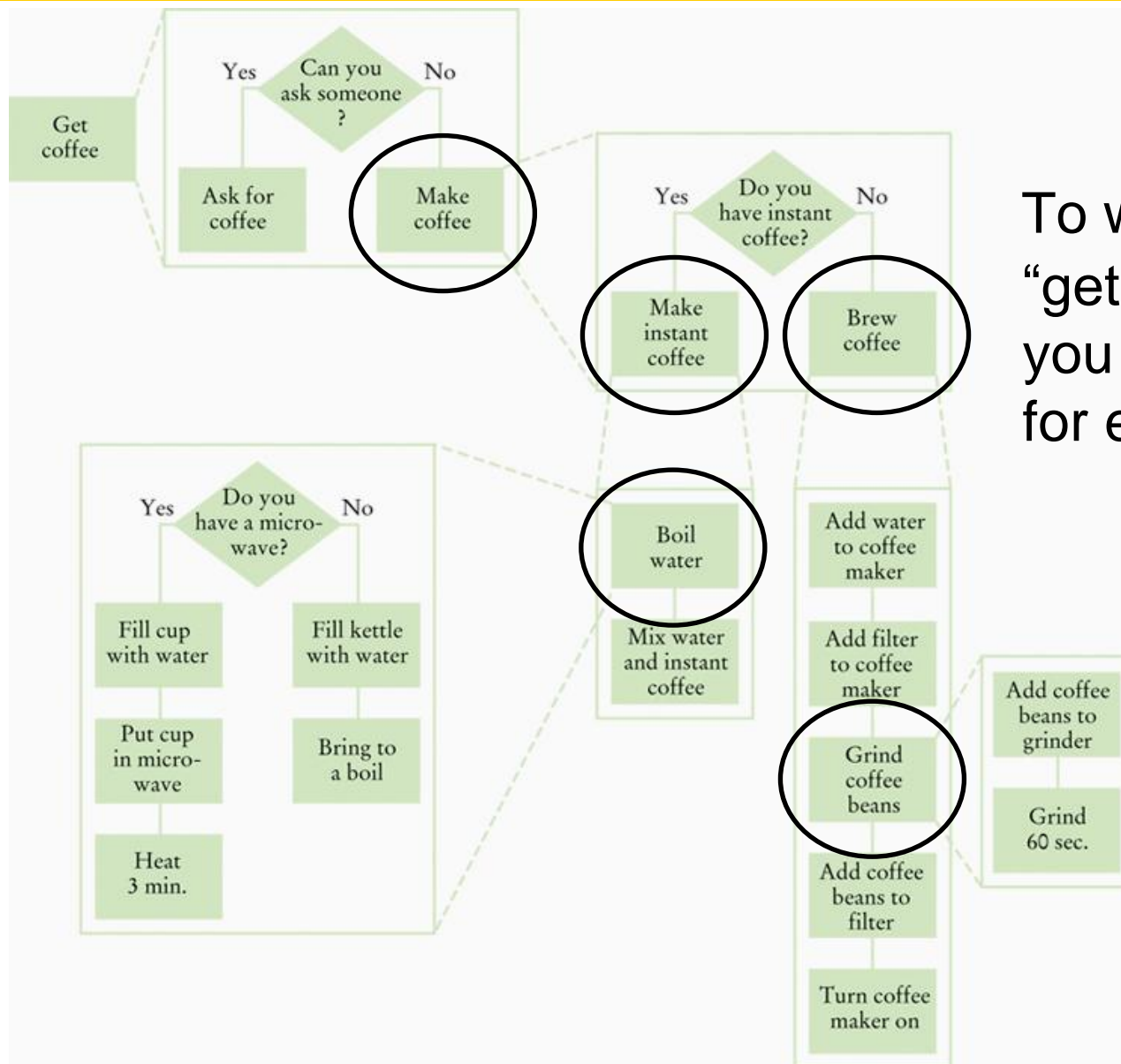
Grinding...
Is that it?

Grinding is a two step process
with no sub-sub-steps.

Stepwise Refinement




Stepwise Refinement – The Complete Process Shown



To write the “get coffee” program, you would write functions for each sub-problem.

Stepwise Refinement



WILEY

John Wiley & Sons, Inc.
111 River Street
Hoboken, NJ 07030-5774

Publishers' Bank Minnesota
2000 Prince Blvd
Jonesville, MN 55400

CHECK
NUMBER
063331

74-39
311

567390

Date	Amount
04/29/09	\$***8000274.15

PAY 4659484

TWO HUNDRED SEVENTY FOUR AND 15 / 100 *****


TO THE ORDER OF:

JOHN DOE
1009 Franklin Blvd
Sunnyvale, CA 95014

1:4781082401: 20062037511 1301

When writing a check by hand the recipient might be tempted to add a few digits in front of the amount.

Stepwise Refinement



WILEY

John Wiley & Sons, Inc.
111 River Street
Hoboken, NJ 07030-5774

Publishers' Bank Minnesota
2000 Prince Blvd
Jonesville, MN 55400

CHECK
NUMBER
063331

74-39
311

567390

Date	Amount
04/29/09	\$*****274.15

PAY 4659484

TWO HUNDRED SEVENTY FOUR AND 15 / 100 *****
TO THE ORDER OF:

JOHN DOE
1009 Franklin Blvd
Sunnyvale, CA 95014

1:4781082401: 20062037511 1301

To discourage this, when printing a check, it is customary to write the check amount both as a number (“\$274.15”) and as a text string (“two hundred seventy four dollars and 15 cents”)

Stepwise Refinement

 WILEY	John Wiley & Sons, Inc. 111 River Street Hoboken, NJ 07030-5774	Publishers' Bank Minnesota 2000 Prince Blvd Jonesville, MN 55400	CHECK NUMBER	063331	$\frac{74-39}{311}$ 567390				
PAY			4659484						
			<table><tr><th>Date</th><th>Amount</th></tr><tr><td>04/29/09</td><td>\$*****274.15</td></tr></table>			Date	Amount	04/29/09	\$*****274.15
Date	Amount								
04/29/09	\$*****274.15								
TWO HUNDRED SEVENTY FOUR AND 15 / 100 *****									
TO THE ORDER OF:									
JOHN DOE									
1009 Franklin Blvd									
Sunnyvale, CA 95014									
<div>⑆478108240⑆ 200620375⑈ 1301</div>									

We will write a program to take an amount and produce the text.

And practice stepwise refinement.

Stepwise Refinement

Sometimes we reduce the problem a bit when we start:
we will only deal with amounts less than \$1,000.

Stepwise Refinement

Of course we will write a function to solve this sub-problem.

```
/**  
Turns a number into its English name.  
@param number a positive integer < 1,000  
@return no return - prints the number in text inside the  
        function (e.g., "two hundred seventy four")  
*/  
void int_name(int number)
```

Notice that we started by writing only the comment and the first line of the function.

Also notice that the constraint of $< \$1,000$ is announced in the comment.

Stepwise Refinement

Before starting to write this function, we need to have a plan.

Are there special considerations?

Are there subparts?

Stepwise Refinement

If the number is between 1 and 9,
we need to compute "one" ... "nine".

In fact, we need the same computation
again for the hundreds ("two" hundred).

Any time you need to do something more than once,
it is a good idea to turn that into a function:

Stepwise Refinement

```
/**  
    Turns a digit into its English name.  
    @param digit an integer between 1 and 9  
    @return no return - prints the name of digit  
    ("one" ... "nine")  
*/  
void digit_name(int digit)
```

Stepwise Refinement

Numbers between 10 and 19 are special cases.

Let's have a separate function **teen_name** that converts them into strings "eleven", "twelve", "thirteen", and so on:

```
/**  
Turns a number between 10 and 19 into its English  
    name.  
@param number an integer between 10 and 19  
@return no return - prints the name of the number  
        ("ten" ... "nineteen")  
*/  
void teen_name(int number)
```

Stepwise Refinement

Next, suppose that the number is between 20 and 99.
Then we show the tens as "twenty", "thirty", ..., "ninety".
For simplicity and consistency, put that computation into
a separate function:

```
/**  
Gives the name of the tens part of a number between 20 and 99.  
@param number an integer between 20 and 99  
@return no return - prints the name of the tens part of the number  
("twenty"... "ninety")  
*/  
void tens_name(int number))
```


Stepwise Refinement

- Now suppose the number is at least 20 and at most 99.
 - If the number is evenly divisible by 10, we use **tens_name**, and we are done.
 - Otherwise, we print the tens with **tens_name** and the ones with **digit_name**.
- If the number is between 100 and 999,
 - then we show a digit, the word "hundred", and the remainder as described previously.

Stepwise Refinement – The Pseudocode


part = number (The part that still needs to be converted)

If part \geq 100

Print name of hundreds in part + " hundred".

Remove hundreds from part.

digit_name(...)



If part \geq 20

Print tens_name(part).

Remove tens from part.

Else if part \geq 10

Print teen_name(part)

part = 0

If (part $>$ 0)

Print digit_name(part).

Stepwise Refinement – The Pseudocode

- This pseudocode has a number of important improvements over the descriptions and comments.
 - It shows how to arrange *the order of the tests*, starting with the comparisons against the larger numbers
 - It shows how the smaller number is subsequently processed in further **if** statements.

Stepwise Refinement – The Pseudocode

- On the other hand, this pseudocode is vague about:
 - The actual conversion of the pieces, just referring to “name of hundreds” and the like.
 - Spaces—it would produce strings with no spaces:
“twohundredseventyfour”

Stepwise Refinement – The Pseudocode

Compared to the complexity of the main problem, one would hope that spaces are a minor issue.

It is best not to muddy the pseudocode with minor details.

Stepwise Refinement – Pseudocode to C

Now for the real code.

The last three cases are easy so let's start with them:

```
if (part >= 20)
{
    tens_name(part) ;
    part = part % 10;
}
else if (part >= 10)
{
    teens_name(part) ;
    part = 0;
}

if (part > 0)
{
    digit_name(part) ;
}
```

If part >= 20

Print tens_name(part).

Remove tens from part.

Else if part >= 10

Print teen_name(part)

part = 0

If (part > 0)

Print digit_name(part).

Stepwise Refinement – Pseudocode to C

Finally, the case of numbers between 100 and 999.
Because `part < 1000`, `part / 100` is a single digit,
and we obtain its name by calling `digit_name`.
Then we add the “hundred” suffix:

```
if (part >= 100)
{
    digit_name(part / 100);
    printf(" hundred");
    part = part % 100;
}
```

Stepwise Refinement – Pseudocode to C

Now for the complete program.

The Complete Program

```
#include <stdio.h>

/**
    Prints a digit into its English name.
    @param digit an integer between 1 and 9
    @return no return- print the name of digit ("one" ... "nine")
*/
void digit_name (int digit)
{
    if (digit == 1)        printf ("one");
    else if (digit == 2)    printf ("two");
    else if (digit == 3)    printf ("three");
    else if (digit == 4)    printf ("four");
    else if (digit == 5)    printf ("five");
    else if (digit == 6)    printf ("six");
    else if (digit == 7)    printf ("seven");
    else if (digit == 8)    printf ("eight");
    else if (digit == 9)    printf ("nine");
    else {}
}
```

The Complete Program

```
/**
    Prints a number between 10 and 19 into its English name.
    @param number an integer between 10 and 19
    @return no return - print the name of the given number ("ten" ...
    "nineteen")
*/
void teens_name (int number)
{
    if (number == 10)    printf ("ten");
    else if (number == 11)    printf ("eleven");
    else if (number == 12)    printf ("twelve");
    else if (number == 13)    printf ("thirteen");
    else if (number == 14)    printf ("fourteen");
    else if (number == 15)    printf ("fifteen");
    else if (number == 16)    printf ("sixteen");
    else if (number == 17)    printf ("seventeen");
    else if (number == 18)    printf ("eighteen");
    else if (number == 19)    printf ("nineteen");
    else {}
}
```

The Complete Program

```
/**
    Gives the name of the tens part of a number between 20 and 99.
    @param number an integer between 20 and 99
    @return no return - prints the name of the tens part of the number
    ("twenty" ... "ninety")
*/
void tens_name (int number)
{
    if (number >= 90)           printf ("ninety");
    else if (number >= 80)      printf ("eighty");
    else if (number >= 70)      printf ("seventy");
    else if (number >= 60)      printf ("sixty");
    else if (number >= 50)      printf ("fifty");
    else if (number >= 40)      printf ("forty");
    else if (number >= 30)      printf ("thirty");
    else if (number >= 20)      printf ("twenty");
    else {}
}
```

The Complete Program

```
/**
    Turns a number into its English name.
    @param number a positive integer < 1,000
    @return no return - prints the name of the number (e.g. "two
    hundred seventy four")
*/
void int_name(int number)
{
    int part = number; // The part that still needs to be converted

    if (part >= 100)
    {
        digit_name (part / 100);
        printf (" hundred");
        part = part % 100;
    }
    if (part >= 20)
    {
        printf (" ");
        tens_name (part);
        part = part % 10;
    }
}
```

The Complete Program

```
    else if (part >= 10)
    {
        printf (" ");
        teens_name (part);
        part = 0;
    }

    if (part > 0)
    {
        printf (" ");
        digit_name (part);
    }
}

int main()
{
    int input;
    printf("Please enter a positive integer: ");
    scanf("%d", &input);
    int_name(input);
    return 0;
}
```

Good Design – Keep Functions Short

- There is a certain cost for writing a function:
 - You need to design, code, and test the function.
 - The function needs to be documented.
 - You need to spend some effort to make the function *reusable* rather than tied to a specific context.

Good Design – Keep Functions Short

- And you should keep your functions short.
- As a rule of thumb, a function that is so long that its will not fit on a single screen in your development environment should probably be broken up.
- Break the code into other functions

Tracing Functions

When you design a complex set of functions, it is a good idea to carry out a manual walkthrough before entrusting your program to the computer.

This process is called *tracing* your code.

You should trace each of your functions separately.

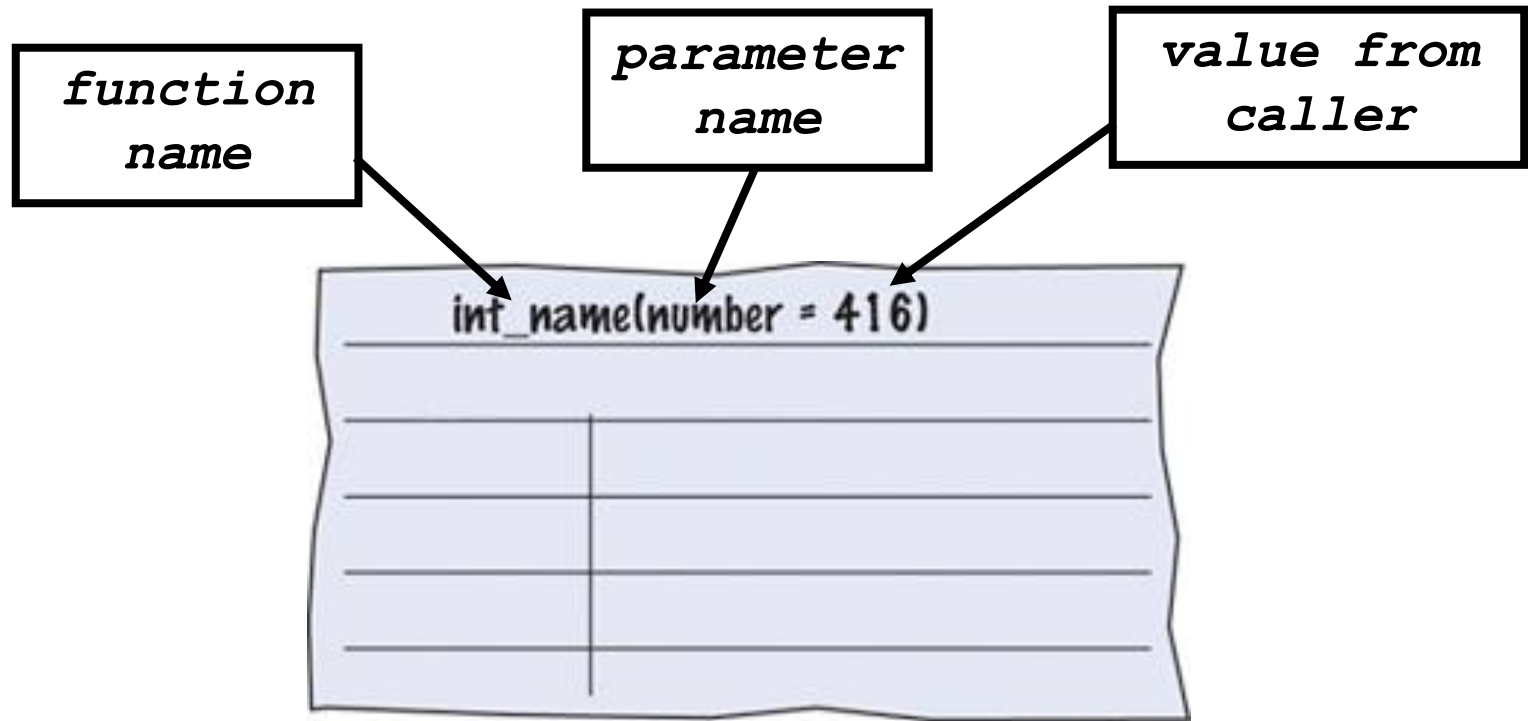
Tracing Functions

To demonstrate, we will trace the `int_name` function when 416 is passed in.

Tracing Functions

Here is the call: `... int_name(416) ...`

Take an index card (or use the back of an envelope) and write the name of the function and the names and values of the parameter variables, like this:



Tracing Functions

Then write the names and values of the function variables.

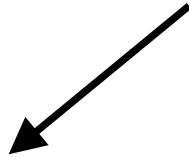
```
void int_name(int number)
{
    int part = number; // The part that still needs
                        // to be converted
    // Printed value, initially ""
```

Write them in a table, since you will update them as you walk through the code:

int_name(number = 416)	
part	output
416	""

Tracing Functions

The test (`part >= 100`) is **true** so the code is executed.

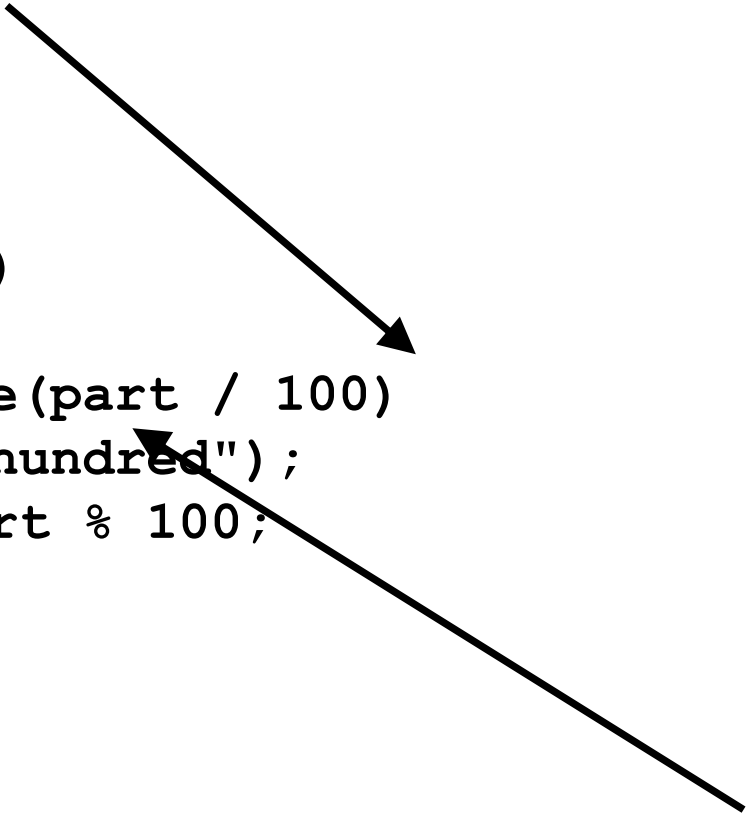


```
if (part >= 100)
{
    digit_name(part / 100)
    printf(" hundred");
    part = part % 100;
}
```

Tracing Functions

`part / 100` is 4

```
if (part >= 100)
{
    digit_name(part / 100)
    printf(" hundred");
    part = part % 100;
}
```



so `digit_name(4)` is easily seen to be "four".

Tracing Functions

```
if (part >= 100)
{
    digit_name(part / 100)
    printf(" hundred");
    part = part % 100;
}
```

part % 100 is 16.



Tracing Functions

Output has changed to "four hundred",
part has changed to **part % 100**, or 16.

int_name(number = 416)	
part	<i>output</i>
416	four

Tracing Functions

Output has changed to "four hundred",

part has changed to **part % 100**, or 16.

Cross out the old values and write the new ones.

int_name(number = 416)	
part	output
416	int
16	"four hundred"

Tracing Functions

Let's continue...

Here is the status of the parameters and variables now:

int_name(number = 416)	
part	<i>output</i>
416	int
16	"four hundred"

Tracing Functions

The test (`part >= 20`) is **false** but the test (`part >= 10`) is **true** so that code is executed.

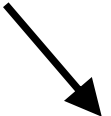
```
if (part >= 20)...  
else if (part >= 10) {  
    printf (" ");  
    teens_name (part);  
    part = 0;  
}
```

`teens_name(16)` is “sixteen”, `part` is set to 0, so do this:

int_name(number = 416)	
part	output
416	---
16	"four hundred"
0	"four hundred sixteen"

Tracing Functions

Why is **part** set to 0?

```
if (part >= 20) ...  
else if (part >= 10) {  
    printf (" ");  
    teens_name (part);  
    part = 0;  
}  
      
if (part > 0)  
{  
    printf (" ");  
    digit_name (part);  
}
```

After the **if-else** statement ends, **name** is complete.

The test in the following **if** statement needs to be “fixed” so that part of the code will not be executed

- nothing should be added to **name**.

Stubs

- When writing a larger program, it is not always feasible to implement and test all functions at once.
- You often need to test a function that calls another, but the other function hasn't yet been implemented.

Stubs

- You can temporarily replace the body of function yet to be implemented with a *stub*.
- A stub is a function that returns a simple value that is sufficient for testing another function.
- It might also have something written on the screen to help you see the order of execution.
- Or, do both of these things.

Stubs

Here are examples of stub functions.

```
/**
    Prints a digit as its English name.
    @param digit an integer between 1 and 9
    @return no return - prints the name of digit ("one" ...
    "nine")
*/
void digit_name(int digit)
{
    printf("mumble");
}

/**
    Gives the name of the tens part of a number between 20 and 99.
    @param number an integer between 20 and 99
    @return no return - Prints the tens name of the number
    ("twenty" ... "ninety")
*/
void tens_name(int number)
{
    printf("mumblety");
}
```

Stubs

If you combine these stubs with the completely written `int_name` function and run the program testing with the value 274, this will be the result:

```
Please enter a positive integer: 274
mumble hundred mumblety mumble
```

which *everyone* knows indicates that the basic logic of the `int_name` function is working correctly.

(OK, only you know, but that is the important thing with stubs)

Now that you have tested `int_name`, you would “unstubify” another stub function, then another...