

# Functions

## Unit 6

Gaddis: 6.1-5,7-10,13,15-16 and 7.7

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1

## 6.1 Modular Programming

- Modular programming: breaking a program up into smaller, manageable components (modules)
- Function: a collection of statements that perform a task, grouped into a single named unit.
- Why is modular programming important?
  - ▶ Improves maintainability/readability of programs by giving structure and organization to the code
  - ▶ Simplifies the process of writing programs: programmer can write one small function at a time

2

This program has one long, complex function containing all of the statements necessary to solve a problem.

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

In this program the problem has been divided into smaller problems, each of which is handled by a separate function.

```
int main()
{
    statement;
    statement;
    statement;
} main function

void function2()
{
    statement;
    statement;
    statement;
} function 2

void function3()
{
    statement;
    statement;
    statement;
} function 3

void function4()
{
    statement;
    statement;
    statement;
} function 4
```

## 6.2 Defining and Calling Functions

- Function definition: statements that make up a function, along with its name, parameters and return type.

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

- Function call: statement (or expression) that causes a function to execute

```
function-name (arguments)
```

4

## Function Definition

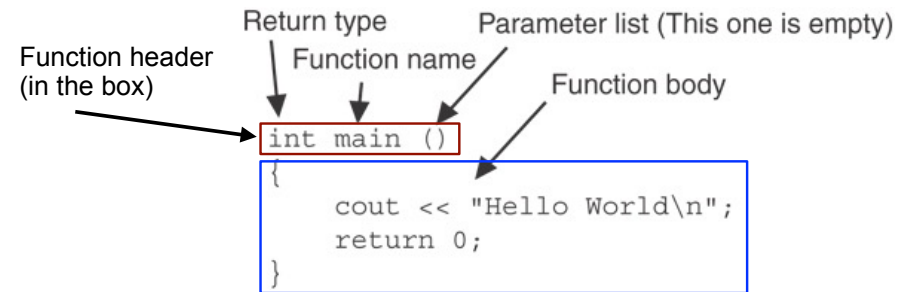
A Function definition includes:

- return type: data type of the value that the function returns to the part of the program that called it.
- function-name: name of the function. Function names follow same rules as variables.
- parameters: optional list of variable definitions. These will be assigned values each time the function is called.
- body: statements that perform the function's task, enclosed in { }.

5

## Function Definition

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



6

## Function Return Type

- If a function computes and returns a value, the type of the value it returns must be indicated as the return type:

```
int getRate()
{
    return 8;
}
```

- If a function does not return a value, its return type is void:

```
void printHeading()
{
    cout << "Monthly Sales\n";
}
```

7

## Calling a Function

- To execute the statements in a function, you must “call” it from within another function (like main).
- To call a function, use the function name followed by a list of expressions (arguments) in parens:  

```
printHeading();
```
- Whenever called, the program executes the body of the called function (it runs the statements).
- After the function terminates, execution resumes in the calling function after the function call.

8

## Functions in a program

- Example:

```
#include <iostream>
using namespace std;

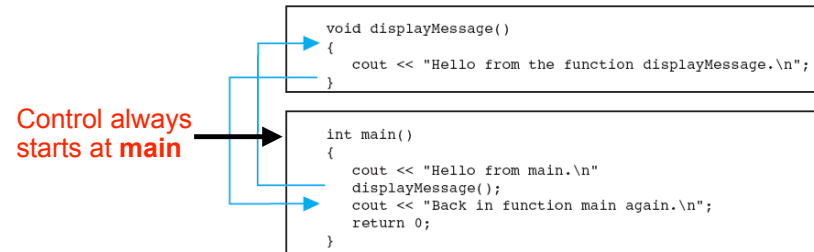
void displayMessage()
{
    cout << "Hello from the function displayMessage.\n";
}

int main()
{
    cout << "Hello from Main.\n";
    displayMessage();
    cout << "Back in function Main again.\n";
    return 0;
}
```

9

## Functions in a program

- Output: Hello from main.  
Hello from the function displayMessage.  
Back in function main again.
- Flow of Control (order of statements):



10

## Calling Functions: rules

- A program is a collection of **functions**, one of which must be called “main”.
- Function definitions can contain **calls** to other functions.
- A function must be defined before it can be called
  - ▶ In the program text, the function definition must occur before all calls to the function
  - ▶ Unless you use a “prototype”

11

## 6.3 Function Prototypes

- Compiler must know the following about a function before it can process a function call:
  - ▶ name, return type and
  - ▶ data type (and order) of each parameter
- Not necessary to have the body of the function before the call.
- Sufficient to put just the function header before all functions containing calls to that function
  - ▶ The complete function definition must occur later in the program.
  - ▶ The header alone is called a function prototype

12

## Prototypes in a program

```
#include <iostream>
using namespace std;

// function prototypes
void first();
void second();

int main() {
    cout << "I am starting in function main.\n";
    first();           // function call
    second();         // function call
    cout << "Back in function main again.\n";
    return 0;
}

// function definitions
void first() {
    cout << "I am now inside the function first.\n";
}
void second() {
    cout << "I am now inside the function second.\n";
}
```

13

## Prototype Style Notes

- Place prototypes near the top of the program (before any other function definitions)--good style.
- Using prototypes, you can place function definitions in **any** order in the source file
- Common style: all function prototypes at beginning, followed by definition of main, followed by other function definitions.

14

## 6.4 Sending Data into a Function

- You can pass (or send) values to a function in the function call statement.
- This allows the function to work over different values each time it is called.
- Arguments: Expressions (or values) passed to a function in the function call.
- Parameters: Variables defined in the function definition header that are assigned the values passed as arguments.

15

## A Function with a Parameter

```
void displayValue(int num)
{
    cout << "The value is " << num << endl;
}
```

- num is the parameter.
- Calls to this function must provide an argument (expression) that has an integer value:

```
displayValue(5);
```

- 5 is the argument.

16

## Function with parameter in program

```
#include <iostream>
using namespace std;

// Function Prototype
void displayValue(int);

int main() {
    cout << "I am passing 5 to displayValue.\n";
    displayValue(5);
    cout << "Back in function main again.\n";
    displayValue(8); //call again with diff. argument
    return 0;
}

// Function definition
void displayValue(int num) {
    cout << "The value is " << num << endl;
}
```

Output: I am passing 5 to displayValue.  
The value is 5  
Back in function main again.  
The value is 8

17

## Parameter Passing Semantics

- Given this function call, with the argument of 5:  
`displayValue(5);`
- Before the function body executes, the parameter (num) is initialized to the argument (5), like this:  
`int num = 5; //this stmt is executed implicitly`
- Then the body of the function is executed, using num as a regular variable:

```
cout << "The value is " << num << endl;
```

18

## Parameters in Prototypes and Function Definitions

- The prototype must include the *data type* of each parameter inside its parentheses:

```
void evenOrOdd(int); //prototype
```

- The definition must include a *definition* for each parameter in its parens

```
void evenOrOdd(int num) //header
{ if (num%2==0) cout << "even";
  else cout << "odd"; }
```

- The call must include an *argument* (expression) for each parameter, inside its parentheses

```
evenOrOdd(x+10); //call
```

19

## Passing Multiple Arguments

When calling a function that has multiple parameters:

```
void power(int, int); //prototype
```

- the following must all match:
  - the number and order of data types in the prototype
  - the number and order of parameters in the function definition
  - the number and order of arguments in the function call
- the first argument will be used to initialize the first parameter, the second argument to initialize the second parameter, etc.
  - they are assigned in order.

20

## Example: function calls function

```
void deeper() {
    cout << "I am now in function deeper.\n";
}

void deep() {
    cout << "Hello from the function deep.\n";
    deeper();
    cout << "Back in function deep.\n";
}

int main() {
    cout << "Hello from Main.\n";
    deep();
    cout << "Back in function Main again.\n";
    return 0;
}
```

Output: Hello from Main.  
Hello from the function deep.  
I am now in function deeper.  
Back in function deep.  
Back in function Main again.

21

## Example: call function more than once

```
#include <iostream>
#include <cmath>
using namespace std;

void pluses(int count) {
    for (int i = 0; i < count; i++)
        cout << "+";
    cout << endl;
}

int main() {
    int x = 2;
    pluses(4);
    pluses(x);
    pluses(x+5);
    pluses(pow(x,3.0));
    return 0;
}
```

Output:

```
++++
++
+++++++
+++++++
```

22

## Example: multiple parameters

```
#include <iostream>
#include <cmath>
using namespace std;

void pluses(char ch, int count) {
    for (int i=0; i < count; i++)
        cout << ch;
    cout << endl;
}

int main() {
    int x = 2;
    char cc = '!';
    pluses('#', 4);
    pluses('*', x);
    pluses(cc, x+5);
    pluses('x', pow(x,3.0));
    return 0;
}
```

Output:

```
####
**
!!!!!!!
xxxxxxxx
```

23

## 6.7 The return statement

```
return;
```

- Used to stop the execution of a void function
- Can be placed anywhere in the function body
  - the function immediately transfers control back to the statement that called it.
- Statements that follow the return statement will not be executed
- In a void function with no return statement, the compiler adds a return statement before the last }

24

## The return statement: example

```
void someFunc (int x) {
    if (x < 0)
        cout << "x must not be negative." << endl;
    else {
        // Continue with lots of statements, indented
        // ...
        // so many it's hard to keep track of matching {}
    }
}
```

```
void someFunc (int x) {
    if (x < 0) {
        cout << "x must not be negative." << endl;
        return;
    }
    // Continue with lots of statements, less indentation,
    // no brackets to try to match ...
}
```

This is equivalent, easier to read

25

## 6.8 Returning a value from a function

- You can use the return statement in a non-void function to send a value back to the function call:

```
return expr;
```

- The value of the `expr` will be sent back.
- The data type of `expr` must be placed in the function header:

Return type:

```
int doubleIt(int x) {
    return x*2;
}
```

Value being returned

26

## Calling a function that returns a value

- If the function returns void, the function call is a statement:

```
pluses(4);
```

- If the function returns a value, the function call is an expression:

```
int y = doubleIt(4);
```

- The value of the function call (underlined) is the value of the `expr` returned from the function, and you should do something with it.

27

## Returning the sum of two ints

```
#include <iostream>
using namespace std;

int sum(int,int);

int main() {
    int value1;
    int value2;
    int total;
    cout << "Enter 2 numbers: " << endl;
    cin >> value1 >> value2;
    total = sum(value1, value2);
    cout << "The sum is " << total << endl;
}

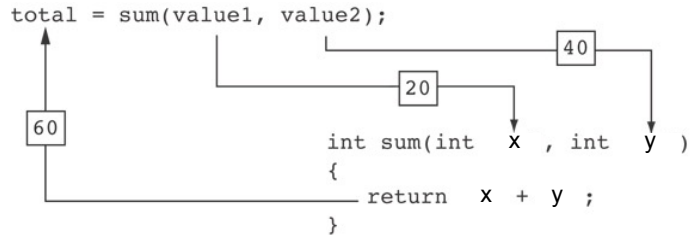
int sum(int x, int y) {
    return x + y;
}
```

Output:

```
Enter 2 numbers:
20 40
The sum is 60
```

28

## Data transfer



- The function call from main: `sum(value1, value2)` passes the values stored in `value1` and `value2` (20 and 40) to the function, assigning them to `x` and `y`.
- The result, `x+y` (60), is returned to the call and stored in `total`.

29

## Function call expression

- When a function call calls a function that returns a value, it is an *expression*.
- The function call can occur in any context where an expression is allowed:
  - ▶ assign to variable (or array element) `total = sum(x,y);`
  - ▶ output via cout `cout << sum(x,y);`
  - ▶ use in a more complicated expression `cout << sum(x,y)*.1;`
  - ▶ pass as an argument to another function `z = pow(sum(x,y),2);`
- The value of the function call is determined by the value of the expression returned from the function.

30

## 6.9 Returning a boolean value

```
bool isValid(int number)  
{  
    bool status;  
    if (number >=1 && number <= 100)  
        status = true;  
    else  
        status = false;  
    return status;  
}
```

- the above function is equivalent to this one:

```
bool isValid (int number) {  
    return (number >=1 && number <= 100);  
}
```

31

## Returning a boolean value

- You can call the function in an if or while:

```
bool isValid(int);  
  
int main() {  
    int val;  
    cout << "Enter a value between 1 and 100: "  
    cin >> val;  
  
    while (!isValid(val)) {  
        cout << "That value was not in range.\n";  
        cout << "Enter a value between 1 and 100: "  
        cin >> val;  
    }  
    // . . .  
}
```

32



## 6.5 Passing Data by Value (review)

- Pass by value: when an argument is passed to a function, its value is copied into the parameter.
- Parameter passing is implemented using variable initialization (behind the scenes):

```
int param = argument;
```

- Changes to the parameter in the function definition cannot affect the value of the argument in the call

33

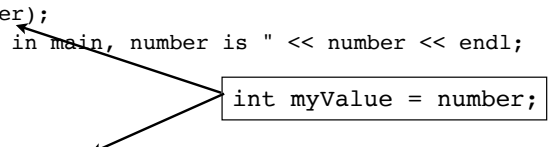
## Example: Pass by Value

```
#include <iostream>
using namespace std;
```

Output: `number is 12  
myValue is 200  
Back in main, number is 12`

```
void changeMe(int);
```

```
int main() {
    int number = 12;
    cout << "number is " << number << endl;
    changeMe(number);
    cout << "Back in main, number is " << number << endl;
    return 0;
}
```



```
void changeMe(int myValue) {
    myValue = 200;
    cout << "myValue is " << myValue << endl;
}
```

changeMe failed!

34

## Pass by Value notes

When the argument is a variable (as in  $f(x)$ ):

- The parameter is initialized to a *copy* of the argument's value.
- Even if the body of the function changes the parameter, the argument in the function call is unchanged.
- The parameter and the argument are stored in separate variables, separate locations in memory.

35

## 6.13 Passing Data by Reference

- Pass by reference: when an argument is passed to a function, the function has direct access to the original argument.
- Pass by reference in C++ is implemented using a reference parameter, which has an ampersand (&) in front of it:

```
void changeMe (int &myValue);
```

- A reference parameter acts as an *alias* to its argument.
- Changes to the parameter in the function **DO** affect the value of the argument

36

## Example: Pass by Reference

```
#include <iostream>
using namespace std;
```

```
void changeMe(int &);
```

```
int main() {
    int number = 12;
    cout << "number is " << number << endl;
    changeMe(number);
    cout << "Back in main, number is " << number << endl;
    return 0;
}
```

```
void changeMe(int &myValue) {
    myValue = 200;
    cout << "myValue is " << myValue << endl;
}
```

Output: `number is 12`  
`myValue is 200`  
`Back in main, number is 200`

myValue is an *alias* for number,  
only one shared variable

this statement changes number

37

## Using Pass by Reference for input

```
double square(double number) {
    return number * number;
}
```

```
void getRadius(double &rad) {
    cout << "Enter the radius of the circle: ";
    cin >> rad;
}
```

```
int main() {
    const double PI = 3.14159;
    double radius;
    double area;
    cout << fixed << setprecision(2);
    getRadius(radius);
    area = PI * square(radius);
    cout << "The area is " << area << endl;
    return 0;
}
```

During the function execution,  
rad is an alias to radius in the  
main program.

38

## Pass by Reference notes

- Changes made to a reference parameter are actually made to its argument
- The & must be in the function header AND the function prototype.
- The argument passed to a reference parameter must be a variable – it cannot be a constant or contain an operator (like +)
- Use when appropriate – don't use when:
  - ▶ the argument should not be changed by function (!)
  - ▶ the function returns only 1 value: use return stmt!

39

## 6.10 Local and Global Variables

- Variables defined inside a function are local to that function.
  - ▶ They are hidden from the statements in other functions, which cannot access them.
- Because the variables defined in a function are hidden, other functions may have separate, distinct variables with the same name.
  - ▶ This is not bad style. These are easy to keep straight
- Parameters are also local to the function in which they are defined.

40

## Local variables are hidden from other functions

```
#include <iostream>
using namespace std;
```

```
void anotherFunction();
```

```
int main() {
    int num = 1;
    cout << "In main, num is " << num << endl;
    anotherFunction();
    cout << "Back in main, num is " << num << endl;
    return 0;
}
```

```
void anotherFunction() {
    int num = 20;
    cout << "In anotherFunction, num is " << num << endl;
}
```

Output: In main, num is 1  
In anotherFunction, num is 20  
Back in main, num is 1

This num variable is visible only in main

This num variable is visible only in anotherFunction

41

## Local Variable Lifetime

- A function's local variables and parameters exist only while the function is executing.
- When the function begins, its parameters and local variables (as their definitions are encountered) are created in memory, and when the function ends, the parameters and local variables are destroyed.
- This means that any value stored in a local variable is lost between calls to the function in which the variable is declared.

42

## Global Variables

- A global variable is any variable defined outside **all** the functions in a program.
- The scope of a global variable is the portion of the program starting from the variable definition to the end of the file
- This means that a global variable can be accessed by all functions that are defined after the global variable is defined
- A local variable may have the same name as a global variable. The global variable is hidden in that variable's block.

43

## Global Variables: example

```
#include <iostream>
using namespace std;
```

```
void anotherFunction();
int num = 2;
```

```
int main() {
    cout << "In main, num is " << num << endl;
    anotherFunction();
    cout << "Back in main, num is " << num << endl;
    return 0;
}
```

```
void anotherFunction() {
    cout << "In anotherFunction, num is " << num << endl;
    num = 50;
    cout << "But now it is changed to " << num << endl;
}
```

Output: In main, num is 2  
In anotherFunction, num is 2  
But now it is changed to 50  
Back in main, num is 50

44

## Global Variables/Constants

**Do not use global variables!!!** Because:

- They make programs difficult to debug.
  - If the wrong value is stored in a global var, you must scan the entire program to see where the variable is changed
- Functions that access globals are not self-contained
  - cannot easily reuse the function in another program.
  - cannot understand the function without understanding how the global is used everywhere

It is ok (and good) to use global **constants** because their values do **not** change.

45

## Global Constants: example

```
const double PI = 3.14159;
```

```
double getArea(double number) {  
    return PI * number * number;  
}
```

```
double getPerimeter(double number) {  
    return PI * 2 * number;  
}
```

```
int main() {  
    double radius;  
    cout << fixed << setprecision(2);  
    cout << "Enter the radius of the circle: ";  
    cin >> radius;
```

```
    cout << "The area is " << getArea(radius) << endl;  
    cout << "The perimeter is " << getPerimeter(radius) << endl;  
}
```

Output:

```
Enter the radius of the circle: 2.2  
The area is 15.21  
The perimeter is 13.82
```

## Functions and Array Elements

- An **array element** can be passed to any parameter of the same (or compatible) type:

```
double square (double);
```

```
int main() {  
    double numbers[5] = {2.2, 3.3, 5.11, 7.0, 3.2};  
  
    for (int i=0; i<5; i++)  
        cout << square(numbers[i]) << " ";  
    cout << endl;  
    return 0;  
}
```

```
double square (double x) {  
    return x * x;  
}
```

Output:

```
4.84 10.89 26.1121 49 10.24
```

47

## Functions and Array Elements

- An **array element** can be passed by **reference**.  
What is output by this program?

```
void changeMe(int &myValue) {  
    myValue = 200;  
}  
  
int main() {  
    int numbers[5] = {2, 3, 5, 7, 3};  
  
    for (int i=0; i<5; i++)  
        changeMe(numbers[i]);  
  
    for (int i=0; i<5; i++)  
        cout << numbers[i] << " ";  
    cout << endl;  
}
```

48

## 7.7 Arrays as Function Arguments

- An entire **array** can(!) be passed to a function that has an array parameter

```
void showArray(int[], int);

int main() {
    int numbers[5] = {2, 3, 5, 7, 3};
    showArray(numbers,5);
    return 0;
}

void showArray(int values[], int size) {
    for (int i=0; i<size; i++)
        cout << values[i] << " ";
    cout << endl;
}
```

Output:

```
2 3 5 7 3
```

49

## Passing arrays to functions

- In the function definition, the parameter type is a variable name with an empty set of brackets: [ ]

- ▶ Do NOT give a size for the parameter

```
void showArray(int values[], int size) {...}
```

- In the prototype, empty brackets go after the element datatype.

```
void showArray(int[], int);
```

- In the function call, use the variable name for the array (no brackets!).

```
showArray(numbers, 5);
```

50

## Passing arrays to functions

- An array is **always** passed by **reference**.
- The parameter name is an alias to the array being passed in, even though it has no &.
- Changes made to the array (elements) inside the function **DO** affect the array in the function call.

51

## Passing arrays to functions

- Changing an array inside a function:

```
void incrArray(int[], int);
void showArray(int[], int);

int main() {
    int numbers[5] = {2, 3, 5, 7, 3};
    incrArray(numbers,5);
    showArray(numbers,5);
    return 0;
}

void incrArray(int values[], int size) {
    for (int i=0; i<size; i++)
        (values[i])++;           //values[i]=values[i]+1;
}
```

Output:

```
3 4 6 8 4
```

52

## Passing arrays to functions

- Usually functions that have an array parameter also have an int parameter for the count of the number of elements in the array.
  - so the function knows how many elements to process.
- The count parameter is just a regular int parameter and must be included in the parameter list and a corresponding argument value must appear in the function call.