

SNS COLLEGE OF TECHNOLOGY

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DEPARTMENT OF INFORMATION TECHNOLOGY

PROGRAMMING FOR PROBLEM SOLVING I YEAR - I SEM

UNIT 4 - FUNCTIONS AND POINTERS

TOPIC 1 – Definition of Function

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INTRODUCTION

The strengths of C language is C functions.

- > They are easy to define and use.
- \succ We have used functions in every program that we have discussed so far. > However, they have been primarily limited to the **three** functions, namely ≻main, printf, and scanf.
- > C functions can be classified into two categories, namely, library functions and userdefined functions.
- > main is an example of user-defined functions.
- \succ printf and scanf belong to the category of library functions.
- \succ The main distinction between these two categories is that library functions are not required to be written by us.
- \blacktriangleright Whereas a user-defined function has to be developed by the user at the time of writing a program.
- > However, a user-defined function can later become a part of the C program library.
- \succ In fact, this is one of the strengths of C language.



NEED FOR USER-DEFINED FUNCTIONS

Every program must have a main function to indicate where the program has to begin its execution.

- \succ While it is possible to code any program utilizing only main function, it leads to a number of problems.
- \succ The program may become too large and complex and as a result the task of debugging, testing, and maintaining becomes difficult.
- \succ If a program is divided into **functional parts**, then each part may be independently coded and later combined into a single unit.
- \succ These independently coded programs are called **subprograms** that are much easier to understand, debug, and test.
- ≻ In C, such subprograms are referred to as **'functions'.**





NEED FOR USER-DEFINED FUNCTIONS

There are times when certain type of operations or calculations are repeated at many points throughout a program.

- \succ For instance, we might use the factorial of a number at several points in the program.
- > In such situations, we may **repeat the program statements** wherever they are needed.
- > Another approach is to design a function that can be **called and used** whenever required.
- \succ This saves both time and space.







MODULAR DIVISION



Top-down modular programming using functions

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Function С

NEED FOR USER-DEFINED FUNCTIONS

This "division" approach clearly results in a number of advantages.

- > 1. It **facilitates top-down modular** programming as shown in Fig. > In this programming style, the **high level logic** of the overall problem is **solved first** while the details of each lower-level function are addressed later.
- > 2. The length of a source program can be reduced by using functions at appropriate places.
- \geq 3. It is easy to locate and isolate a faulty function for further investigations.
- \geq 4. A function may be used by many other programs. This means that a C programmer can build on what others have already done, instead of starting all over again from scratch.



A MULTI-FUNCTION PROGRAM

A function is a self-contained block of code that performs a particular task.

- \triangleright Once a function has been designed and packed, it can be treated as a 'black box' that takes some data from the main program and returns a value.
- \blacktriangleright The inner details of operation are **invisible** to the rest of the program.
- \triangleright All that the program knows about a function is: What goes in and what comes out.
- \triangleright Every C program can be designed using a collection of these black boxes known as functions.



```
FUNCTIONS - Example
void printline(void); /* declaration */
     main()
          printline( );
          printf("This illustrates the use of C functions\n");
          printline();
void printline(void)
          int i;
          for(i=1; i<40; i++)
         printf("-");
         printf("\n");
```

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FUNCTIONS - Example

The above set of statements defines a function called printline, which could print a line of 39character Length.

- > The above program contains **two user-defined functions**:
- main() function & printline() function
- > As we know, the program execution always begins with the **main function**.
- \blacktriangleright During execution of the main, the first statement encountered is **printline()**;
- \blacktriangleright which indicates that the function printline is to be executed.
- \succ At this point, the program control is transferred to the function printline.
- > After executing the printline function, which outputs a line of 39 character length, the control is transferred **back to the main**.
- \triangleright Now, the execution continues at the point where the function call was executed.
- > After executing the printf statement, the control is again transferred to the printline function for printing the line **once more**.
- > The main function calls the user-defined printline function **two times** and the library function printf once.
- \blacktriangleright We may notice that the printline function itself calls the library function printf 39 times repeatedly. **Functions/ Prog. For Prob.Solving / Anand Kumar. N/IT/SNSCT**







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MODULAR PROGRAMMING

- \ge Any function can call any other function.
- \succ In fact, it can call itself.
- > A 'called function' can also call another function.
- \triangleright A function can be called more than once.
- \succ In fact, this is one of the main features of using functions.
- \succ Figure illustrates the flow of control in a multi-function program.
- \triangleright Except the starting point, there are no other predetermined relationships, rules of precedence, or hierarchies among the functions that make up a complete program.
- \succ The functions can be placed in any order.
- > A called function can be placed either before or after the calling function.
- \succ However, it is the usual practice to put all the called functions at the end.



MODULAR PROGRAMMING

- Modular programming is a strategy applied to the design and development of software systems.
- \succ It is defined as organizing a large program into small, independent program segments called **modules** that are separately named and individually callable program units.
- > These modules are carefully integrated to become a software system that satisfies the system requirements.
- > It is basically a "divide-and-conquer" approach to problem solving. > Modules are identified and designed such that they can be organized into a topdown hierarchical structure (similar to an organization chart). \succ In C, each module refers to a function that is responsible for a single task.



CHARACTERISTICS OF MODULAR PROGRAMMING

- \ge 1. Each module should do only one thing.
- \geq 2. Communication between modules is allowed only by a calling module.
- \geq 3. A module can be called by one and only one higher module.
- \geq 4. No communication can take place directly between modules that do not have calling – called relationship.
- > 5. All modules are designed as single-entry, single-exit systems using control structures.



ELEMENTS OF USER-DEFINED FUNCTIONS

- We have discussed and used a variety of data types and variables in our programs so far.
- > However, declaration and use of these variables were primarily done inside the main function.
- \succ As mentioned, functions are classified as one of the **derived data types in C**.
- \blacktriangleright We can therefore define functions and use them like any other variables in C programs.
- \succ It is therefore not a surprise to note that there exist some similarities between functions and variables in C. They are
- \triangleright Both function names and variable names are considered identifiers and therefore, they must adhere to the rules for identifiers.
- \triangleright Like variables, functions have types (such as int) associated with them.
- \succ Like variables, function names and their types must be declared and defined before they are used in a program



ELEMENTS OF USER-DEFINED FUNCTIONS

In order to make use of a user-defined function, we need to establish three elements that are related to functions.

- ➤ 1. Function definition.
- ➤ 2. Function call.
- **≻** 3. Function declaration.
- > The **function definition** is an independent program module that is specially written to implement the requirements of the function.
- \succ In order to use this function we need to invoke it at a required place in the program.
- \succ This is known as the **function call**.
- \succ The program (or a function) that calls the function is referred to as the **calling** program or calling function.
- > The calling program should declare any function (like declaration of a variable) that is to be used later in the program.
- > This is known as the **function declaration or function prototype**.





- \geq 1. function name;
- \geq 2. function type;
- ▶3. list of parameters;
- \geq 4. local variable declarations;
- \geq 5. function statements; and
- \geq 6. a return statement.
- \succ All the six elements are grouped into **two parts**, namely, ➢ function header (First three elements); and \succ function body (Second three elements).

A general format of a function definition to implement these two parts is given below:

```
function_type function_name(parameter list)
```

```
local variable declaration;
executable statement1;
executable statement2;
```

```
. . . . .
 . . . . .
return statement;
```

The first line function_type function_name(parameter list) is known as the **function header** \bullet and the statements within the opening and closing braces constitute the **function body**, which is a compound statement.





Function Header

- > The function header consists of **three** parts:
 - \succ the function type (also known as return type)
 - ≻ the function name
 - ≻ the formal parameter list.
- \blacktriangleright Note that a semicolon is not used at the end of the function header.

> Name and Type

- \blacktriangleright The **function type** specifies the type of value (like float or double) that the function is expected to return to the program calling the function.
- \succ If the return type is not explicitly specified, C will assume that it is an integer type.
- \succ If the function is not returning anything, then we need to specify the return type as void.
- \succ The value returned is the output produced by the function.
- > The **function name** is any valid C identifier and therefore must follow the same rules of formation as other variable names in C.
- \succ The name should be **appropriate** to the task performed by the function.



Formal Parameter List

- \succ The parameter list declares the variables that will receive the data sent by the calling program. \succ They serve as input data to the function to carry out the specified task.
- \succ Since they represent the actual input values, they are often referred to as formal parameters. > These parameters can also be used to send values to the calling programs.
- > The parameters are also known as **arguments**.
- \succ The parameter list contains declaration of variables separated by commas and surrounded by parentheses.
- ► Examples:
 - \blacktriangleright float quadratic (int a, int b, int c) {...}
 - \succ double power (double x, int n) {...}
 - \succ float mul (float x, float y) {...}
 - \succ int sum (int a, int b) {...}
- \triangleright Remember, there is no semicolon after the closing parenthesis.



Note that the declaration of parameter variables cannot be combined. That is, int sum (int a,b) is illegal.

- \triangleright A function need not always receive values from the calling program.
- \succ In such cases, functions have no formal parameters.
- \succ To indicate that the parameter list is empty, we use the keyword void between the parentheses as in **void printline (void)**

void printline (void)

 \succ This function neither receives any input values nor returns back any value. \triangleright Many compilers accept an empty set of parentheses, without specifying anything



Function Body

- > The function body contains the **declarations** and statements necessary for performing the required task.
- \succ The body enclosed in braces, contains **three parts**, in the order given below: \geq 1. Local declarations that specify the variables needed by the function. \geq 2. Function statements that perform the task of the function. \geq 3. A return statement that returns the value evaluated by the function. \succ If a function does not return any value (like the printline function), we can omit the return

- statement.
- \blacktriangleright However, note that its return type should be specified as void. \blacktriangleright Again, it is nice to have a return statement even for void functions.
- \succ Some examples of typical function definitions are:





FUNCTION DEFINITION - Example

```
float mul (float x, float y)
      float result; /* local variable */
     result = x * y; /* computes the product */
     return (result); /* returns the result */
     void sum (int a, int b)
(b)
     printf ("sum = \%s", a + b);
                                  /* no local variables */
                                       /* optional */
     return;
     void display (void)
(c)
     /* no local variables */
     printf ("No type, no parameters");
     /* no return statement */
```



RETURN VALUES AND THEIR TYPES

As pointed out earlier, a function may or may not send back any value to the calling function. \succ If it does, it is done through the **return** statement.

- > While it is possible to pass to the called function any number of values, the called function can only return one value per call, at the most.
- \succ The return statement can take one of the following forms: return;

or

return(expression);

- > The first, the 'plain' return does not return any value; it acts much as the closing brace of the function.
- \blacktriangleright When a return is encountered, the control is immediately passed back to the **calling function**.
- \blacktriangleright An example of the use of a simple return is as follows: if(error) return;





RETURN VALUES AND THEIR TYPES

The second form of return with an expression returns the value of the expression. \succ For example, the function int mul (int x, int y) int p; $p = x^*y;$ return(p);

 \succ returns the value of p which is the product of the values of x and y.

- \succ The last two statements can be combined into one statement as follows: \succ return (x*y);
- > A function may have more than one return statements



RETURN VALUES AND THEIR TYPES

The above situation arises when the value returned is based on certain conditions. \blacktriangleright For example:

if(x <= 0) return(0); else

return(1);

- \blacktriangleright What type of data does a function return? All functions by default return int type data.
- \blacktriangleright But what happens if a function must return some other type? We can force a function to return a particular type of data by using a type specifier in the function header as discussed earlier.
- \blacktriangleright When a value is returned, it is automatically cast to the function's type.
- \succ In functions that do computations using doubles, yet return ints, the returned value will be truncated to an integer.
- \succ For instance, the function will return the value 7, only the integer part of the result. int product (void) return (2.5 * 3.0);

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