User-defined Functions

Larry Caretto Computer Science 106

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Outline

- · Writing and calling a function
 - Header and body
 - Function prototype
 - Passing information to a function
 - Returning values in the function name
- · voi d functions with no return value
- Use pass-by-reference to change variables in the calling program
- · Variable scope and global variables

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Introduction to Functions

- Library functions like pow, atan and sqrt used previously
- Statement to set $x = yz^3$:
 - -x = y * pow(z, 3);
 - Note order of arguments important; the call pow(3, z) gives 3^z
 - Use #include <cmath> for this function
- You can write your own functions
 - Why do we write functions?
 - How do we write code for functions?

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Why do we write functions?

- First use of functions was for code like mathematical function calculations
 - Specialized calculation done repeatedly
 - Want to write code only one time
 - Want to be able to pass values of parameters to code and get value back
- As programs got more complex, breaking code into functions provided a way to organize complex code

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How do we write functions?

- C++ code is a collection of functions
- Each function, including main, has the same level of importance
 - Close code for each function before starting a new function

```
int main()
{     // body of main
}
int myFunction( ..... )
{     // body of myFunction
}
```

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Operation of Functions

- Any function (the caller) can call another function by using the name of the function being called in an expression
- The statement calling the function sends information from the caller
- Execution control is transferred to the function being called
- The function being called returns control and (usually) results to the caller

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Operation of Functions

- The function being called uses the information it receives to do a set of calculations or procedures
- In the usual case, the function being called returns a result to the caller in the location of the function name
- Example: d = pow(b,2) 4 * a * c;
 - calls the pow function with values of b and 2
 - and the result b² is returned in function name, pow, for further use in an expression

name, pow, for further use in an expression Northridge

Writing and Using Functions

- Organize the program into individual functions that are called by main
 - Simple example: main calls three functions: (1) input function, (2) calculation function and (3) output function
- Write code for each function (and main)
 - Write function header to specify information received from calling function
 - Write function body to calculate results and return them to "calling" function
- · Write function calls to exchange data

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Writing and Using Functions II

- Library functions, such as pow(x, y) to compute x^y, transfer information based on the order of the variables
- This is true for user-defined functions as well
 - Information transferred from a list of variables in the calling function to a list of variables in the function called
 - Correspondence based on order of variables in function header and statement calling the function

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Function Basics

- Each function has a header and a body
 - Header specifies
 - Name of function
 - Type of value returned by the function name
 - List of variables in the function whose values are determined by the calling program
 - Body gives code executed by the function
- Function prototypes at start of code provide information to compiler
 - Same as header except a semicolon is added at the end
- Can omit variable names

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Function Basics II

• Example of header and body

```
double myPow ( double number,
  double power ) // header
{
    // Body,in braces contains
    // actual code for function
}
```

 Header defines information that will be received from calling function

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Function Header

- Header has following syntax:
 - <type> <name> (<argument list>)
 - <type> specifies the type of value returned by the function
 - <name> is the name you choose for your function; this name is used to call the function from another function
 - <argument list> specifies type and names of variables in function whose values come from the calling program
 - There is no semicolon in the function header

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Function Header II

- · Example of function, myPow, a userdefined function to replace pow
 - Pass the number and the power to the function as type double
 - Return the result as type double
 - General header syntax from previous chart <type> <name> (<argument list>) double myPow (<u>double number, </u> double power)

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Argument List

- · Example on previous chart had two parameters in argument list
 - <type> <name> (<argument list>;) -double myPow (double number) (double power;)
- Function will use number and power as type double variables
- Values for these variables set by other function that calls (uses) myPow

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Passing arguments

- Based on order of arguments in function header and in calling statement
- · Recall the library pow function was called as pow(number, power)
 - pow(3,4) = 3^4 but pow(4,3) = 4^3
 - What is result of following code double number = 3, power = 4;
 - cout << pow(power, number)</pre>

Result is 43; only the order counts!

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• <val ue> may be a constant, a variable or an expression

return EXIT_SUCCESS;

return <val ue>;

 This is value returned to calling program in function name

• The general syntax of this statement is

The return Statement · We have used this statement in main as

return always transfers control

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Organization of Function Code

```
double myPow( double number,
              double power )
{
    double result = exp( power *
                     log( number ) );
    return result;
}
```

 Place following prototype at top of code double myPow(double number, double power);

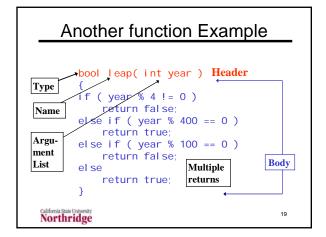
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Alternative Function Code

```
double myPow( double number,
              double power )
    return = exp( power *
                    log( number ) );
```

 Can use following prototype without variable names at top of code double myPow(double, double);

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Use of bool leap(int year)

```
bool leap ( int year ); // prototype
int main() // examples of use
{  cout << "Enter a year: ";
  int y;  cin >> y;
  bool cond = leap( y );
  if ( leap( y ) ) {...}
  if ( leap( y ) && month == 2 ) {...}
  return EXIT_SUCCESS
}
// leap and other functions go here
```

Exercise

- Write a function that takes two type int arguments and returns their difference
- Use this function to compute 3 − 5
- Write the prototype
 int diff(int a, int b)
 { return a b }
 //use: cout << diff(3, 5);
 // prototype:int diff(int a, int b);</pre>

Exercise

- Write a function that takes two type double arguments and returns their quotient
- Use this function to compute 5/3
- Write the prototype
 double div(double a, double b)
 { return a / b }
 //use: cout << div(5, 3);
 // prototype: double div(double a, double b);
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The return Statement

 Functions, other than void functions use the syntax return <val ue> to return a value to the calling function in the function

Void functions may have a simple return

statement without a value to return control

to the calling program at some point before

• The return statement returns control

and a value to the calling program

voi d functions with no return

- The type void used for functions that do not return a value
- Example: error message function
 void printError(int code)
 {
 if (code == 1)
 cout << "Type one error\n";
 el se if (code == 2)
 cout << "Error two is ...
 el se if // additional code
 } // no return needed here</pre>

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the end of the function
 Functions may have more than one return statement

return transfers control immediately

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name

Empty Argument List

- If a function does not need any values from the calling program an empty set of parentheses is required
- · Example is function with several output statements to describe purpose of code voi d descri beCode() { cout << "This code
 cout << "Still more output</pre>

// No return needed for type void

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Kinetic Energy Function

· Write a function that takes two type double parameters, mass and velocity and computes kinetic energy = $mV^2/2$ double KE(double m, double V) return m * V * V / 2;

 Possible calls to this function total E = KE(4, 3) + PE;

 What is result of this call result = 50 + KE(5, 2);

 $50 + 5 * 2^2 / 2 = 60$

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Kinetic Energy Function II

```
double KE( double m, double V )
      return m * V * V / 2;
· What is output from these calls?
double mass = 5, velocity = 2; 10
cout << KE( velocity, mass );
double e = PE + KE( 2*pow( velocity,
2), velocity);
double total = KE( mass * velocity,
                                        mass);
e = KE(2^2,2) = KE(8,2) = 8^2/2 = 16
Northridge total = KE(5*2,5) = KE(10,5)=10*5^2/2 = 125^{27}
```

Data Validation Function

- The function getValidInt(int xMin, int xMax, string name) does the following tasks
 - Prompts the user for an input variable (named in the string passed in the third parameter) within a range defined by the first and second parameters
 - Gets the input from the user
 - Tells the user if there is an error and gets new input from the user in this case
 - Returns valid input to the calling function

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Data Validation Function II

- The function getVal i dInt described on the previous chart is used in exercise seven and project one
- Examples of its use

```
int month = getValidInt( 1, 12,
 "month");
int mayDay = getValidInt( 1, 31, "day
 of the month" );
```

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```
int getValidInt( int xMin, int xMax,
                 string name )
{
     // Function used to input integer
     // data within a stated range
     // Example function call to input a
     // value for a variable named
     // hour with range between 0 and 23:
     //
         int hour =
            getValidInt( 0, 23, "hour" );
     //
                   // Input data value
    bool badData; // Bad data flag
 // continued on next chart
```

getVal i dl nt Screen Results

```
• Call to getValidInt
int mayDay = getValidInt( 1, 31, "day
of the month");
```

 Screen prompt showing parameters and user input

```
Enter a value for day of the month between 1 and 31: 0

Incorrect data; you entered day of the month = 0. day of the month must be between 1 and 31. Reenter the data now.

Enter a value for day of the month between 1 and 31: 1
```

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Program Structure Example

- Next chart: example for getVal i dInt
- Function prototype before program that uses function
- In this example main calls function
- Complete code for main is written start of code for function
- A call to the function transfers control to function with values in the function header variables from the caller
- Function returns value to main

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```
int getValidInt( int, int, string);
        // prototype above
int main()
   int month = getValidInt( 1, 12,
                 "month" );
   ......// other code
   return EXIT_SUCCESS
int getValidInt( int xMin, int xMax,
                string name )
{
   int x;
    .....// other code
   cin >> x;
    .....// other code
   return x;
}
```

Passing Information to Functions

- Parameters in function header: formal parameters or dummy parameters (also called formal or dummy arguments)
- Values sent to function by calling program: actual parameters or actual arguments
- Pass by value is default process: when a function is called a copy of the value of the argument is passed to the function

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More on Information to Functions

- In pass-by-value, the values of the actual arguments in the calling program are not changed
- The alternative to pass by value is pass by reference
 - The memory address of the actual parameter is passed to the function
 - Changes to the dummy parameter in the function change the actual parameter in the calling program

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Pass-by-Value Example

Pass-by-value Operation

- The code on the previous chart does not change the x and y values in the calling program
- Only values of x and y from the calling program are passed to the function
- Functions cannot changed values of variables that are passed by value
- How do we use pass by reference to change the values of parameters passed into a function?

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Pass-by-reference

- To use pass by reference place an ampersand (&) between the type and the parameter name in the function header: int f1(int& x, int& y)
 - Not a preferred programming style
 - Used only when we have to change more than one parameter (e.g., input routine, vector components, etc.)
 - Exercise seven uses an input function which must have pass by reference

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Pass-by-reference II

 Default is pass-by-value where changes to parameters do not affect variables in the calling program

```
double fake1 ( int x, double y ) \{ x++; y+=x; return x * y; \}
```

 Ampersand (&) gives pass by reference that changes program variables

```
double fake2 ( int x, double y) { x++; y+=x; return x * y; }
```

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Pass-by-Value Example

Pass-by-Reference Example

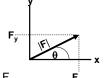
```
//calling program segment
double u = 3, v = 4;
cout << "fake = " fake( u, v );
cout << "\nu =" << u << ", v =" << v;
     // what is printed?
                               fake = 156
//function
                               u = 13, v = 52
double fake(double \& x, double \& y)
    x +=10; y *= x; return 3 * y;
          x = 3 + y = 13 *
                           fake( u, v ) =
         10 = 13 4 = 52
                           3 * 52 = 156
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```

Pass-by-Reference Example II

```
double u = 3, v = 4;
cout << "fake = " fake( u, v );
cout << "\nu =" << u << ", v =" << v;
double fake( double \& x, double \& y)
\{ x +=10; y *= x; return 3 * y; \}
// at start fake has x = 3, y = 4
// fake code sets x = x + 10 = 13
// and y = y * x = 4 * 13 = 52
// fake returns 3 \star 52 = 156 and
// changes u to 13 and v to 52
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```

Example: Converting Vectors

 Convert different representations of twodimensional vectors



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- Polar: magnitude, |F| and direction, θ
- Rectangular: components, F_x, and F_v, along the x and y axes
- Conversion equations
 - $-|\mathbf{F}| = (F_x^2 + F_y^2)^{1/2}, \ \theta = \tan^{-1}(F_y / F_x)$ $-F_{x} = |\mathbf{F}|\cos\theta$, $F_{y} = |\mathbf{F}|\sin\theta$,

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Converting Vectors II

- Write two functions to convert between the two different representations
 - Polar to rectangular function has magnitude and direction as inputs and returns x-component and y-component
 - Rectangular to polar function has xcomponent and y-component as inputs and returns magnitude and direction
 - Use atan2 function for $\theta = \tan^{-1}(F_v / F_x)$ to get full 2π result $(-\pi/2 < atan result < \pi/2)$

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Converting Vectors III

- Each function has two input values and computes two results
- · Use pass by reference to get results back to calling program
- · Inputs to function are pass by value
- Function type can be void since function name need not return a value
 - Functions using pass by reference to return values sometimes return an error code in the function name

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Converting Vectors IV

```
void polarToRectangular (
    double magnitude, double angle,
    double& xComponent,
    double& yComponent )
   xComponent = magnitude
                 * cos( angle );
   yComponent = magni tude
                 * sin( angle );
}
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```

Converting Vectors V

Use of Conversion Functions

Pass-by-Reference Exercise

 Write an input function that prompts the user to enter two type double variables, x and y, and returns these values to the calling program

```
void input( double& x, double& y)
{
    cout << "Enter x and y: ";
    cin >> x >> y;
}
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```

Pass-by-Reference Exercise

```
voi d i nput( doubl e& x, doubl e& y)
{
    cout << "Enter x and y: ";
    ci n >> x >> y
}
• Write the prototype for this function and a
    call to the function to get x and y
voi d i nput( doubl e& x, doubl e& y);
doubl e x, y;
```

Optional

Use of Pass by Reference

- Calling programs use same approach for pass by reference and pass by value
- Variable or expression is placed as one of the arguments to the function
- Do not use a constant in a function call unless it is passed by value
- Data types (and ampersands for pass by reference) are not used in function call

```
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```

Scope of a Variable

- Scope of a variable is the part of program that can use the variable
- We see that we can have the same variable name in different functions
- These names, although the same, occupy two different memory locations in the computer and are not related
- Even within a single function we can limit the part of a function in which a variable is in scope (exists)

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input (x, y);

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Background

- All variables must be declared (given a type) before they are used
- Variables can be declared given a value when declared or later in the code
- Usually assign a value before first use
- Scope refers only to declaring a variable, not to assigning it a value
 - This is just a reminder that we have to initialize variables as well as declare them

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Basic Rule for Scope

- A variable defined in a set of braces only exists within those braces
- It can be used anywhere in the program below its initial declaration
 - This includes sets of braces that are opened below the initial declaration
- After close of brace where variable is declared, the variables "goes out of scope" it cannot be used

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Example of Scope

```
double x:
if(c == 4)
   x = 12;
    double y = 2; // limited scope
cout << x << " " << y;
// statement above will give syntax
// error; y is not defined here
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```

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Another example of Scope

```
double y = 0, c = 4;
if(c == 4)
   double y = 2; // different var-
       // iable with limited scope
}
cout << "y = " << y;
// statement above will print y = 0
// from initial declaration of y
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```

Where to Declare Variables

- Current programming practice declares variables as close to first time of use as possible
- May have to be declared earlier in the code to give appropriate scope
 - First use of variable may be inside a loop
 - We must declare it prior to the loop if we want to use if following the loop

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Another Example

• Code below will not work because yesNo goes out of scope after closing brace do

```
// program code
   cout << "Another run(Y/N)? ";</pre>
   char yesNo; // bad location
   cin >> yesNo;
while( yesNo == 'Y' \mid \mid yesNo == 'y' );
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```

Another Example Corrected

 Code below works because yesNo is declared before brace opening the loop

Global Variables

- Global variables have scope of more than one function
 - Declared outside function boundaries
 - Have scope of all functions from declaration to end of file
 - Usually declared at top of program to be present in all functions
 - Considered bad programming practice
 - Use only when variable must be accessed by several functions or there are problems in passing the variable

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Trace Global Variables

```
• What is program output?
int status = 0;  // global
int main() {
   cout << status << " ";
   f1();   f2();
   cout << " " << status // more
}</pre>
```

voi d f2() {cout << status << endl;}</pre>
• Program output is 0 1 1

void f1() { status = 1; }

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Project Two Global Variables

- In project two the main function calls a function which calls a third function
- We want to get data from main to the third function
- We do not want to rewrite the second function, but it does not allow us to pass the necessary information
- Use global variables to get the information from main to third function

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Summary

- Use functions to organize code
- Elements of a function
 - Header with type, name, and argument list
 - Body with code that function executes
 - Statement to return information through function name in calling program must be included in function body
 - Prototype at start of program which is header with a semicolon
- Function name calls function and returns value

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Summary Continued

- Pass information to function through argument list in function header
 - Correspondence by position of arguments in header and position of arguments in calling function
 - Default of pass by value will not change arguments in calling function
 - Pass by reference (requires ampersand(&) in function header and prototype) changes arguments in calling function

Summary Concluded

- Scope of variables is part of program where a variable can be used
- Variables can only be used within braces where there are declared and only following the declaration
- Global variables, declared outside any function, can be used by any function following the declaration

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Review Function Introduction

- A C++ program is a collection of functions
 - Each function is written as a unit
 - Complete code for one function before starting to write a new one
 - Execution starts in main function
- Upon calls to a function, information and control is transferred to the function
- · Value returned in function name

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Information Transfer

- · Function header has argument list
- Variables in that list (called dummy parameters or dummy arguments) are determined by call to function
- Call to function has actual arguments or actual parameters in same order that dummy arguments appear
 - Order is all that matters in transferring information to a function

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