



ΕΛΛΗΝΙΚΗ ΔΗΜΟΚΡΑΤΙΑ
ΠΑΝΕΠΙΣΤΗΜΙΟ ΚΡΗΤΗΣ

Εισαγωγή στον Προγραμματισμό Introduction to Programming

Διάλεξη 7: Συναρτήσεις

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Ευρωπαϊκή Ένωση
Ευρωπαϊκό Κοινωνικό Ταμείο



ΕΠΙΧΕΙΡΗΣΙΑΚΟ ΠΡΟΓΡΑΜΜΑ
ΕΚΠΑΙΔΕΥΣΗ ΚΑΙ ΔΙΑ ΒΙΟΥ ΜΑΘΗΣΗ
επένδυση στην κοινωνία της γνώσης

ΥΠΟΥΡΓΕΙΟ ΠΑΙΔΕΙΑΣ & ΘΡΗΣΚΕΥΜΑΤΩΝ, ΠΟΛΙΤΙΣΜΟΥ & ΑΘΛΗΤΙΣΜΟΥ
ΕΙΔΙΚΗ ΥΠΗΡΕΣΙΑ ΔΙΑΧΕΙΡΙΣΗΣ

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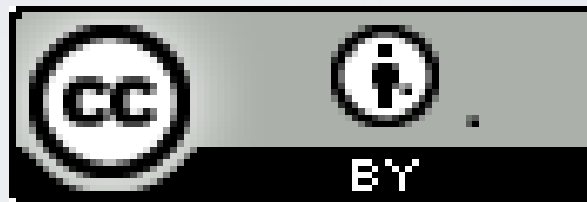


ΕΥΡΩΠΑΪΚΟ ΚΟΙΝΩΝΙΚΟ ΤΑΜΕΙΟ

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HY-150 Προγραμματισμός

CS-150 Programming

Lecture 7:

Technicalities: Functions etc.

G. Papagiannakis



Abstract

- This lecture and the following present some **technical details** of the language to give a slightly broader view of C++'s basic facilities and to provide a more systematic view of those facilities. This also acts as a **review** of many of the notions presented so far, such as **types**, **functions**, and **initialization**, and provides an opportunity to explore our tool without adding new programming techniques or concepts.

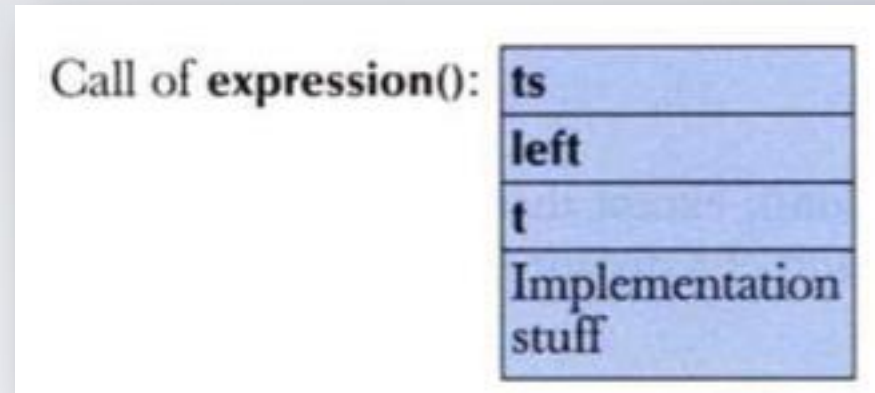
Latest standard version: C++11

- *...I like the way move semantics will simplify the way we return large data structures from functions and improve the performance of standard-library types, such as string and vector...*
- *For example, you wouldn't write a JavaScript engine in JavaScript, and you probably wouldn't write a "first to market" simple Web app in C++. You would write the foundations of a Google, an Amazon, a Facebook, or an Amadeus (airline ticketing) in C++, but maybe not the rapidly changing top layers of such systems. C++ comes in strong where power consumption is an issue -- for example, server farms and handheld devices....*

[<http://www.infoworld.com/d/application-development/stroustrup-reveals-whats-new-in-c-11-187051?page=0,0>]

Overview

- Language Technicalities
- Declarations
 - Definitions
 - Headers and the preprocessor
 - Scope
- Functions
 - Declarations and definitions
 - Arguments
- Call by value, reference, and **const** reference
- Namespaces
 - “Using” statements
- Recursive functions



Language technicalities

- Are a necessary evil
 - A programming language is a foreign language
 - When learning a foreign language, you have to look at the grammar and vocabulary
 - We will do this in this chapter and the next
- Because:
 - Programs must be precisely and completely specified
 - A computer is a very stupid (though very fast) machine
 - A computer can't guess what you "really meant to say" (and shouldn't try to)
 - So we must know the rules
 - Some of them (the C++ standard is 782 pages)
- However, never forget that
 - What we study is programming
 - Our output is programs/systems
 - A programming language is only a tool

Technicalities

- Don't spend your time on minor syntax and semantic issues. There is more than one way to say everything
 - Just like in English
- Most design and programming concepts are universal, or at least very widely supported by popular programming languages
 - So what you learn using C++ you can use with many other languages
- Language technicalities are specific to a given language
 - But many of the technicalities from C++ presented here have obvious counterparts in C, Java, C#, etc.
 - Too many get the mistaken belief that the way things are done in their first programming language is "the one true way."

Declarations

- A declaration introduces a name into a scope.
 - A *scope* is a region of program text.
- A declaration also specifies a type for the named object.
- Sometimes a declaration includes an initializer.
- A name must be declared before it can be used in a C++ program.
- Examples:
 - `int a = 7;` *// an int variable named 'a' is declared*
 - `const double cd = 8.7;` *// a double-precision floating-point constant*
 - `double sqrt(double);` *// a function taking a double argument and
// returning a double result*
 - `vector<Token> v;` *// a vector variable of **Tokens** (variable)*

Declarations

- Declarations are frequently introduced into a program through “headers”
 - A header is a file containing declarations providing an interface to other parts of a program
- This allows for abstraction – you don’t have to know the details of a function like `cout` in order to use it. When you add

```
#include ".././std_lib_facilities.h"
```

to your code, the declarations in the file `std_lib_facilities.h` become available (including `cout` etc.).

Definitions

A declaration that (also) fully specifies the entity declared is called a definition

- Examples

```
int a = 7;
```

```
int b; // an int with the default value (0)
```

```
vector<double> v; // an empty vector of doubles
```

```
double sqrt(double) { ... }; // i.e. a function with a body
```

```
struct Point { int x; int y; };
```

- Examples of declarations that are not definitions

```
double sqrt(double); // function body missing
```

```
struct Point; // class members specified elsewhere
```

```
extern int a; // extern means "not definition"
```

```
// "extern" is archaic; we will hardly use it
```

Declarations and definitions

- You can't *define* something twice
 - A definition says what something is
 - Examples

```
int a;           // definition
```

```
int a;           // error: double definition
```

```
double sqrt(double d) { ... } // definition
```

```
double sqrt(double d) { ... } // error: double definition
```

- You can *declare* something twice

- A declaration says how something can be used

```
int a = 7;           // definition (also a declaration)
```

```
extern int a;           // declaration
```

```
double sqrt(double);           // declaration
```

```
double sqrt(double d) { ... } // definition (also a declaration)
```

Why both declarations and definitions?

- To refer to something, we need (only) its declaration
- Often we want the definition “elsewhere”
 - Later in a file
 - In another file
 - preferably written by someone else
- Declarations are used to specify interfaces
 - To your own code
 - To libraries
 - Libraries are key: we can't write all ourselves, and wouldn't want to
- In larger programs
 - Place all declarations in header files to ease sharing

Header Files and the Preprocessor

- A header is a file that holds declarations of functions, types, constants, and other program components.

- The construct

```
#include ".././std_lib_facilities.h"
```

is a “preprocessor directive” that adds declarations to your program

- Typically, the header file is simply a text (source code) file
- A header gives you access to functions, types, etc. that you want to use in your programs.
 - Usually, you don't really care about how they are written.
 - The actual functions, types, etc. are defined in other source code files
 - Often as part of libraries

Source files

token.h:

```
// declarations:  
class Token { ... };  
class Token_stream {  
    Token get();  
    ...  
};  
...
```

token.cpp:

```
#include "token.h"  
//definitions:  
Token Token_stream::get()  
{ /* ... */  
...  
}
```

use.cpp:

```
#include "token.h"  
...  
Token t = ts.get();  
...
```

- A header file (here, **token.h**) defines an interface between user code and implementation code (usually in a library)
- The same **#include** declarations in both **.cpp** files (definitions and uses) ease consistency checking

Scope

- A scope is a region of program text
 - Examples
 - **Global** scope (outside any language construct)
 - **Class** scope (within a class)
 - **Local** scope (between { ... } braces)
 - **Statement** scope (e.g. in a for-statement)
- A name in a scope can be seen from within its scope and within scopes nested within that scope
 - After the declaration of the name (“can't look ahead” rule)
- A scope keeps “things” local
 - Prevents my variables, functions, etc., from interfering with yours
 - Remember: real programs have **many** thousands of entities
 - Locality is good!
 - Keep names as local as possible

Scope

```
#include "std_lib_facilities.h" // get max and abs from here
// no r, i, or v here
class My_vector {
    vector<int> v; // v is in class scope
public:
    int largest() // largest is in class scope
    {
        int r = 0; // r is local
        for (int i = 0; i<v.size(); ++i) // i is in statement scope
            r = max(r,abs(v[i]));
        // no i here
        return r;
    }
    // no r here
};//end of class
// no v here
```

Scopes nest

```
int x;    // global variable – avoid those where you can  
int y;    // another global variable
```

```
int f()  
{  
    int x;          // local variable (Note – now there are two x's)  
    x = 7;         // local x, not the global x  
    {  
        int x = y; // another local x, initialized by the global y  
        // (Now there are three x's)  
        ++x;       // increment the local x in this scope  
    }  
}
```

// avoid such complicated nesting and hiding: keep it simple!

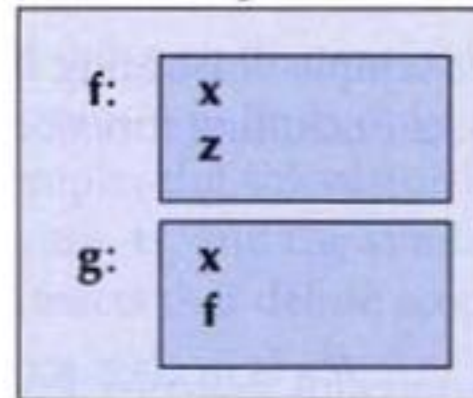
Global/local scope

```
void f(int x)      // f is global; x is local to f
{
    int z = x+7; // z is local
}

int g(int x)      // g is global; x is local to g
{
    int f = x+2; // f is local
    return 2*f;
}
```

Or graphically:

Global scope:



Functions

- General form:

- `return_type name (formal arguments);` *// a declaration*

- `return_type name (formal arguments) body` *// a definition*

- For example

```
double f(int a, double d) { return a*d; }
```

- Formal arguments are often called parameters

- If you don't want to return a value give **void** as the return type

```
void increase_power(int level);
```

- Here, **void** means “don't return a value”

- A body is a block or a try block

- For example

```
{ /* code */ } // a block
```

```
try { /* code */ } catch(exception& e) { /* code */ } // a try block
```

- Functions represent/implement computations/calculations

Functions: Call by Value

// call-by-value (send the function a copy of the argument's value)

```
int f(int a) { a = a+1; return a; }
```

```
int main()
```

```
{
```

```
int xx = 0;
```

```
cout << f(xx) << endl; // writes 1
```

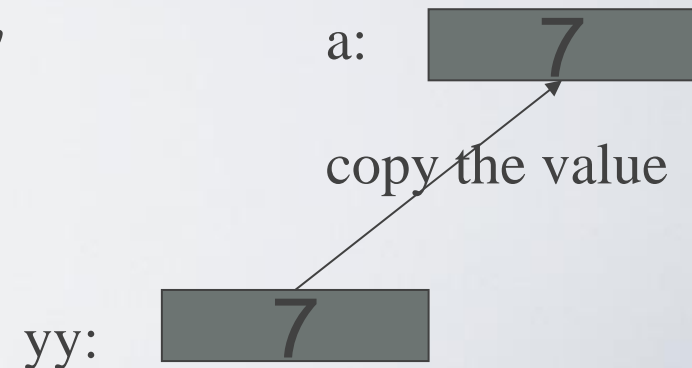
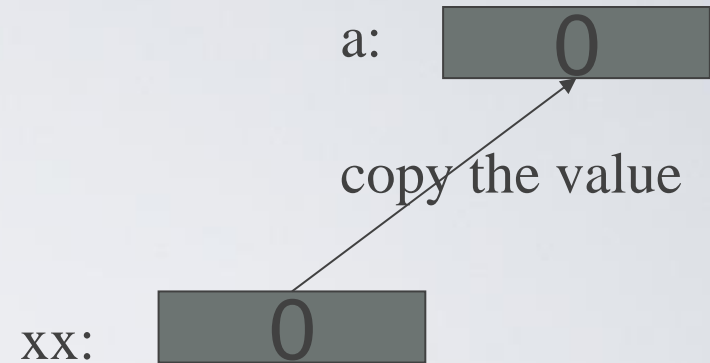
```
cout << xx << endl; // writes 0; f() doesn't change xx
```

```
int yy = 7;
```

```
cout << f(yy) << endl; // writes 8; f() doesn't change yy
```

```
cout << yy << endl; // writes 7
```

```
}
```



Functions: Call by Reference

// call-by-reference (pass a reference to the argument)

```
int f(int& a) { a = a+1; return a; }
```

```
int main()
```

```
{
```

```
int xx = 0;
```

```
cout << f(xx) << endl; // writes 1  
// f() changed the value of xx
```

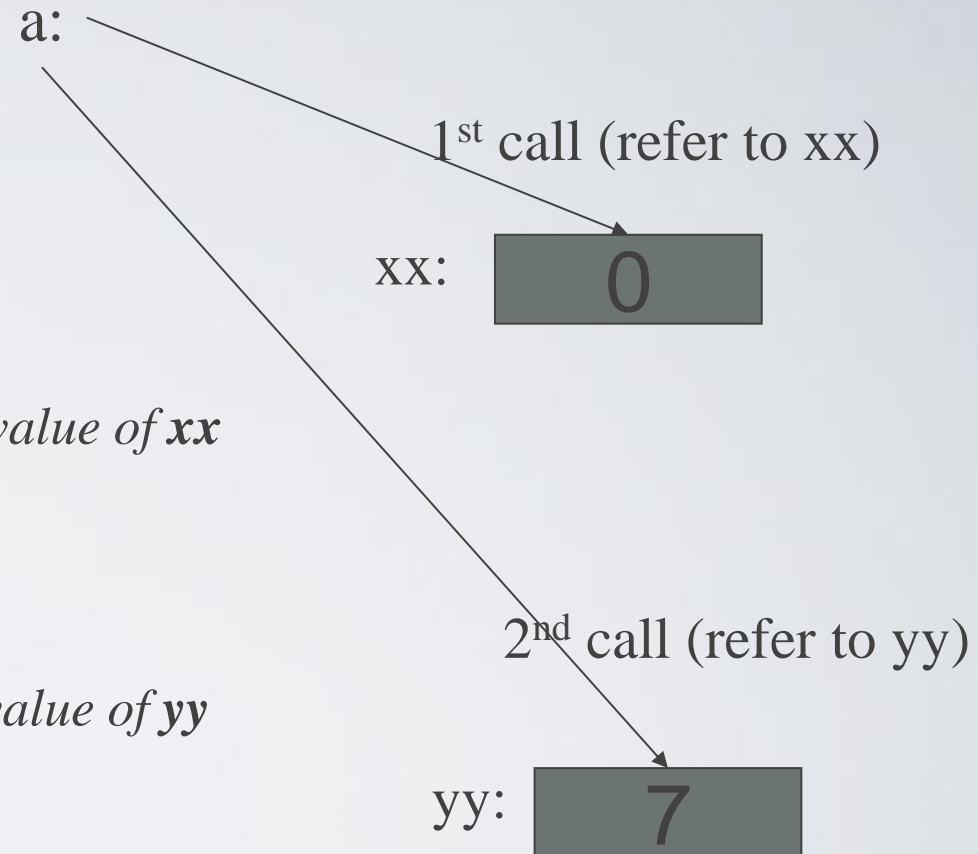
```
cout << xx << endl; // writes 1
```

```
int yy = 7;
```

```
cout << f(yy) << endl; // writes 8  
// f() changes the value of yy
```

```
cout << yy << endl; // writes 8
```

```
}
```



Functions

- Avoid (non-const) reference arguments when you can
 - They can lead to obscure bugs when you forget which arguments can be changed

```
int incr1(int a) { return a+1; }
```

```
void incr2(int& a) { ++a; }
```

```
int x = 7;
```

```
x = incr1(x);      // pretty obvious
```

```
incr2(x); // pretty obscure
```

- So why have reference arguments?
 - Occasionally, they are essential
 - *E.g.*, for changing several values
 - For manipulating containers (*e.g.*, vector)
 - **const** reference arguments are very often useful

Call by value/by reference/ by const-reference

```
void f(int a, int& r, const int& cr) { ++a; ++r; ++cr; } // error: cr is const
```

```
void g(int a, int& r, const int& cr) { ++a; ++r; int x = cr; ++x; } // ok
```

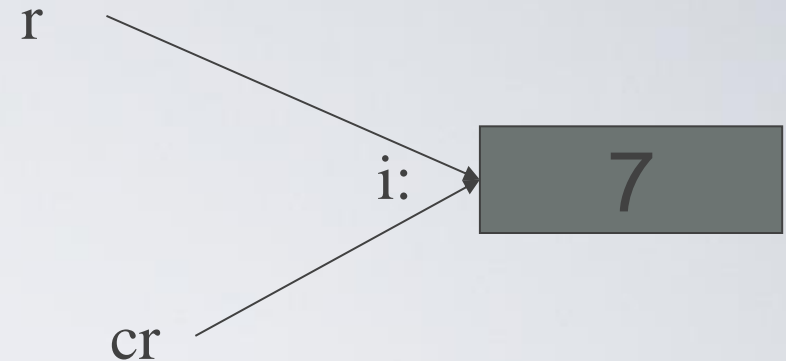
```
int main()
{
    int x = 0;
    int y = 0;
    int z = 0;
    g(x,y,z);           // x==0; y==1; z==0
    g(1,2,3);          // error: reference argument r needs a variable to refer to
    g(1,y,3);          // ok: since cr is const we can pass "a temporary"
}

// const references are very useful for passing large objects
```

References

- “reference” is a general concept
 - Not just for call-by-reference

```
int i = 7;
int& r = i;
r = 9;           // i becomes 9
const int& cr = i;
// cr = 7;      // error: cr refers to const
i = 8;
cout << cr << endl; // write out the value of i (that's 8)
```



- You can
 - think of a reference as an alternative name for an object
- You can't
 - modify an object through a **const** reference
 - make a reference refer to another object after initialization

Guidance for Passing Variables

- Use call-by-value for very small objects
- Use call-by-const-reference for large objects
- Return a result rather than modify an object through a reference argument
- Use call-by-reference only when you have to

- For example

```
class Image { /* objects are potentially huge */ };
```

```
void f(Image i); ... f(my_image); // oops: this could be s-l-o-o-o-w
```

```
void f(Image& i); ... f(my_image); // no copy, but f() can modify my_image
```

```
void f(const Image&); ... f(my_image); // f() won't mess with my_image
```

Namespaces

- Consider this code from two programmers Jack and Jill

```
class Glob { /* ... */ };           // in Jack's header file jack.h
```

```
class Widget { /* ... */ };       // also in jack.h
```

```
class Blob { /* ... */ };         // in Jill's header file jill.h
```

```
class Widget { /* ... */ };       // also in jill.h
```

```
#include "jack.h";   // this is in your code
```

```
#include "jill.h";   // so is this
```

```
void my_func(Widget p)   // oops! – error: multiple definitions of Widget
```

```
{
```

```
    // ...
```

```
}
```

Namespaces

- The compiler will not compile multiple definitions; such clashes can occur from multiple headers.
- One way to prevent this problem is with namespaces:

```
namespace Jack {                // in Jack's header file
    class Glob { /*...*/ };
    class Widget { /*...*/ };
}

#include "jack.h";              // this is in your code
#include "jill.h";              // so is this

void my_func(Jack::Widget p)   // OK, Jack's Widget class will not
{                               // clash with a different Widget
    // ...
}
```

Namespaces

- A namespace is a named scope
- The `::` syntax is used to specify which namespace you are using and which (of many possible) objects of the same name you are referring to
- For example, **`cout`** is in namespace **`std`**, you could write:

```
std::cout << "Please enter stuff... \n";
```

using Declarations and Directives

- To avoid the tedium of

- `std::cout << "Please enter stuff... \n";`

you could write a “using declaration”

- `using std::cout;` *// when I say **cout**, I mean `std::cout`”*
 - `cout << "Please enter stuff... \n";` *// ok: `std::cout`*
 - `cin >> x;` *// error: `cin` not in scope*

- or you could write a “using directive”

- `using namespace std;` *// “make all names from namespace `std` available”*
 - `cout << "Please enter stuff... \n";` *// ok: `std::cout`*
 - `cin >> x;` *// ok: `std::cin`*

- More about header files in Lecture 11

Function call implementation I

- Remember functions from Lectures 5, 6:

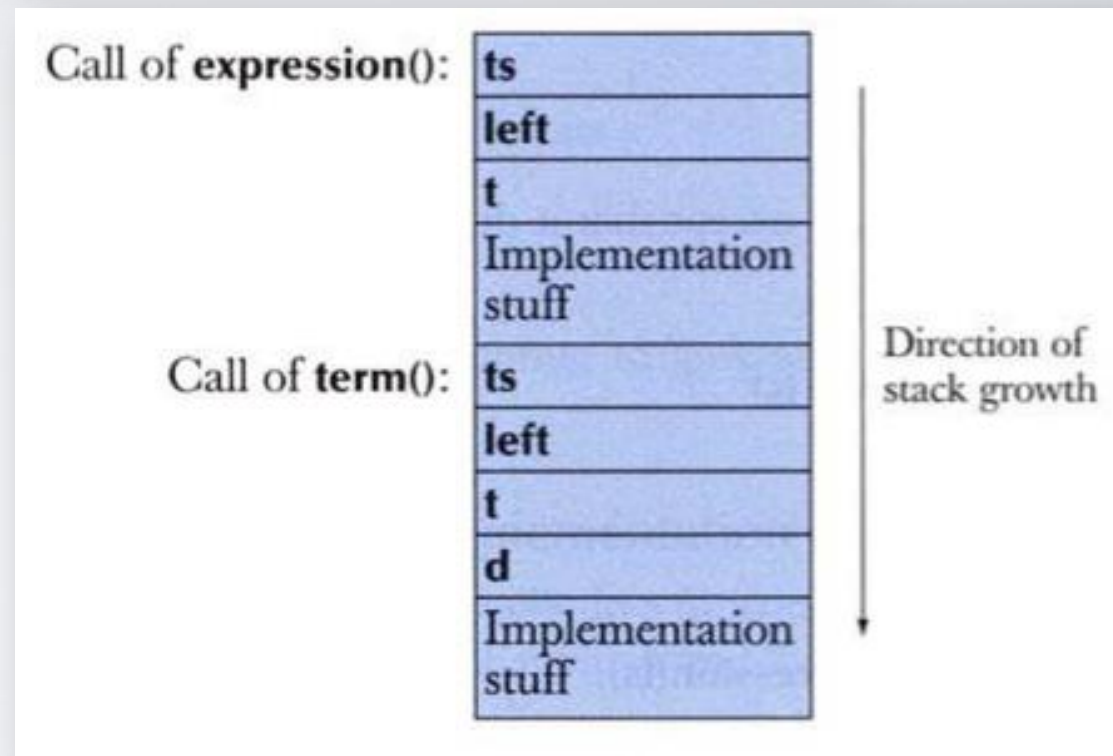
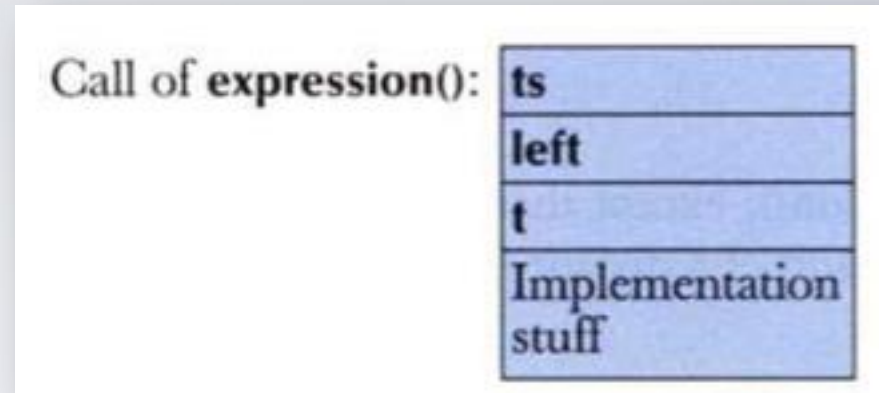
```
double term(Token_stream& ts)
{
    double left = primary(ts);
    Token t = ts.get();
    // ...
    case '/':
    {
        double d = primary(ts);
        // ...
    }
    // ...
}
```

```
double primary(Token_stream& ts)
{
    Token t = ts.get ();
    switch (t.kind) {
        case '(':
            { double d = expression(ts);
              // ...
            }
        // ...
    }
}
```

```
double expression(Token_stream& ts)
{
    double left = term(ts);
    Token t = ts.get();
    // ...
}
```

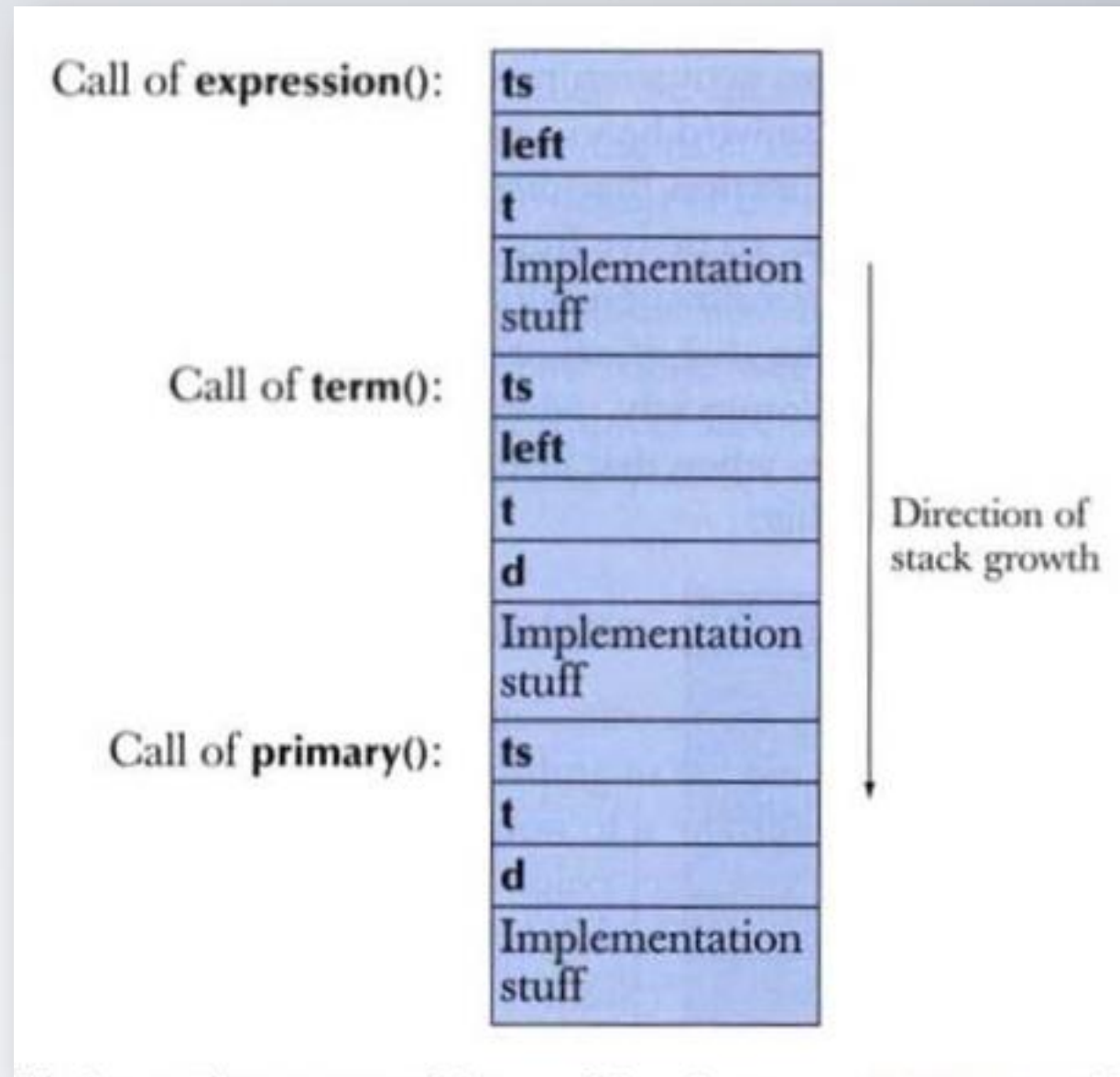

Function call implementation II

- When a function is called, the language implementation sets aside a data structure containing a copy of all its parameters and local variables.
- For example, when `expression()` is first called, the compiler ensures that a structure like this is created: *a function activation record*
- So far, so good, and now `expression()` calls `term()`, so the compiler ensures that an activation record for this call of `term()` is generated :



Function call implementation III

- Now `term()` calls `primary()` and we get:



Order of evaluation

- The evaluation of a program - also called the *execution of a program* - proceeds through the statements according to the language rules.
- When this "thread of execution" reaches the definition of a variable,
 - the variable is constructed;
 - that is, memory is set aside for the object and the object is initialized.
- when the variable goes out of scope,
 - the variable is destroyed;
 - that is, the object it refers to is in principle removed and the compiler can use its memory for something else

Order of evaluation II

```
string program_name = "silly";  
vector<string> v; // v is global  
  
void f()  
{  
    string s; // s is local to f  
    while (cin>>s && s!="quit") {  
        string stripped; // stripped is local to the loop  
        string not_letters;  
        for (int i=0; i<s.size(); ++i) // i has statement scope  
            if (isalpha(s[i]))  
                stripped += s[i];  
            else  
                not_letters += s[i];  
        v.push_back(stripped);  
        // ...  
    }  
    // ...  
}
```

Expression evaluation

- The order of evaluation of sub-expressions is governed by rules designed to please an optimizer rather than to make life simple for the programmer.
- That's unfortunate, but you should avoid complicated expressions anyway, and there is a simple rule that can keep you out of trouble:
 - if you change the value of a variable in an expression, don't read or write it twice in that same expression. For example:

```
v[i] = ++i;           // don't: undefined order of evaluation
v[++i] = i;         // don't: undefined order of evaluation
int x = ++i + ++i;  // don't: undefined order of evaluation
cout << ++i << ' ' << i << '\n'; // don't: undefined order of evaluation
f(++i, ++i);        // don't: undefined order of evaluation
```

Global initialization

- Using a global variable in anything but the most limited circumstances is usually not a good idea
- Such code is to be avoided for several reasons:
 - it uses global variables,
 - it gives the global variables short names,
 - it uses complicated initialization of the global variables.

```
// file f2.cpp
extern int y1;
int y2 = y1+2;           // y2 becomes 2 or 5
```


Recursively Defined functions

- For some problems, it's useful to have functions *call themselves*
- As often it is difficult to express the members of an object or numerical sequence explicitly.

e.g.: The **Fibonacci** sequence:

$$\{f_n\} = 0, 1, 1, 2, 3, 5, 8, 13, 21, 34, 55, \dots$$

- There may, however, be some “local” connections that can give rise to a *recursive definition* –a formula that expresses higher terms in the sequence, in terms of lower terms.

e.g.: Recursive definition for $\{f_n\}$:

INITIALIZATION: $f_0 = 0, f_1 = 1$

RECURSION: $f_n = f_{n-1} + f_{n-2}$ for $n > 1$.

Recursive Definitions and Induction

- Recursive definition and inductive proofs are complement each other: a recursive definition usually gives rise to natural proofs involving the recursively defined sequence.
- This follows from the format of a recursive definition as consisting of two parts:
 - **Initialization** –analogous to induction **base cases**
 - **Recursion** –analogous to **induction step**
- In both induction and recursion, the domino analogy is useful.

Recursion

- We must always make sure that the recursion *bottoms out*:
 - A recursive function must contain **at least one non-recursive branch**.
 - The recursive calls must eventually lead to a non-recursive branch.
- Recursion is one way to decompose a task into smaller subtasks. At least one of the subtasks is a smaller example of the same task.
- The smallest example of the same task has a non-recursive solution.
- **Fibonacci numbers**:
0, 1, 1, 2, 3, 5, 8, 13, 21, 34, ...
where each number is the sum of the preceding two.
- Recursive definition:
 - $F(0) = 0;$
 - $F(1) = 1;$
 - $F(\text{number}) = F(\text{number}-1) + F(\text{number}-2);$

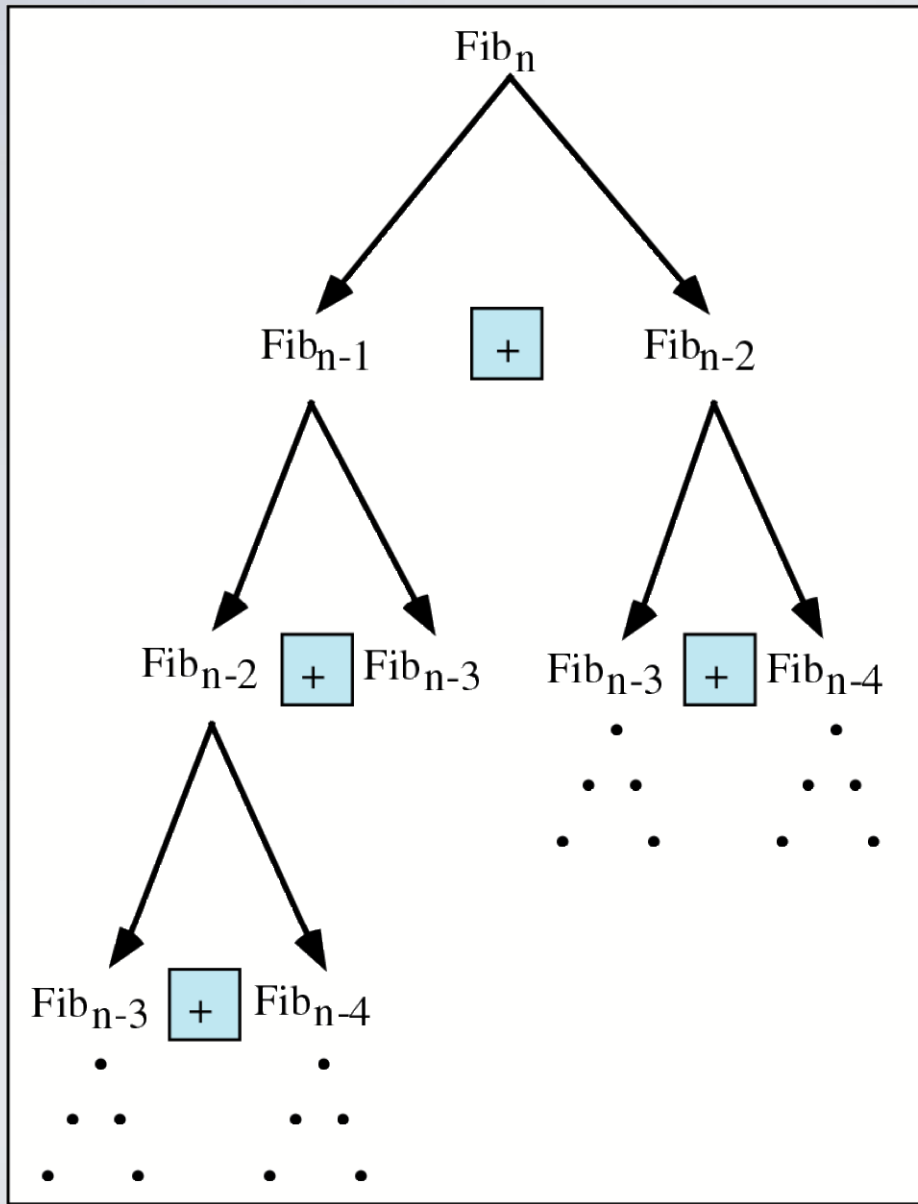
Recursive Example: Fibonacci numbers

```
//Calculate Fibonacci numbers using recursive function.  
//A very inefficient way, but illustrates recursion well
```

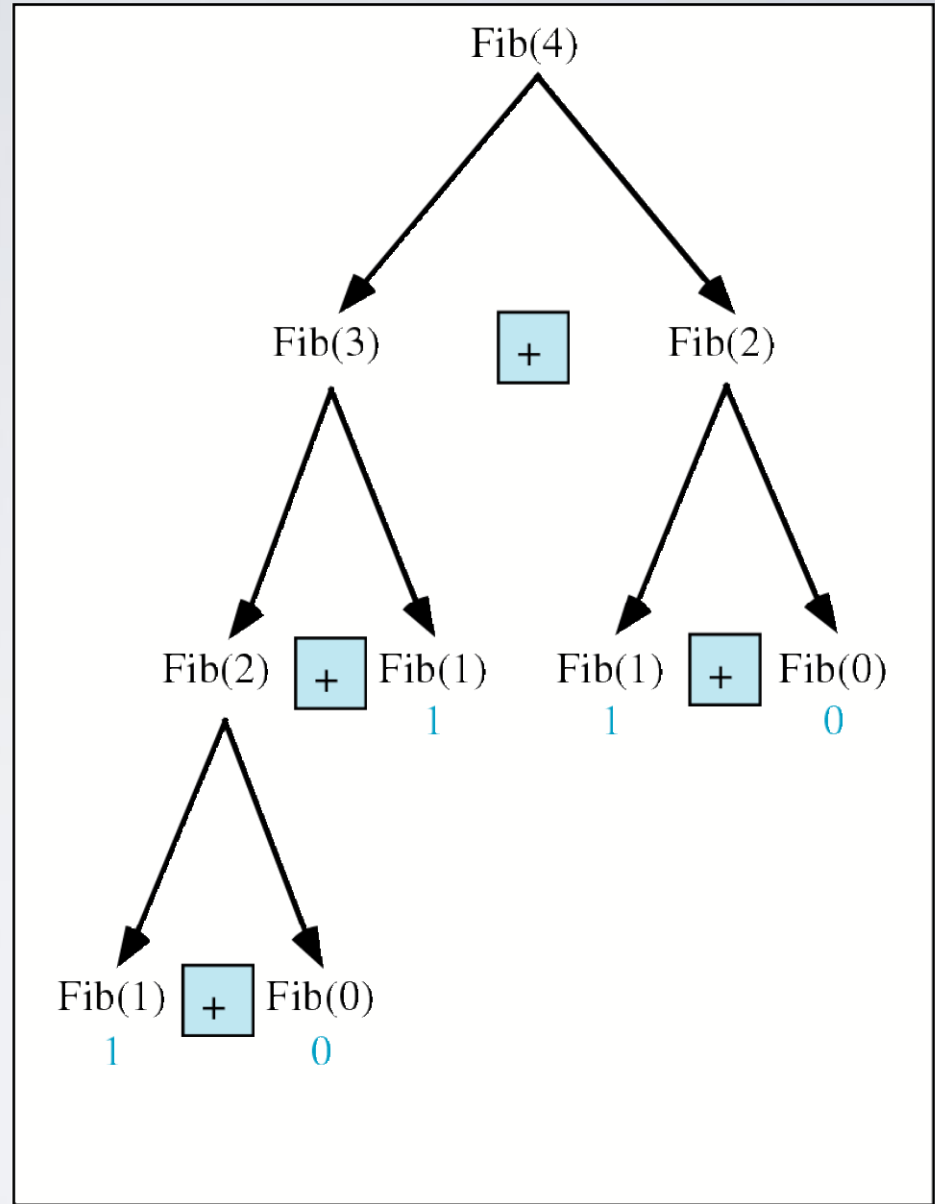
```
int fib(int number)  
{  
    if (number == 0) return 0;  
    if (number == 1) return 1;  
    return (fib(number-1) + fib(number-2));  
}
```

```
int main(){    // driver function  
    int inp_number=0;  
    cout << "Please enter an integer: ";  
    cin >> inp_number;  
    cout << "The Fibonacci number for "<< inp_number  
        << " is "<< fib(inp_number)<<endl;  
    return 0;  
}
```

```
f(0) is 0  
f(1) is 1  
f(2) is 1  
f(3) is 2  
f(4) is 3  
f(5) is 5  
f(6) is 8
```



(a) $Fib(n)$



(b) $Fib(4)$

Trace a Fibonacci Number

- Assume the input number is 4, that is, num=4:

`fib(4) :`

`4 == 0 ? No; 4 == 1? No.`

`fib(4) = fib(3) + fib(2)`

`fib(3) :`

`3 == 0 ? No; 3 == 1? No.`

`fib(3) = fib(2) + fib(1)`

`fib(2) :`

`2 == 0? No; 2==1? No.`

`fib(2) = fib(1)+fib(0)`

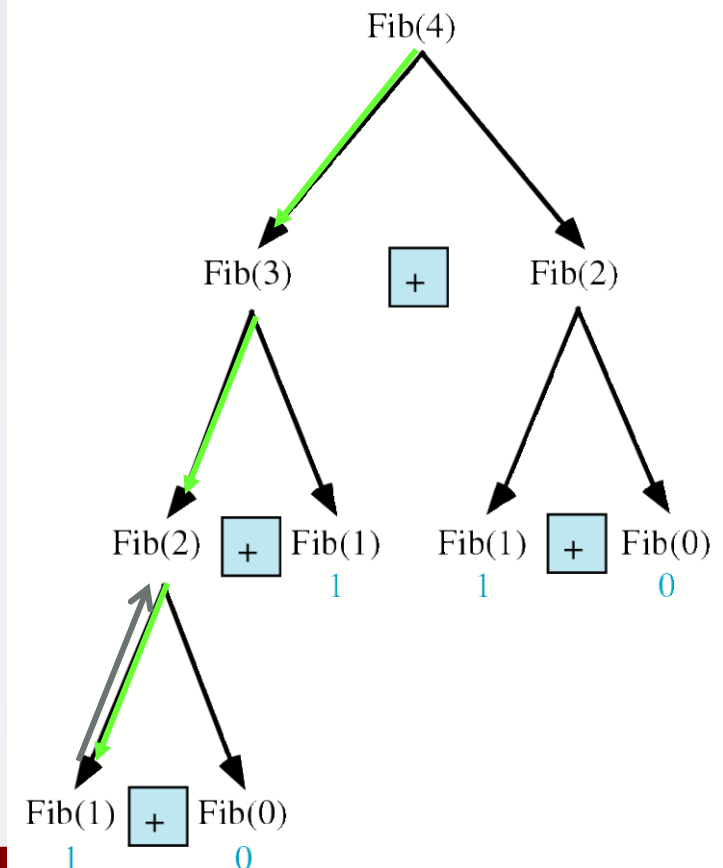
`fib(1) :`

`1 == 0 ? No; 1 == 1? Yes.`

`fib(1) = 1;`

`return fib(1);`

```
int fib(int num)
{
    if (num == 0) return 0;
    if (num == 1) return 1;
    return
        (fib(num-1)+fib(num-
        2));
}
```



Trace a Fibonacci Number

```
fib(0) :  
    0 == 0 ? Yes.  
    fib(0) = 0;  
    return fib(0);
```

```
fib(2) = 1 + 0 = 1;
```

```
return fib(2);
```

```
fib(3) = 1 + fib(1)
```

```
fib(1) :
```

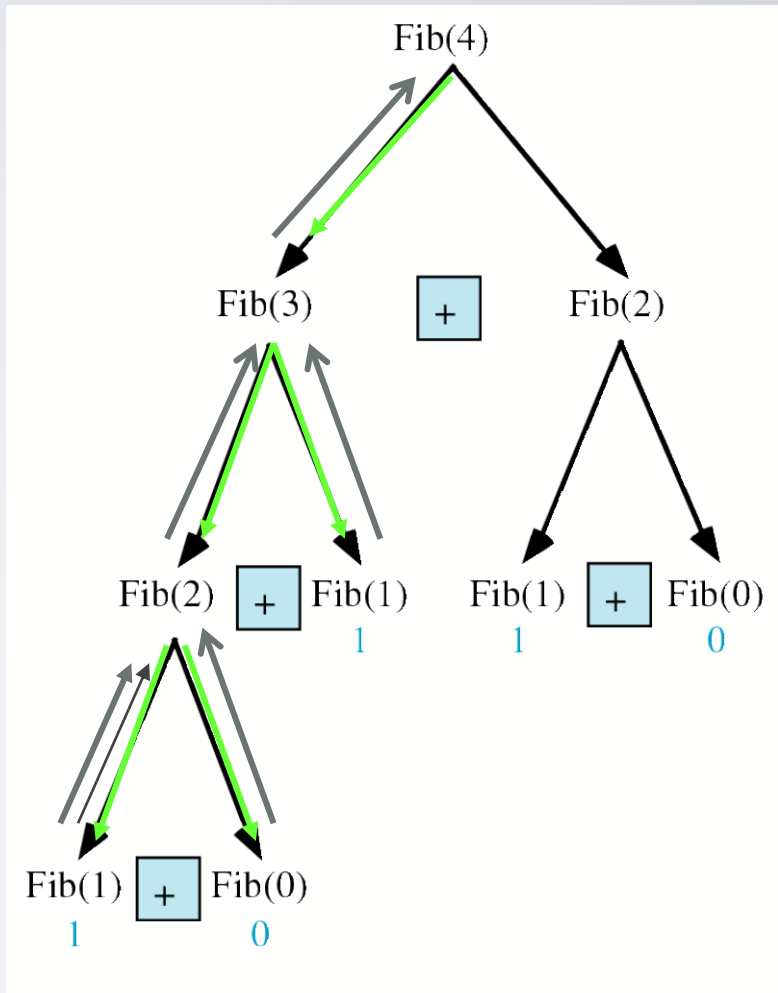
```
1 == 0 ? No; 1 == 1? Yes
```

```
fib(1) = 1;
```

```
return fib(1);
```

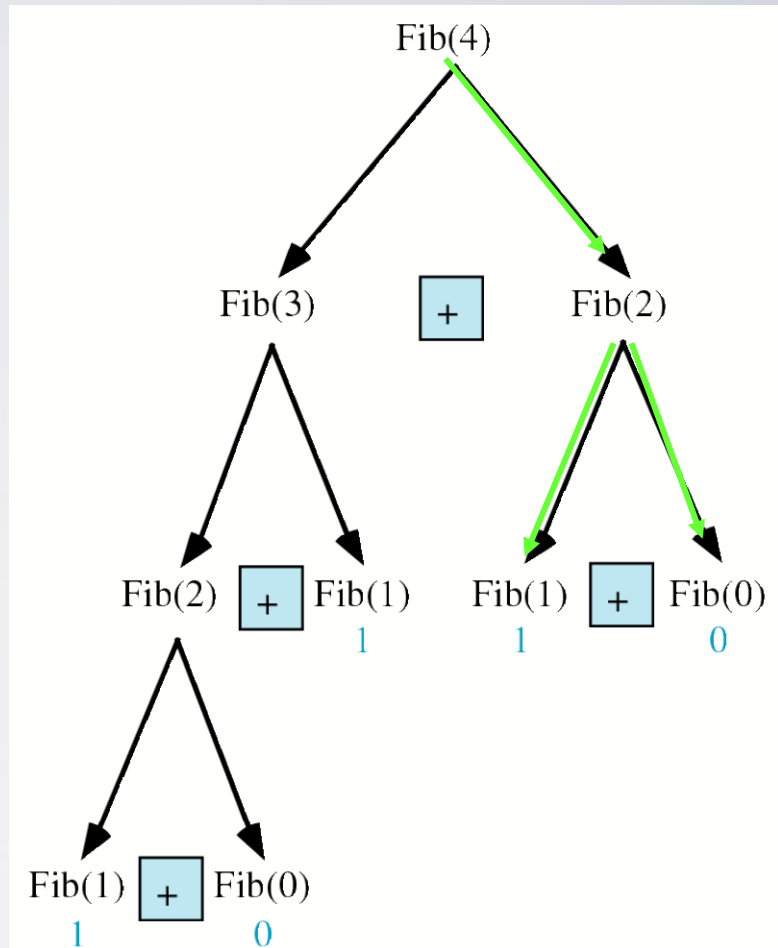
```
fib(3) = 1 + 1 = 2;
```

```
return fib(3)
```



Trace a Fibonacci Number

```
fib(2):  
2 == 0 ? No; 2 == 1? No.  
fib(2) = fib(1) + fib(0)  
fib(1):  
  1 == 0 ? No; 1 == 1? Yes.  
    fib(1) = 1;  
return fib(1);  
fib(0):  
  0 == 0 ? Yes.  
    fib(0) = 0;  
    return fib(0);  
fib(2) = 1 + 0 = 1;  
return fib(2);  
fib(4) = fib(3) + fib(2)  
        = 2 + 1 = 3;  
return fib(4);
```



Fibonacci number w/o recursion

```
//Calculate Fibonacci numbers iteratively
```

```
//much more efficient than recursive solution
```

```
int fib(int n)
{
    int f[n+1];
    f[0] = 0; f[1] = 1;
    for (int i=2; i<= n; i++)
        f[i] = f[i-1] + f[i-2];
    return f[n];
}
```

Next talk

- More technicalities, mostly related to classes

Acknowledgements

Bjarne Stroustrup

Programming -- Principles and Practice Using C++

<http://www.stroustrup.com/Programming/>

Thank you!

