

# BBM 101 – Introduction to Programming I

Fall 2014, Lecture 7

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## Today

### ■ Functions

- Definitions
- Invocation
- Parameter Lists
- Return Values
- Prototypes

### ■ Recursion

- Recursion
- Inductive reasoning
- Divide and conquer

### ■ Variable Scopes

- Block Structure
- Global and Local Variables
- Static Variables

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## Introduction

*Structured Programming* is a problem-solving strategy and a programming methodology that includes the following two guidelines:

- The flow of control in a program should be as simple as possible.
- The construction of a program should embody *top-down* design.

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## Top-down Design

*Top-down design (stepwise refinement, or divide and conquer)* consists of repeatedly decomposing a problem into smaller problems.

- A program is constructed from smaller pieces (components, modules)
- Each piece is more manageable than the original program

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## Functions

- Programs combine *user-defined* functions with *library* functions
  - C standard library has a wide variety of functions, e.g. several math functions are included in `math.h`
- Invoking functions
  - Provide function name and arguments
  - Function performs operations or manipulations
  - Function returns results
- Function call analogy
  - Boss asks worker to complete task
  - Worker gets information, does task, returns result
  - Information hiding: boss does not know details

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## Math Library Functions

- Math library functions
  - perform common mathematical calculations
  - `#include <math.h>`
- Format for calling functions
  - `FunctionName( argument );`
    - If multiple arguments, use comma-separated list
  - `y = sqrt( 900.0 );`
    - Calls function `sqrt`, which returns the square root of its argument
- Arguments may be any r-value (constants, variables, or expressions)

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## Math Library Functions

Function Header	Description
<code>int abs(int num)</code>	Returns the absolute value of an integer element
<code>double fabs(double num)</code>	Returns the absolute value of a double precision element.
<code>double pow(double x,double y)</code>	Returns x raised to the power of y.
<code>int rand(void)</code>	Returns a random number
<code>double sin(double angle)</code>	Returns the sine of an angle; the angle should be in Radius.
<code>double cos(double angle)</code>	Returns the cosine of an angle; the angle should be in Radius.
<code>double sqrt(double num)</code>	Returns the the square root of a double

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## Math Library Functions (Example)

- How to code square root of  $(x1 - x2)^2 + (y1 - y2)^2$  by using math.h library functions?

```
a = x1 - x2;
b = y1 - y2;
c = pow(a, 2) + pow(b, 2);
d = sqrt(c);
```

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## Functions

- We have already written/called some functions before.

```
/* Welcome to BBM 101 */
#include <stdio.h>

int main(void)
{
    printf("Hello world!\n");
    return 0;
}
```

- **main** is a function that must exist in every C program.
- **printf** is a library function which we have already used in our program.

Let's create and call our own functions now!

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## Function Definition

- Syntax

```
type name (parameters){
    variables;
    statements;
}
```

- **name** is the name of the function
- **type** is the type of the returned value by the function
  - *void* means the function returns nothing
  - Functions return *int* value if nothing is specified
- **parameters** specify the types and names of the parameters separated by comma

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## Function Returning a Value (Example)

- Let's define a function to compute the cube of a number:

```
int cube ( int num ) {
    int result;
    result = num * num * num;
    return result;
}
```

- This function can be called as:

```
n = cube (5) ;
```

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## void Function (Example)

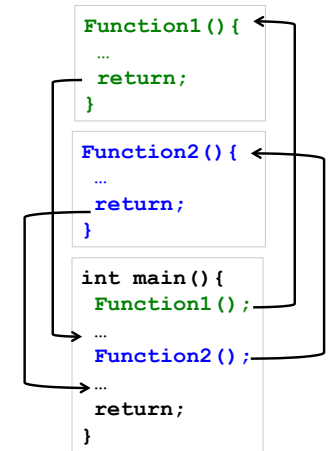
```
/* function definition */
void print_message(void) {
    printf("A message for you:  ");
    printf("Have a nice day!\n");
}

int main(void) {
    /* function invocation */
    print_message();
    return 0;
}
```

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## Function Invocation

- A program is made up of one or more functions, one of them being main().
- When a program encounters a function, the function is called or invoked.
- After the function does its work, program control is passed back to the calling environment, where program execution continues.



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## The return Statement

- When a return statement is executed, the execution of the function is terminated and the program control is immediately passed back to the calling environment.
- If an expression follows the keyword return, the value of the expression is returned to the calling environment as well.
- A return statement can be one of the following two forms:

```
return;
return expression;
```

### Examples:

```
return;
return 1.5;
return result;
return a+b*c;
return x < y ? x : y;
```

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## The return Statement (Example)

- Define a function to check if asked year is a leap year

```
int IsLeapYear(int year) {
    return ( (year % 4 == 0) && (year % 100 != 0)
            || (year % 400 == 0) );
}
```

- This function may be called as:

```
if (IsLeapYear(2005))
    printf("29 days in February.\n");
else
    printf("28 days in February.\n");
```

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## Example: Find minimum of two integers

```
#include <stdio.h>
int min(int a, int b){
    if (a < b)
        return a;
    else
        return b;
}

int main (void){
    int j, k, m;

    printf("Input two integers: ");
    scanf("%d %d", &j, &k);

    m = min(j, k);

    printf("\nThe minimum is %d.\n", m);
    return 0;
}
```

```
Input two integers: 11 3
The minimum is 3.
```

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## Function Parameters

- A function can have zero or more parameters.
- The *formal parameter list* in declaration header

```
int f (int x, double y, char c);
```

Parameter variables  
and their types are  
declared here.

- The *actual parameter list* in function calling:

```
value = f(age, 100*score, initial);
```

Cannot be told what  
their types are from  
here.

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## Rules for Parameter Lists

- The number of parameters in the actual and formal parameter lists must be *consistent*.
- Parameter association is *positional*: the first *actual* parameter matches the first *formal* parameter, the second matches the second, and so on.
- *Actual* parameters and *formal* parameters must be of compatible *data types*.
- *Actual* parameters may be a variable, constant, any expression matching the type of the corresponding formal parameter.

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## Call-by-Value Invocation

- Each argument is evaluated, and its value is used locally in place of the corresponding formal parameter.
- If a variable is passed to a function, the stored value of that variable in the calling environment will not be changed.
- In C, **all** calls are call-by-value.

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## Function Call

- The type of a function-call expression is the same as the type function being called, and its value is the value returned by the function.
- Function calls can be embedded in other function calls.

```
t = cubesum(i);  
j = cubesum(t);
```

is equivalent to

```
j = cubesum(cubesum(i));
```

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## Function Call (Example)

```
#include <stdio.h>  
int compute_sum (int n){  
    int sum = 0;  
  
    for ( ; n > 0; --n)  
        sum += n;  
  
    printf("%d ", n);  
  
    return sum;  
}
```

```
int main (void){  
    int n = 3, sum;  
  
    printf("%d ", n);  
  
    sum = compute_sum(n);  
  
    printf("%d ", n);  
    printf("%d", sum);  
  
    return 0;  
}
```

3 0 3 6

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## Example: Find maximum of three integers

```
#include <stdio.h>  
int maximum(int a, int b, int c){  
    int max = a;  
  
    if (b > max)  
        max = b;  
    if (c > max)  
        max = c;  
  
    return max;  
}  
  
int main (void){  
    int j, k, l, m;  
  
    printf("Input three integers: ");  
    scanf("%d %d %d", &j, &k, &l);  
  
    printf("\nThe maximum is %d.\n", maximum(j, k, l));  
    return 0;  
}
```

Input three integers: 11 3 7  
The maximum is 11.

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## Function Prototypes

- General form for a function prototype declaration:

```
return_type function_name (parameter-type-list)
```

- Used to validate functions
  - Prototype only needed if function definition comes after use in program
- The function with the prototype

```
int maximum( int, int, int );
```

(Takes in 3 ints, returns an int)

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## Using Function Prototypes

```
#include <stdio.h>
int max (int a, int b){
    ...
}

int min (int a, int b){
    ...
}

int main(void) {
    ...
    min(x,y);
    max(u,v);
    ...
}
```

=

```
#include <stdio.h>
int max(int,int);
int min(int,int);

int main(void) {
    min(x,y);
    max(u,v);
    ...
}

int max (int a, int b){
    ...
}

int min (int a, int b){
    ...
}
```

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## Block Structure and Variable Scope

```
#include <stdio.h>

int total, count;

int main(int argc, const char * argv[]){
    total = count = 0;
    {
        int count = 0;
        while (1) {
            if (count > 10)
                break;
            total += count;
            count++;
        }
        printf("%d\n", count);
    }

    count++;
    printf("%d\n", count);
    return 0;
}
```

Global *count* variable is valid in the whole program.

Local *count* variable is only valid in the red block here.

```
11
1
```

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## External Variables

- Local variables can only be accessed in the function in which they are defined.
- If a variable is defined outside any function at the same level as function definitions, it is available to all the functions defined below in the same source file  
→ external variable
- **Global variables** are external variables defined before any function definition
  - Their scope will be the whole program

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## Local Variables

```
#include <stdio.h>

void func1 (void){
    int i = 5;
    printf("%d\n", i);
    i++;
    printf("%d\n", i);
}

int main (void){
    int i = 5;
    printf("%d \n", i);
    func1();
    printf("%d \n",i);
    return 0;
}
```

```
5
5
6
5
```

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## Static Variables

- A variable is said to be **static** if it is allocated storage at the beginning of the program execution and the storage remains allocated until the program execution terminates.
- External variables are always static.
- Within a block, a variable can be specified to be static by using the keyword `static` before its type declaration:

```
static type variable-name;
```

- Variable declared static can be initialized only with constant expressions (**if not, its default value is zero**).

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## Static Variables (Example)

```
#include <stdio.h>
void incr(void);

int main(void) {
    int i;
    void incr(void);

    for (i=0; i<3; i++)
        incr();
    return 0;
}

void incr(void) {
    static int static_i = 0;
    printf("static_i = %d\n", static_i++);
}
```

A static variable inside a function keeps its value between invocations.

```
Output:
static_i = 0
static_i = 1
static_i = 2
```

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## Static Variables (Example-Initial Value)

```
#include <stdio.h>

void put_stars(int n) {
    static int static_n;
    int i;

    for (i=0; i<static_n; i++)
        printf(" ");
    for (i=0; i<n; i++)
        printf("*");

    printf("\n");
    static_n+= n;
}

int main(void) {
    put_stars(3);
    put_stars(2);
    put_stars(3);
    return 0;
}
```

```
Output:
***
 **
***
```

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## Recursion

- **Recursion** is the process whereby a construct operates on itself.
- In C, a function may directly or indirectly call itself in the course of execution.
  - **direct**: The call to a function occurs inside the function itself
  - **indirect**: A function calls another function, which in turn makes a call to the first one
- Recursion is a programming technique that naturally implements the divide-and-conquer problem solving methodology.

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## Iterative Algorithms

- Looping constructs (e.g. while or for loops) lead naturally to **iterative** algorithms
- Can conceptualize as capturing computation in a set of “state variables” which update on each iteration through the loop

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## Iterative multiplication by successive additions

- Imagine we want to perform multiplication by successive additions:
  - To multiply a by b, add a to itself b times
- State variables:
  - i – iteration number; starts at b
  - result – current value of computation; starts at 0
- Update rules
  - $i \leftarrow i - 1$ ; stop when 0
  - $result \leftarrow result + a$

```
int iterMul(int a, int b)
{
    int result = 0;
    while (b > 0) {
        result += a;
        b--;
    }
    return result;
}
```

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## Recursive version

- An alternative is to think of this computation as:

$$\begin{aligned} a * b &= \underbrace{a + a + \dots + a}_{b \text{ copies}} \\ &= a + \underbrace{a + \dots + a}_{b-1 \text{ copies}} \\ &= a + a * (b - 1) \end{aligned}$$

Slide credit: E. Grimson, J. Guttag and C. Terman

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## Recursion

- This is an instance of a **recursive** algorithm
  - Reduce a problem to a simpler (or smaller) version of the same problem, plus some simple computations
- **Recursive step**
  - Keep reducing until reach a simple case that can be solved directly
- **Base case**
  - $a * b = a$ ; if  $b = 1$  (Basecase)
  - $a * b = a + a * (b - 1)$ ; otherwise (Recursive case)

```
int recurMul(int a, int b)
{
    if (b==1)
        return a;
    else
        return a + recurMul(a,b-1);
}
```

Slide credit: E. Grimson, J. Guttag and C. Terman

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## Inductive reasoning

- How do we know that our recursive code will work?
- **iterMul** terminates because  $b$  is initially positive, and decrease by 1 each time around loop; thus must eventually become less than 1
- **recurMul** called with  $b = 1$  has no recursive call and stops
- **recurMul** called with  $b > 1$  makes a recursive call with a smaller version of  $b$ ; must eventually reach call with  $b = 1$

Slide credit: E. Grimson, J. Guttag and C. Terman

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## Mathematical Induction

- To prove a statement indexed on integers is true for all values of  $n$ :
  - Prove it is true when  $n$  is smallest value (e.g.  $n = 0$  or  $n = 1$ )
  - Then prove that if it is true for an arbitrary value of  $n$ , one can show that it must be true for  $n+1$

Slide credit: E. Grimson, J. Guttag and C. Terman

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## Example

- $0+1+2+3+\dots+n=(n(n+1))/2$
- Proof
  - If  $n = 0$ , then LHS is 0 and RHS is  $0*1/2 = 0$ , so true
  - Assume true for some  $k$ , then need to show that
    - $0 + 1 + 2 + \dots + k + (k+1) = ((k+1)(k+2))/2$
    - LHS is  $k(k+1)/2 + (k+1)$  by assumption that property holds for problem of size  $k$
    - This becomes, by algebra,  $((k+1)(k+2))/2$
  - Hence expression holds for all  $n \geq 0$

Slide credit: E. Grimson, J. Guttag and C. Terman

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## What does this have to do with code?

- Same logic applies

```
int recurMul(int a, int b)
{
    if (b==1)
        return a;
    else
        return a + recurMul(a,b-1);
}
```

- Base case, we can show that **recurMul** must return correct answer
- For recursive case, we can assume that **recurMul** correctly returns an answer for problems of size smaller than  $b$ , then by the addition step, it must also return a correct answer for problem of size  $b$
- Thus by induction, code correctly returns answer

Slide credit: E. Grimson, J. Guttag and C. Terman

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## Factorial Function – *Iterative Definition*

$$n! = n * (n-1) * (n-2) * \dots * 2 * 1 \quad \text{for any integer } n > 0$$
$$0! = 1$$

### Iterative Definition in C:

```
fval = 1;
for (i = n; i >= 1; i--)
    fval = fval * i;
```

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## Factorial Function – *Recursive Definition*

- To define  $n!$  recursively,  $n!$  must be defined in terms of the factorial of a smaller number.
- Observation (problem size is reduced):
$$n! = n * (n-1)!$$
- Base case  $\rightarrow 0! = 1$
- We can reach the base case, by subtracting 1 from  $n$  if  $n$  is a positive integer.

### Recursive Definition:

$$n! = 1 \quad \text{if } n = 0$$
$$n! = n*(n-1)! \quad \text{if } n > 0$$

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## Recursive Factorial Function Definition in C

```
/* Computes the factorial of a nonnegative integer.
Precondition: n must be greater than or equal to 0.
Postcondition: Returns the factorial of n; n is unchanged.*/

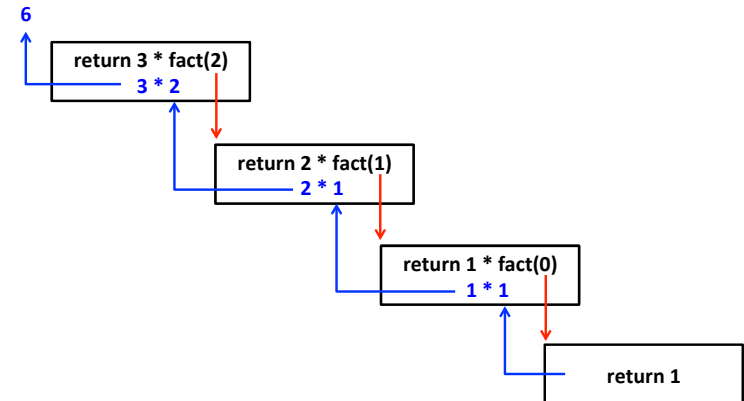
int fact(int n)
{
    if (n == 0)
        return (1);
    else
        return (n * fact(n-1));
}
```

This *fact* function satisfies the four criteria of a recursive solution.

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## How does it Compute?

```
printf("%d", fact (3));
```



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## Tracing a Recursive Function

- A **stack** is used to keep track of function calls.
- Whenever a new function is called
  - For each function call, an **activation record (AR)** is created on the stack.
  - AR consists of the function's parameters and local variables are pushed onto the stack along with the memory address of the calling statement (return point).
- To trace a recursive function, the **box method** can be used.
  - The box method is a systematic way to trace the actions of a recursive function.
  - The box method illustrates how compilers implement recursion.
  - Each box in the box method roughly corresponds to an activation record.

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## The Box Method

- Label each recursive call in the body of the recursive function.
  - These labels help us to keep track of the correct place to which we must return after a function call completes.
  - After each recursive call, we return to the labeled location, and substitute that recursive call with returned value.

```
if (n ==0)
    return (1);
else
    return (n * fact(n-1) )
                A
```

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## The Box Method (cont'd.)

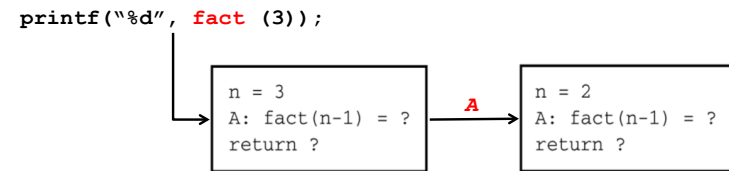
- Every time a function is called, a new box is created to represent its local environment.
- Each box contains:
  - The values of the arguments
  - The function's local variables
  - A placeholder for the value returned from each recursive call from the current box (label in the previous step).
  - The value of the function itself.

```
n = 3
A: fact(n-1) = ?
return ?
```

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## The Box Method (cont'd.)

- Draw an arrow from the statement that initiates the recursive process to the first box.
  - Then draw an arrow to a new box created after a recursive call, put a label on that arrow.



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## The Box Method (cont'd.)

- After a new box is created, we start to execute the body of the function.
- On exiting a function, cross off the current box and follow its arrow back to the box that called the function.
  - This box becomes the current box.
  - Substitute the value returned by the just-terminated function call into the appropriate item in the current box.
  - Continue the execution from the returned point.

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## Box Trace of *fact(3)*

- The initial call is made, and the function *fact* begins execution.

```
n = 3
A: fact(n-1)=?
return ?
```

- At point A, a recursive call is made, and the new invocation of *fact* begins execution.

```
n = 3
A: fact(n-1)=?
return ?
```

A

```
n = 2
A: fact(n-1)=?
return ?
```

- At point A, a recursive call is made, and the new invocation of *fact* begins execution.

```
n = 3
A: fact(n-1)=?
return ?
```

A

```
n = 2
A: fact(n-1)=?
return ?
```

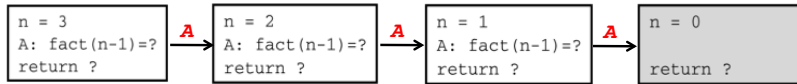
A

```
n = 1
A: fact(n-1)=?
return ?
```

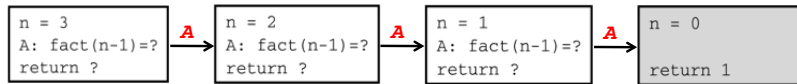
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## Box Trace of *fact(3)* (cont'd.)

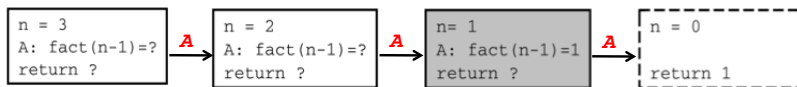
- At point A, a recursive call is made, and the new invocation of fact begins execution.



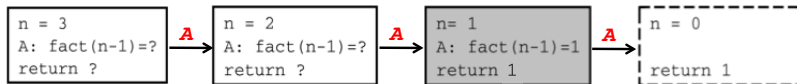
- This is the base case, so this invocation of fact completes.



- The function value is returned to the calling box, which continues the execution.



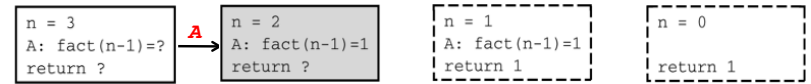
- The current invocation of fact completes.



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## Box Trace of *fact(3)* (cont'd.)

- The function value is returned to the calling box, which continues the execution.



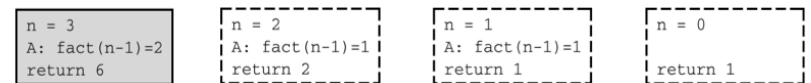
- The current invocation of fact completes.



- The function value is returned to the calling box, which continues the execution.



- The current invocation of fact completes.



- The value 6 is returned to the initial call.

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## Example: Find the reverse of an input string

```

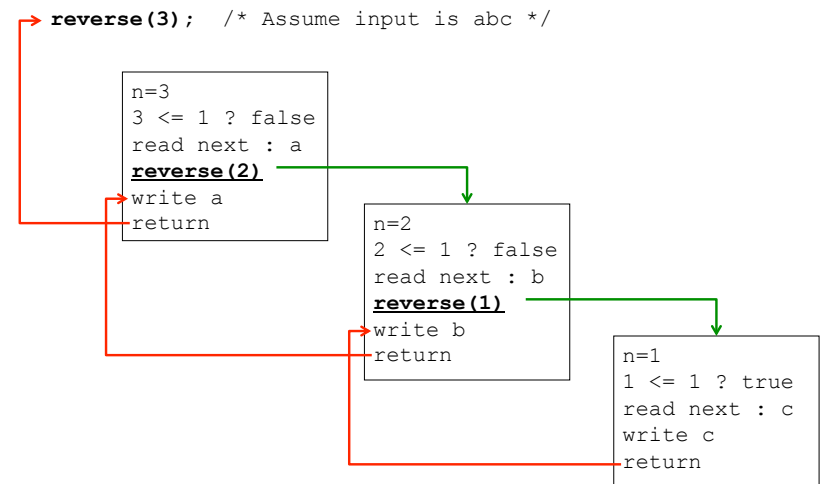
/* reads n characters and prints them in reverse order. */
void reverse(int n){
    char next;
    if (n == 1) {
        scanf("%c", &next);
        printf("%c", next);
    } else {
        scanf("%c", &next);
        reverse(n-1);
        printf("%c", next);
    }
    return;
}

int main(){
    printf("Enter a string: ");
    reverse(3);
    printf("\n");
}

```

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## Trace of *reverse(3)*



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## Recursion with multiple base cases

- Fibonacci numbers
  - Leonardo of Pisa (aka Fibonacci) modeled the following challenge
    - Newborn pair of rabbits (one female, one male) are put in a pen
    - Rabbits mate at age of one month
    - Rabbits have a one month gestation period
    - Assume rabbits never die, that female always produces one new pair (one male, one female) every month from its second month on.
    - How many female rabbits are there at the end of one year?

Slide credit: E. Grimson, J. Guttag and C. Terman

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## Fibonacci Sequence

- After one month (call it 0) – 1 female
- After second month – still 1 female (now pregnant)
- After third month – two females, one pregnant, one not
- In general,  $\text{females}(n) = \text{females}(n-1) + \text{females}(n-2)$ 
  - Every female alive at month  $n-2$  will produce one female in month  $n$ ;
  - These can be added those alive in month  $n-1$  to get total alive in month  $n$

Month	Females
0	1
1	1
2	2
3	3
4	5
5	8
6	13

Slide credit: E. Grimson, J. Guttag and C. Terman

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## Fibonacci Sequence

- Base cases:
  - Females(0) = 1
  - Females(1) = 1
- Recursive case
  - Females(n) = Females(n-1) + Females(n-2)

```
/* assumes x an int >= 0 and returns Fibonacci of x */
int fib(int n) {
    if (n < 2)
        return n;
    else
        return (fib(n-2) + fib(n-1));
}
```

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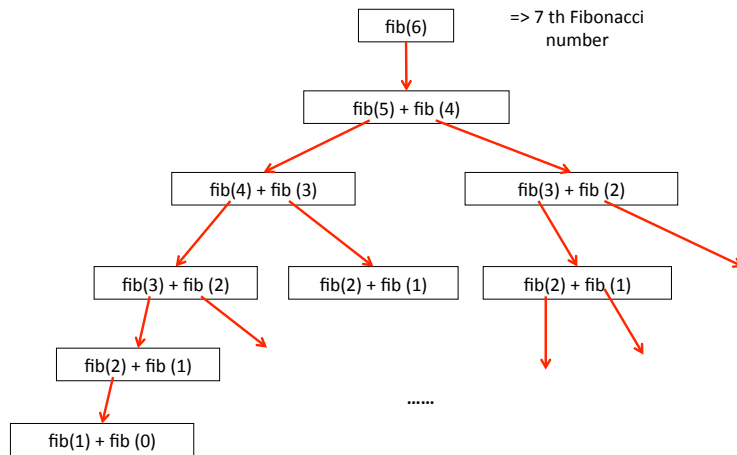
## Fibonacci Sequence

```
/* assumes x an int >= 0 and returns Fibonacci of x */
int fib(int n) {
    if (n < 2)
        return n;
    else
        return (fib(n-2) + fib(n-1));
}
```

- This is an example of *non-linear* recursion. Because total number of recursive calls grows exponentially.
- $\text{fib}(n-1)$  expression must be evaluated completely before its value can be added to the expression  $\text{fib}(n-2)$  which must also be evaluated completely
- Recursion tree is useful in tracing the values of variables during non-linear recursion.

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## Recursion Tree for Fibonacci Sequence



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## Example: Fibonacci Sequence (Iterative Version)

```

int Fib(int n)
{
    int Prev1, Prev2, Temp, j;

    if (n==0 || n== 1)
        return n;
    else {
        Prev1=0;
        Prev2 = 1;
        for (j=1; j <= n; j++){
            Temp = Prev1 + Prev2;
            Prev2 = Prev1;
            Prev1 = Temp;
        }
        return Prev1;
    }
}
  
```

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## Recursion vs. Iteration

- In general, an iterative version of a program will execute more efficiently in terms of time and space than a recursive version.
  - This is because the overhead involved in entering and exiting a function is avoided in iterative version.
- However, a recursive solution can be sometimes the most natural and logical way of solving a problem.
  - Conflict: machine efficiency versus programmer efficiency.
- It is always true that recursion can be replaced with iteration and a stack (and vice versa).

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## Summary

- |  |  |
|--|--|
| <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>■ <b>Functions</b> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>▪ Definitions</li> <li>▪ Invocation</li> <li>▪ Parameter Lists</li> <li>▪ Return Values</li> <li>▪ Prototypes</li> </ul> </li> <li>■ <b>Variable Scopes</b> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>▪ Block Structure</li> <li>▪ Global and Local Variables</li> <li>▪ Static Variables</li> </ul> </li> </ul> | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>■ <b>Recursion</b> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>▪ Recursion</li> <li>▪ Inductive reasoning</li> <li>▪ Divide and conquer</li> </ul> </li> </ul> |
|--|--|

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## Next week

### ■ Debugging

- Testing and debugging
- Black box testing
- Glass box testing
- Integration testing and unit testing
- Debugging approaches

### ■ Arrays

- Declaring Arrays
- Examples
- Passing Arrays to Functions
- Sorting Arrays
- Multi-Dimensional Arrays
- Command Line Input