

CSE / ENGR 142 Programming I

Pointers and Output Parameters

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Chapter 6

- 6.1 Output Parameters
- 6.2 Multiple calls to functions with output parameters
- 6.3 Scope of Names
- 6.4 Passing Output Parameters to other functions
- 6.6, 6.7 Debugging and common programming errors

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Review: Function Terminology

```
0! is 1
1! is 1
2! is 1 * 2
3! is 1 * 2 * 3
...

```

```
int factorial ( int n ) {
    int product, i;
    product = 1;
    for ( i = n; i > 1; i = i - 1 ) {
        product = product * i;
    }
    return (product);
}
```

function name

[formal] parameter

local variables

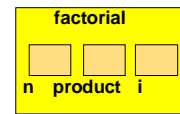
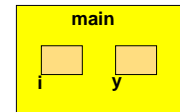
return type & value

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Review: Local Variables

```
int
main(void)
{
    int i, y;

    i = 3;
    y = factorial ( i + 1 );
    return (0);
}
```



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Local Variables: Summary

- Formal parameters and variables declared in a function are **local** to it:
 - cannot be directly accessed by other functions
- Allocated (created) on function entry.
- De-allocated (destroyed) on function return.
- Formal parameters are initialized by **copying value** of actual parameter.
- *Reminder: no global variables in 142!*

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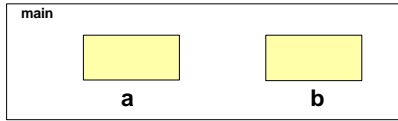
Call by Value

```
void move_one ( int x, int y ) {
    x = x - 1;
    y = y + 1;
}
```

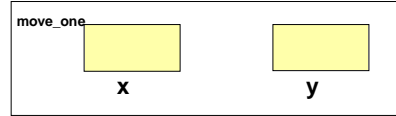
```
int main ( void ) {
    int a, b;
    a = 4; b = 7;
    move_one(a, b);
    printf(“%d %d”, a, b);
    return (0);
}
```

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Trace



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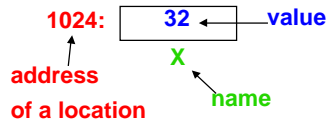


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Values vs. Locations

Problem: for *move_one* (*a,b*) to do what we want, it needs access to the **locations** of *a* and *b* as well as to their **values**.

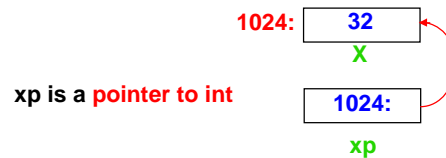
Recall: variables name memory **locations**, which hold **values**.



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New Type: Pointer

A pointer contains a **reference** to another variable; that is, the pointer contains the **address** of a variable.



xp is a **pointer to int**

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Declaring and Using a Pointer

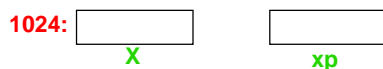
`int x;` /* declares an int variable */

`int *xp;` /* declares a **pointer to int** */

If somehow, xp gets the address of x, then:

`*xp = 0;` /* Assign integer 0 to x */

`*xp = *xp + 1;` /* Add 1 to x */



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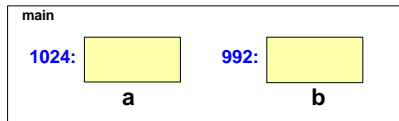
Pointer Solution to *move_one*

```
void move_one ( int * x_ptr, int * y_ptr ) {
    *x_ptr = *x_ptr - 1;
    *y_ptr = *y_ptr + 1;
}
```

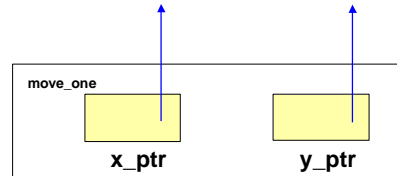
```
int main ( void ) {
    int a, b;
    a = 4; b = 7;
    move_one( &a, &b );
    printf( "%d %d", a, b );
}
```

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Trace



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Addresses and Pointers

Three new types:

- int *** “pointer to int”
- double *** “pointer to double”
- char *** “pointer to char”

Two new (unary) operators:

- &** “address of”
& can be applied to any variable (or param)
- *** “location pointed to by”
* can be applied only to a pointer

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Vocabulary

•Dereferencing or indirection:

- following a pointer to a memory location

•Output parameter:

- a pointer parameter of a function
- can be used to provide a value (“input”) as usual, **and/or store a changed value (“output”)**
- Don’t confuse with printed output (printf)

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scanf Revisited

```
int x,y,z;  
printf(“%d %d %d”, x, y, x+y);
```

What about *scanf*?

```
scanf(“%d %d %d”, x, y, x+y); NO!  
scanf(“%d %d”, &x, &y); YES! (why?)
```

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Why Use Pointers?

•In CSE142, only used for output parameters:

- functions that need to change their actual parameters, e.g., *move_one*
- to get multiple “return” values
 - e.g., *scanf()*

- In advanced programming, pointers are used to create *dynamic* data structures.

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Sort Two Integers

```
/* read in and sort 2 integers */
```

```
int c1, c2, temp ;  
printf ( "Enter 2 integers: " );  
scanf ( "%d%d", &c1, &c2 );  
/*At this point the 2 values may be in either order*/  
if ( c2 < c1 ) { /* swap if out of order */
```

```
    temp = c1 ;  
    c1 = c2 ;  
    c2 = temp ;
```

```
}  
/*At this point c1 <= c2 (guaranteed) */
```

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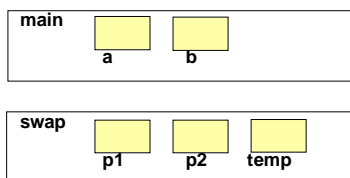
swap as a Function

```
void swap ( int * p1, int * p2 ) {  
    int temp ;  
    temp = *p1 ;  
    *p1 = *p2 ;  
    *p2 = temp ;  
}
```

```
int a, b ;  
a = 4; b = 7;  
...  
swap (&a, &b);
```

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Trace



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Aliases

A way to think about pointer parameters:

*p1 and *p2 act like **aliases** for the variables in the call of swap.

When you change *p1 and *p2 you are changing the values of the variables in the call.

To set up these aliases you need to use **&a, &b** in the call.

Otherwise, calls are like Xerox copies (except for arrays which also use aliases)

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Sorting

Problem: Sort 3 integers

Three-step algorithm:

1. Read in three integers: x, y, z
2. Put smallest in x:
Swap x, y if necessary; then swap x, z, if necessary.
3. Put second smallest in y:
Swap y, z, if necessary.

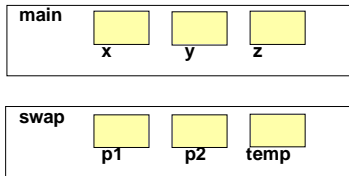
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Sort 3 Integers

```
int main (void) {  
    int x, y, z, scanStatus ;  
    ...  
    scanStatus = scanf ("%d%d%d", &x, &y, &z) ;  
    if scanStatus == 3 {  
        if ( x > y ) swap (&x, &y) ;  
        if ( x > z ) swap (&x, &z) ;  
        if ( y > z ) swap (&y, &z) ;  
    }  
    ...
```

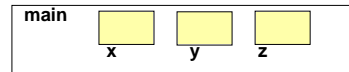
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Trace

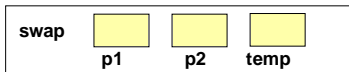


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Trace



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sort3 as a Function

```
/* interchange values as needed to establish */  
/* *xp <= *yp <= *zp */  
void sort3 (int *xp, int *yp, int *zp) {  
    if ( *xp > *yp) swap(xp, yp);  
    if ( *xp > *zp) swap(xp, zp); ← NO &s!  
    if ( *yp > *zp) swap(yp, zp);  
}  
  
int main(void) {  
    int x, y, z;  
    ... /*scanf the values, then: */  
    sort3(&x, &y, &z);  
    ...  
}
```

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Why no & in swap call?

Real reason

xp and yp are **already** pointers that point to the variables that we want to swap

Alternative explanation using alias idea

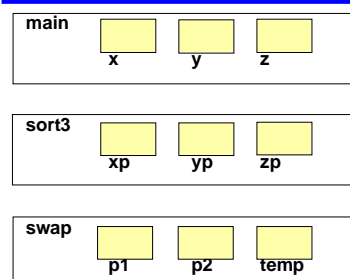
*xp and *yp are aliases for the variables we want to swap

We want to allow swap to use aliases for *xp and *yp so we should use &(*xp) and &(*yp) in the call

BUT xp==&(*xp) and yp==&(*yp) !!!!

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Trace



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C is "strongly typed"

```
int i; int *ip;
double x; double *xp;

...
x = i;      /* no problem */
i = x;      /* not recommended */

ip = 30;    /* No way */
ip = i;     /* Nope */
ip = &i;    /* just fine */
ip = &x;    /* forget it! */
xp = ip;    /* bad */
&i = ip;    /* meaningless */
```

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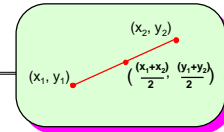
Midpoint Of A Line

/* Given 2 endpoints of a line, "return" coordinates of midpoint */

```
void set_midpoint(
    double x1, double y1,      /* 1st endpoint */
    double x2, double y2,      /* 2nd endpoint */
    double *midx_p, double *midy_p) /* Pointers to midpoint */
{
    *midx_p = (x1 + x2) / 2.0;
    *midy_p = (y1 + y2) / 2.0;
}
```

```
double x_end, y_end, mx, my;
```

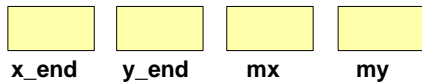
```
...
set_midpoint(0.0, 0.0, x_end, y_end, &mx, &my);
```



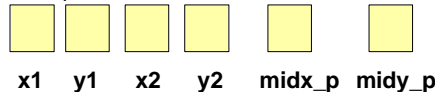
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Trace

main



set_midpoint



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Example: Coordinates

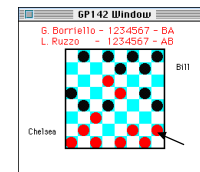
Board Coordinates

row, column

Screen Coordinates

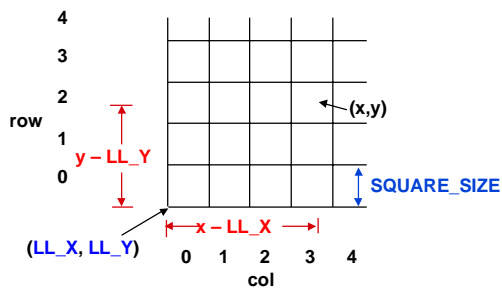
x, y

used by graphics package



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Coordinate Conversion



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Coordinate Conversion

```
#define LL_X 40
#define LL_Y 20
#define SQUARE_SIZE 10
```

```
void screen_to_board (
    int screenx, int screeny, /* coordinates on screen */
    int *row_p, int *col_p) /* position on board */
{
    *row_p = (screeny - LL_Y) / SQUARE_SIZE;
    *col_p = (screenx - LL_X) / SQUARE_SIZE;
}
```

```
screen_to_board(x, y, &row, &col);
```

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Pointers vs. Values

	in caller	in callee
Declaration:	<code>int x</code>	<code>int *x_ptr</code>
To get the address of x:	<code>&x</code>	<code>x_ptr</code>
To get the value of x:	<code>x</code>	<code>*x_ptr</code>

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& in scanf again

```
void Read_a_or_b(char *chp) {
    char temp;
    printf("Enter an 'a' or a 'b'.\n");
    scanf("%c", &temp);
    while (temp != 'a' && temp != 'b') {
        printf("\nNope, it must be 'a' or 'b'\n");
        scanf("%c", &temp);
    }
    *chp = temp;
}

int main(void) {
    char ch_ab;
    Read_a_or_b(&ch_ab);
    ...
}
```

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& in scanf again

Moral:
Wrong rule: "always use &'s in scanf"
Right rule: "always use addresses in scanf"

```
void Read_a_or_b(char *chp) {
    printf("Enter an 'a' or a 'b'.\n");
    scanf("%c", chp);
    while (*chp != 'a' && *chp != 'b') {
        printf("\nSorry, try again\n");
        scanf("%c", chp);
    }
}

int main(void) {
    char ch_ab;
    Read_a_or_b(&ch_ab);
    ...
}
```

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Additional Slides

- These are copied from the end of the Iteration slides

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Event-Driven Programming

- Modern programs tend to be "event-driven"
 - Program starts, sets itself up.
 - Program enters a loop, waiting for some event or command to happen:
 - mouse click, key click, timer, menu selection, etc.
 - Program performs operation ("handles" the event or command)
 - Program goes back to its wait loop
- GP142 programs follow this model

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Simple Command Interpreter

Repeatedly read in "commands" and handle them.

Input (symbolized by single characters)

```
a -- execute command A by calling A_handler()
b -- execute command B by calling B_handler()
q -- quit
```

Pseudocode for main loop:

```
get next command
if a, execute command A
if b, execute command B
if q, signal quit
```

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Command Interpreter Loop Control Schema

repeat until quit signal
use variable "done" to indicate when done

```
set done to false
while not done
  body statements
if quit command, set done to true
```

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Command Interpreter main ()

```
#define FALSE 0
#define TRUE 1

int main(void) {
  char command;
  int done;

  done = FALSE;
  while (!done) {
    /* Input command from user */
    command = ReadCommand();

    switch (command) {
      case 'A':
        A_handler(); /* Execute command A */
        break;
      case 'B':
        B_handler(); /* Execute command B */
        break;
      case 'Q':
        done = TRUE; /* quit */
        break;
      default:
        printf("Unrecognized command\n");
    }
  }
  return 0;
}
```

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do ... while

• Sometimes we want a loop to execute its body at least once before checking its condition

– The command interpreter loop is a good example!

• In C, we can do this with a **do ... while** loop

• Similar to regular *while*, but **condition** is written (and tested) after the loop body

```
do {
  ... /*loop body */
}
while (condition);
```

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Command Interpreter main () with do...while

```
#define FALSE 0
#define TRUE 1

int main(void) {
  char command;
  int done;

  done = FALSE;
  do {
    command = ReadCommand();

    switch (command) {
      case 'A':
        A_handler(); /* Execute command A */
        break;
      case 'B':
        B_handler(); /* Execute command B */
        break;
      case 'Q':
        done = TRUE; /* quit */
        break;
      default:
        printf("Unrecognized command\n");
    }
  } while (!done);
  return 0;
}
```

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Additional Slides

- These slides were adapted from the first Functions unit and/or the Files, Libraries, and I/O unit

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Some HW3 Mysteries Revealed...

Remember this from hw3_orig.c?

```
/* Function prototypes for the functions contained in HW3.lib */
```

```
void ExitProgram (void); /* Call this to...
```

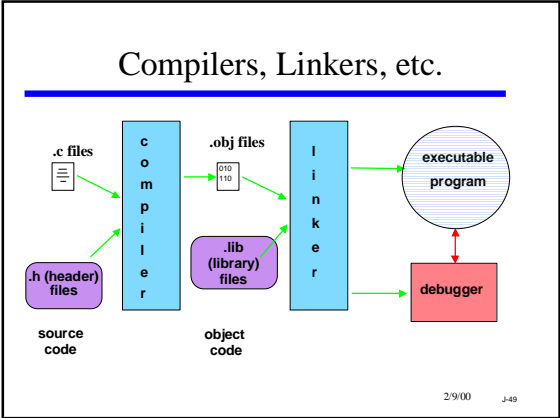
```
int ReadMonth (void); /* Prompts user and ...
```

```
int GetWeekday(int month, int day, int year); /* Returns...
```

What exactly are prototypes, and what exactly are libraries?

Let's start by reviewing the process of building a C program

2/9/00 J-48



Files Used in Compiling

- **Source Files**
 - **.c files:** C programs and functions
 - **.h ("header") files:** fragments of C code
real-world projects may contain hundreds of source files!
- **Compiled Files (system-dependent names)**
 - **object files:** compiled C code ready to link
 - **libraries:** collections of compiled C functions
 - **executable files:** linked machine-language, ready to load into memory

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Libraries

Files of compiled, pre-written functions

Why?

- Reuse existing code
- Enhance portability
- Hide system dependencies

Examples: hw3lib, standard C I/O lib

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Function Prototypes

- A dilemma: If one .c file wants to call a function from a library (or from another .c file)
 - the compiler needs to know: function name, return type, parameter types
- This is done with a “prototype” for the function
 - Looks much like the start of a function definition

int GetWeekday(int month, int day, int year);

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Using Prototypes

- The prototypes can be coded directly into the .c program that uses them
 - This is what we did for the hw3lib functions
- It is more common to create a .h file for each library or each shared .c file
 - Example: stdio.h contains prototypes for the I/O functions of the ANSI C library
- Large programs typically consist of multiple .c files, *each* with a corresponding .h file

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More About Header (.h) Files

- Fragments of C code:
 - Function Prototypes
 - Symbolic Constants
 - Global Variable Declarations
 - Type Definitions (*typedef*)

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Another Use For Prototypes

- The ordering rule for C identifiers requires that the function names be declared before they can be used (in a call).
- Defining all the functions in the proper order is sometimes impossible or inconvenient
 - function A calls B, and B calls A
 - A calls B, but we would rather write B after A in the program
- Solution: *Put a prototype for the function near the top of the program, then define the function anywhere convenient later on*
 - order is now unimportant

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