

# **Call-by-Reference Functions**

## **Procedural Abstractions**

## **Numerical Conversions**

**CS 16: Solving Problems with Computers I**  
**Lecture #9**

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# Announcements

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- **Homework #8 due today**
- **Lab #5 is due on Friday at Noon**
- Homework Solutions are now online at:  
<http://cs.ucsb.edu/~zmatni/cs16/hwSolutions/>
- Your grades are NOT ON GAUCHOSPACE anymore.  
Instead go to:  
[http://cs.ucsb.edu/~zmatni/cs16/CS16Grades\\_Fa2016.htm](http://cs.ucsb.edu/~zmatni/cs16/CS16Grades_Fa2016.htm)

# Lecture Outline

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- Call-By-Reference Parameters
- Using Procedural Abstraction
  
- Binary Arithmetic 1:
  - Conversions

# Call-by-Value vs Call-by-Reference

- When you call a function, your arguments are getting passed on as *values*
  - At least, with what we've seen so far...
  - The call **func(a, b)** passes on the *values* of **a** and **b**
- You can also call a function with your arguments used as *references* to the actual variable location in memory
  - Why would we want to do that?



# Call-by-Reference Parameters

- “Call-by-reference” parameters allow us to change the **variable** used in the function call
- Arguments for call-by-reference parameters must be variables, not numbers
  - i.e. `fn(var)`, not `fn(5)`
- We use the ampersand symbol (**&**) to distinguish a variable as being called-by-reference, in a function definition

# Call-by-Reference Parameters

- Recall that, up until now, we have changed the values of formal parameters in a function body, **but we have not changed the arguments found in the function call!**
  - Example: when you call **func(a, b, c)**, you might get a returned value for **func**, but **a**, **b**, and **c** do not change after the call.
- So if you want to get an input (via **cin**) using a function using call-by-value, it wouldn't work!

# Call-by-Reference Example

```
void get_input(double& f_variable)
{
    using namespace std;
    cout << " Convert a Fahrenheit temperature"
         << " to Celsius.\n"
         << " Enter a temperature in Fahrenheit: ";
    cin >> f_variable;
}
```

- **'&'** symbol (ampersand) identifies **f\_variable** as a call-by-reference parameter
  - Has to be used in both declaration and definition!

# Call-By-Reference Details

- Call-by-reference works almost as if the argument **variable itself** is substituted for the formal parameter, not the argument's **value**
- In reality, it's the ***memory location of the argument variable*** that is given to the formal parameter
  - Whatever is done to a formal parameter in the function body, is ***actually done to the value at the memory location of the argument variable***



# Call-by-Reference Behavior

- Assume variables **first** and **second** are assigned memory addresses **1010** and **1012** by the compiler, respectively
- Now a function call executes: `get_numbers(first, second);`
- The function is defined as:

```
void get_numbers(int& first, int& second) {  
    cout << "Enter two integers: "  
    cin >> first >> second; }
```

- The function may as well say:

```
void get_numbers(the int variable at memory location 1010,  
the int variable at memory location 1012) {  
    cout << "Enter two integers: "  
    cin >> the variable at memory location 1010;  
    >> the variable at memory location 1012; }
```

# Call-by-Reference Behavior

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- After the function is called, the values of **first** and **second** are changed – not just in the function, but in actual memory
- The values of **first** and **second** are in the calling block

# Call by-Reference vs by-Value

- Call-by-reference

- The function call:

`f(age);`

## Memory

Name	Location	Contents
age	1001	34
initial	1002	A
hours	1003	23.5
	1004	

`void f(int& ref_par);`

- Call-by-value

- The function call:

`f(age);`

`void f(int var_par);`

# Example: swap\_values

```
void swap(int& variable1, int& variable2)
{
    int temp = variable1;
    variable1 = variable2;
    variable2 = temp;
}
```

- If called with `swap(first_num, second_num);`
  - `first_num` is substituted for `variable1` in the parameter list
  - `second_num` is substituted for `variable2` in the parameter list
  - `temp` is assigned the value of `variable1` (`first_num`) since the next line will lose the value in `first_num`
  - `variable1` (`first_num`) is assigned the value in `variable2` (`second_num`)
  - `variable2` (`second_num`) is assigned the original value of `variable1` (`first_num`) which was stored in `temp`



# Mixed Parameter Lists

- Call-by-value and call-by-reference parameters can be mixed in the same function

- Example:

```
void good_stuff(int& par1, int par2, double& par3);
```

- par1 and par3 are call-by-reference formal parameters
  - Changes in par1 and par3 change the argument variable
- par2 is a call-by-value formal parameter
  - Changes in par2 do not change the argument variable

# Choosing Parameter Types

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- How do you decide whether a call-by-reference or call-by-value formal parameter is needed?
- Does the function need to change the value of the variable used as an argument?
  - Yes? Use a call-by-reference formal parameter
  - No? Use a call-by-value formal parameter

# Caution!

## Inadvertent Local Variables

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- Forgetting the ampersand (&) creates a call-by-value parameter
  - The value of the variable will not be changed
- The formal parameter is a local variable that has no effect outside the function
  - Hard error to find...it looks right!





# Using Procedural Abstraction

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- Functions should be designed so they can be used as black boxes
- To use a function, the declaration and comment should be sufficient
- Programmer should not need to know the details of the function to use it

# Functions Calling Functions

- A function body may contain a call to another function
- The called function declaration must still appear before it is called
- Functions **cannot be defined** in the body of another function

```
void order (int&, int&);  
void swap_values (int&, int&);
```

```
int main () {  
...  
...  
    order (a, b);  
...  
...  
    return 0; }  
}
```

```
void order(int& n1, int& n2) {  
    if (n1 > n2)  
        swap_values(n1, n2); }  
}
```

```
void swap_values(int& n1, int& n2) {  
    int temp = n2;  
    n2 = n1;  
    n1 = temp; }  
}
```

# Pre- and Post-Conditions

*Concepts of pre-condition and post-condition*

## **Pre-condition**

- States what is assumed to be true when the function is called
- Function should not be used unless the precondition holds

## **Post-condition**

- Describes the effect of the function call
- Tells what will be true after the function is executed (when the precondition holds)
- If the function returns a value, that value is described
- Changes to call-by-reference parameters are described

# swap\_values revisited

- Using preconditions and postconditions the declaration of **swap\_values** becomes:

```
void swap_values(int& n1, int& n2);  
//Precondition:  variable1 and variable2 have  
//              been given values  
// Postcondition: The values of variable1 and  
//              variable2 have been interchanged
```



# Function Celsius

- Preconditions and post-conditions make the declaration for `celsius()`:

```
double celsius(double fahrenheit);  
//Precondition: fahrenheit is a temperature  
//              expressed in degrees Fahrenheit  
//Postcondition: Returns the equivalent temperature  
//              expressed in degrees Celsius
```

# Why use Pre- and Post-conditions?

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- Pre-conditions and post-conditions should be the first step in designing a function
- Specify what a function should do:
  - Always specify what a function should do before designing how the function will do it
  - This minimizes design errors and time wasted writing code that doesn't match the task at hand

# Case Study: Supermarket Pricing

## ***Problem definition***

- Determine the retail price of an item, given a suitable input
  - 5% markup if item should sell in a week
  - 10% markup if item expected to take more than a week
  - 5% for up to 7 days, changes to 10% at 8 days

## ***Primary analysis***

- Input:
  - The wholesale price and the estimate of days until item sells (turnover)
- Output:
  - The retail price of the item
- **What subtasks do you think we need here?**

# Supermarket Pricing: Problem Analysis

- Three main subtasks:
  - Input the data
  - Compute the retail price of the item
  - Output the results
- Each task can be implemented with a function
  - Note the use of **call-by-value** and **call-by-reference** parameters in the following function declarations (next slide)



# Supermarket Pricing: Function `get_input`

- Three main subtasks:
  - Input the data
  - Compute the retail price of the item
  - Output the results

```
void get_input(double& cost, int& turnover);  
//Precondition: User is ready to enter values correctly.  
//Postcondition: The value of cost has been set to  
//                the wholesale cost of one item.  
//  
//                The value of turnover has been  
//                set to the expected number of  
//                days until the item is sold.
```

# Supermarket Pricing: Function **price**

- Three main subtasks:
  - Input the data
  - Compute the retail price of the item
  - Output the results

```
double price(double cost, int turnover);  
//Precondition: cost is the wholesale cost of one item  
//              turnover is the expected  
//              number of days until the item is sold.  
//  
//Postcondition: returns the retail price of the item
```

# Supermarket Pricing: Function `give_output`

- Three main subtasks:
  - Input the data
  - Compute the retail price of the item
  - Output the results

```
void give_output(double cost, int turnover, double price);  
//Precondition: cost is the wholesale cost of one item;  
//              turnover is the expected time until sale  
//              of the item;  
//              price is the retail price of the item.  
//  
//Postcondition: The values of cost, turnover, and price  
//              are written to the screen.
```

# Supermarket Pricing: **main()** function

- With the functions declared, we can write the main function:

```
int main()
{
    double wholesale_cost, retail_price;
    int shelf_time;

    get_input(wholesale_cost, shelf_time);

    retail_price = price(wholesale_cost, shelf_time);

    give_output(wholesale_cost, shelf_time, retail_price);

    return 0;
}
```



# Supermarket Pricing: Algorithm Design of **price** function

- Implementations of **get\_input** and **give\_output** are straightforward, so we'll concentrate on the price function
- pseudocode for the price function:
  - If turnover  $\leq 7$  days then  
    return (cost + 5% of cost);  
else  
    return (cost + 10% of cost);

# Supermarket Pricing:

## Constants for the **price** function

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- The mark-up values and the threshold number won't change, so we can represent them with constants:

```
const double LOW_MARKUP = 0.05; // 5%
const double HIGH_MARKUP = 0.10; // 10%
const int THRESHOLD = 7; // At 8 days use HIGH_MARKUP
```

# Supermarket Pricing: Coding the **price** function

- The body of the price function

```
{  
    if (turnover <= THRESHOLD)  
        return ( cost + (LOW_MARKUP * cost) ) ;  
    else  
        return ( cost + ( HIGH_MARKUP * cost) ) ;  
}
```

- See the complete program in the textbook, Chapter 5, pages 279-280

# Supermarket Pricing : Program Testing

- What are some testing strategies that we can use?
  - TEST COVERAGE: Covering all possible conditions of inputs and checking the outputs against expected results.
- Use data that tests both the high and low markup cases
  - Test boundary conditions, where the program is expected to change behavior or make a choice
  - In function **price**, 7 days is a boundary condition
  - Test for exactly 7 days as well as one day more and one day less





# Counting Numbers in Different Bases

- We “normally” count in 10s
  - Base 10: **decimal** numbers
  - Number symbols are 0 thru 9
- Computers count in 2s
  - Base 2: **binary** numbers
  - Number symbols are 0 and 1
  - Represented with **1 bit** ( $2^1 = 2$ )
- Other convenient bases in computer architecture:
  - Base 8: **octal** numbers
  - Number symbols are 0 thru 7
  - Represented with **3 bits** ( $2^3 = 8$ )
  - Base 16: **hexadecimal** numbers
  - Number symbols are 0 thru F
    - A = 10, B = 11, C = 12, D = 13, E = 14, F = 15
  - Represented with **4 bits** ( $2^4 = 16$ )
  - **Why are 4 bit representations convenient???**

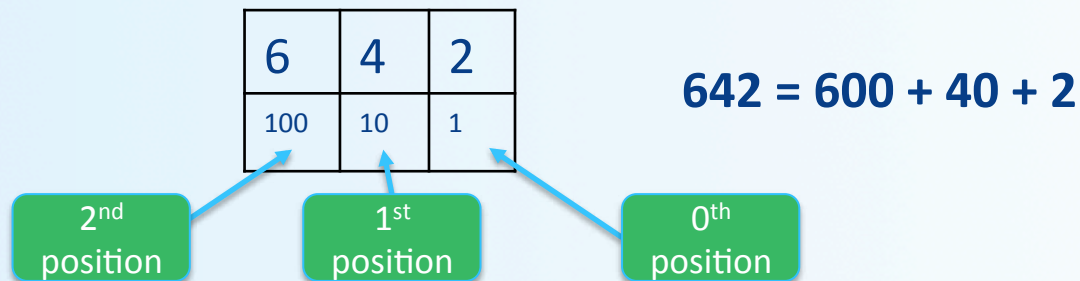
# Natural Numbers

Counting **642** as  $600 + 40 + 2$   
is counting in TENS (aka BASE 10)

There are 6 HUNDREDS

There are 4 TENS

There are 2 ONES



# Positional Notation in Decimal

Continuing with our example...

**642** in base 10 *positional notation* is:

$$\begin{aligned} 6 \times 10^2 &= 6 \times 100 &= 600 \\ + 4 \times 10^1 &= 4 \times 10 &= 40 \\ + 2 \times 10^0 &= 2 \times 1 &= 2 \end{aligned} \quad = 642 \text{ in base 10}$$



# Positional Notation

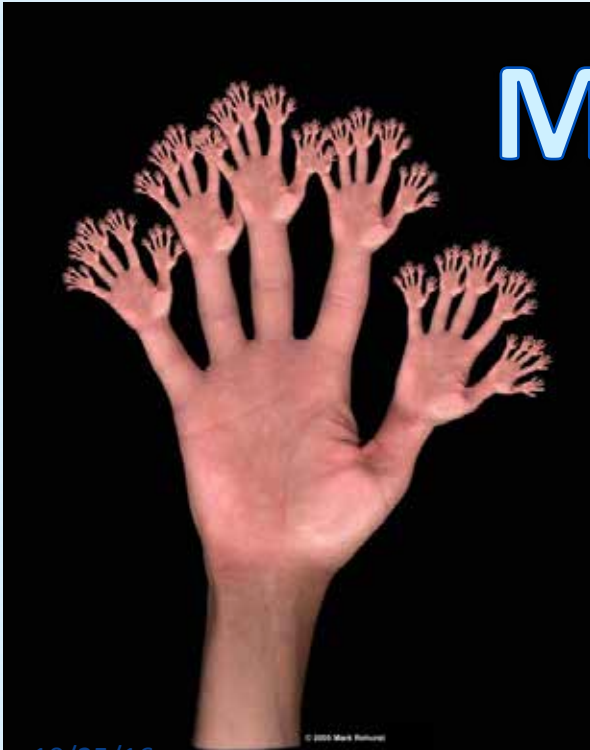
Anything → DEC

*What if “642” is expressed in the base of 13?*

$$\begin{aligned} 6 \times 13^2 &= 6 \times 169 = 1014 \\ + 4 \times 13^1 &= 4 \times 13 = 52 \\ + 2 \times 13^0 &= 2 \times 1 = 2 \\ &= 1068 \text{ in base 10} \end{aligned}$$

**So, “642” in base 13 is equivalent to  
“1068” in base 10**

# BUT WHO COUNTS IN BASE 13???!?!?



Maybe, aliens with  
13 fingers???

# HUMANS LIKE TO COUNT IN BASE 10



We have 10 fingers...

Coincidence????

(probably the reason, but it's historically unverified)



# COMPUTERS ARE DIGITAL MACHINES

THEY ARE DESIGNED  
TO COUNT IN...

2



# Positional Notation in Binary

**11011** in base 2 *positional notation* is:

$$\begin{aligned} & 1 \times 2^4 = 1 \times 16 = 16 \\ + & 1 \times 2^3 = 1 \times 8 = 8 \\ + & 1 \times 2^2 = 1 \times 4 = 4 \\ + & 0 \times 2^1 = 1 \times 2 = 0 \\ + & 1 \times 2^0 = 1 \times 1 = 1 \end{aligned}$$

So, **1011** in base 2 is  $16 + 8 + 0 + 2 + 1 = \mathbf{27}$  in base 10

# Converting Binary to Decimal

*Q: What is the decimal equivalent of the binary number **1101110**?*

*A: Look for the position of the digits in the number.  
This one has 7 digits, therefore positions 0 thru 6*

<b>1</b>	<b>1</b>	<b>0</b>	<b>1</b>	<b>1</b>	<b>1</b>	<b>0</b>
64	32	16	8	4	2	1
$2^6$	$2^5$	$2^4$	$2^3$	$2^2$	$2^1$	$2^0$

$$\begin{aligned} & \mathbf{1} \times 2^6 = \mathbf{1} \times 64 = 64 \\ + & \mathbf{1} \times 2^5 = \mathbf{1} \times 32 = 32 \\ + & \mathbf{0} \times 2^4 = \mathbf{0} \times 16 = 0 \\ + & \mathbf{1} \times 2^3 = \mathbf{1} \times 8 = 8 \\ + & \mathbf{1} \times 2^2 = \mathbf{1} \times 4 = 4 \\ + & \mathbf{1} \times 2^1 = \mathbf{1} \times 2 = 2 \\ + & \mathbf{0} \times 2^0 = \mathbf{0} \times 1 = 0 \\ & = \mathbf{110} \text{ in base 10} \end{aligned}$$

# Converting Binary to Octal and Hexadecimal

*(or any base that's a power of 2)*

- Binary is 1 bit
- Octal is 3 bits
- Hexadecimal is 4 bits
- Use the “group the bits” technique
  - Always start from the *least significant digit*
  - Group every 3 bits together for bin → oct
  - Group every 4 bits together for bin → hex

# Converting Binary to Octal and Hexadecimal

- Take the example: **10100110**

*...to octal:*

1 0	1 0 0	1 1 0
<b>2</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>6</b>

**246 in octal**

*...to hexadecimal:*

1 0 1 0	0 1 1 0
<b>10</b>	<b>6</b>

**A6 in hexadecimal**



# Converting Decimal to Other Bases

## Algorithm for converting number in base 10 to other bases

While (the quotient is not zero)

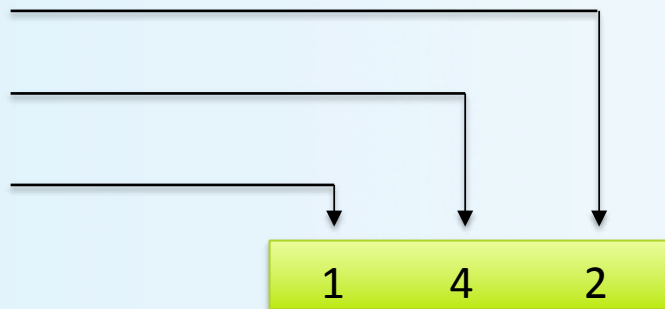
1. Divide the decimal number by the **new base**
2. Make the **remainder** the next digit to the **left** in the answer
3. Replace the original decimal number with the **quotient**
4. Repeat until your quotient is zero

**Example: What is 98 (base 10) in base 8?**

$$98 / 8 = 12 R 2$$

$$12 / 8 = 1 R 4$$

$$1 / 8 = 0 R 1$$



# Converting Decimal into Binary

## Convert 54 (base 10) into binary and hex:

- $54 / 2 = 27 \text{ R } 0$
- $27 / 2 = 13 \text{ R } 1$
- $13 / 2 = 6 \text{ R } 1$
- $6 / 2 = 3 \text{ R } 0$
- $3 / 2 = 1 \text{ R } 1$
- $1 / 2 = 0 \text{ R } 1$

Sanity check:

*110110*

*= 2 + 4 + 16 + 32*

*= 54*

**54 (decimal) = 110110 (binary)  
= 36 (hex)**

# TO DOs

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- Homework #9 due Thursday 10/27
- Lab #5
  - Due Friday, 10/28, at noon

**</LECTURE>**