Functions

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## Introduction

- Function
- A self-contained program segment that carries out some specific, well-defined task.
- Some properties:
- Every C program consists of one or more functions.
- One of these functions must be called "main".
- Execution of the program always begins by carrying out the instructions in "main".
- A function will carry out its intended action whenever it is called or invoked.
- In general, a function will process information that is passed to it from the calling portion of the program, and return a single value.
- Information is passed to the function via special identifiers called arguments or parameters.
- The value is returned by the "return" statement.
- Some function may not return anything.
- Return data type specified as "void".


$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { Output: } \\
& \hline 1!=1 \\
& 2!=2 \\
& 3!=6 \\
& 4!=24 \\
& 5!=120 \\
& 6!=720 \\
& 7!=5040 \\
& 8!=40320 \\
& 9!=362880 \\
& 10!=3628800
\end{aligned}
$$

\#include <stdio.h>
int factorial (int m)
\{ int i, temp=1;
for (i=1; i<=m; i++)
temp = temp * i;
return (temp);
$\} \quad$

```
int main()
\{
    int \(n\);
    for \(\quad(n=11 ; n<=20 ; n++)\)
        printf \(\left(" \% d!=\% d \backslash n^{\prime \prime}\right.\),
                                n, factorial (n));
\}
```

```
#include <stdio.h>
long int factorial (int m)
{
    int i; long int temp=1;
    for (i=1; i<=m; i++)
        temp = temp * i;
    return (temp);
}
```

int main()
\{
int $n$;
for $\quad(n=11 ; n<=20 ; n++)$
printf ("\%d! = \%ld \n",
n, factorial (n));
\}

## Why Functions?

- Functions
- Allows one to develop a program in a modular fashion.
- Divide-and-conquer approach.
- All variables declared inside functions are local variables.
- Known only in function defined.
- There are exceptions (to be discussed later).
- Parameters
- Communicate information between functions.
- They also become local variables.
- Benefits
- Divide and conquer
- Manageable program development.
- Construct a program from small pieces or components.
- Software reusability
- Use existing functions as building blocks for new programs.
- Abstraction: hide internal details (library functions).


## Defining a Function

- A function definition has two parts:
- The first line.
- The body of the function.
return-value-type function-name (parameterlist )
\{
declarations and statements
\}
- The first line contains the return-value-type, the function name, and optionally a set of comma-separated arguments enclosed in parentheses.
- Each argument has an associated type declaration.
- The arguments are called formal arguments or formal parameters.
- Example:

```
int gcd (int A, int B)
```

- The argument data types can also be declared on the next line:

```
int gcd (A, B)
int A, B;
```

- The body of the function is actually a compound statement that defines the action to be taken by the function.

```
int gcd (int A, int B)
{ int temp;
    while ((B % A) != 0) {
        temp = B % A;
        B = A;
        A = temp;
    }
    return (A);
}
```



- When a function is called from some other function, the corresponding arguments in the function call are called actual arguments or actual parameters.
- The formal and actual arguments must match in their data types.
- Point to note:
- The identifiers used as formal arguments are "local".
- Not recognized outside the function.
- Names of formal and actual arguments may differ.

```
#include <stdio.h>
/* Compute the GCD of four numbers */
main()
{
    int n1, n2, n3, n4, result;
    scanf ("%d %d %d %d", &n1, &n2, &n3, &n4);
    result = gcd ( gcd (n1, n2), gcd (n3, n4) );
    printf ("The GCD of %d, %d, %d and %d is %d \n",
                        n1, n2, n3, n4, result);
}
```


## Function Not Returning Any Value

- Example: A function which prints if a number if divisible by 7 or not.

```
void div7 (int n)
{
    if ((n % 7) == 0)
        printf ("%d is divisible by 7", n);
    else
        printf ("%d is not divisible by 7", n);
    return;
}
```



- Returning control
- If nothing returned
- return;
- or, until reaches right brace
- If something returned
- return expression;


## Some Points

- A function cannot be defined within another function.
- All function definitions must be disjoint.
- Nested function calls are allowed.
- A calls B, B calls C, C calls D, etc.
- The function called last will be the first to return.
- A function can also call itself, either directly or in a cycle.
- A calls A
- A calls B, B calls C, C calls back A.
- Called recursive call or recursion.


## Example:: main calls ncr, ncr calls fact

```
#include <stdio.h>
int ncr (int n, int r);
int fact (int n);
main()
{
    int i, m, n, sum=0;
    scanf ("%d %d", &m, &n);
    for (i=1; i<=m; i+=2)
        sum = sum + ncr(n,i);
    printf ("Result: %d \n",
        sum);
}
```

```
int ncr (int n, int r)
{
    return (fact(n) /
        fact(r) / fact(n-r));
}
int fact (int n)
{
    int i, temp=1;
    for (i=1; i<=n; i++)
        temp *= i;
    return (temp);
}
```

```
#include <stdio.h>
int A;
void main()
\(\left\{\begin{array}{l}A=1 ; \\ \operatorname{myProc}() ; \\ \operatorname{printf}(" A=\% d \backslash n ", A) ; \\ \}\end{array}\right.\)
        void myProc()
```



## Variable Scope

Output:
$A=3$
$A=2$
$A=1$

## 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
printf ("\%£", sqrt(900.0));
- Calls function sqrt, which returns the square root of its argument.
- All math functions return data type double.
- Arguments may be constants, variables, or expressions.


## Math Library Functions

double acos(double x)
double asin(double x)
double atan(double x)
double atan2(double $y$, double $x$ )
double ceil(double x)
double floor(double x)
double cos(double x)
double cosh(double x)
double $\sin$ (double $x$ )
double sinh(double x)
double $\tan$ (double x )
double tanh(double x)
double exp(double $x$ )
double fabs (double x)
double log(double x)
double log10 (double x)
double pow (double $x$, double $y$ )
double sqrt(double x )

- Compute arc cosine of x .
- Compute arc sine of x .
- Compute arc tangent of $x$.
- Compute arc tangent of $y / x$.
- Get smallest integer that exceeds $x$.
- Get largest integral value less than $x$.
- Compute cosine of angle in radians.
- Compute the hyperbolic cosine of x .
- Compute sine of angle in radians.
- Compute the hyperbolic sine of $x$.
- Compute tangent of angle in radians.
- Compute the hyperbolic tangent of x .
- Compute exponential of $x$.
- Compute absolute value of $x$.
- Compute log to the base e of $x$.
- Compute log to the base 10 of x .
- Compute x raised to the power $y$.
- Compute the square root of $x$.


## An example

```
#include <stdio.h>
#include <math.h>
int main()
{
    double value, result;
    float a, b;
    value = 2345.6; a=23.5;
    result = sqrt(value);
    b = pow(23.5,4);
    printf ("\nresult = %f, b = %f", result, b);
}
```

Must be compiled as:
gcc examp.c -lm


Link math library

## Function Prototypes

- Usually, a function is defined before it is called.
- main() is the last function in the program.
- Easy for the compiler to identify function definitions in a single scan through the file.
- However, many programmers prefer a top-down approach, where the functions follow main().
- Must be some way to tell the compiler.
- Function prototypes are used for this purpose.
- Only needed if function definition comes after use.
- Function prototypes are usually written at the beginning of a program, ahead of any functions (including main()).
- Examples:
int $\operatorname{gcd}(i n t A, i n t B)$;
void div7 (int number) ;
- Note the semicolon at the end of the line.
- The argument names can be different; but it is a good practice to use the same names as in the function definition.


## Example:: function prototypes

```
#include <stdio.h>
int ncr (int n, int r);
int fact (int n);
main()
{
    int i, m, n, sum=0;
    scanf ("%d %d", &m, &n);
    for (i=1; i<=m; i+=2)
        sum = sum + ncr(n,i);
        printf ("Result: %d \n",
        sum);
}
```

```
int ncr (int n, int r)
{
    return (fact(n) /
    fact(r) / fact(n-r));
}
int fact (int n)
{
    int i, temp=1;
    for (i=1; i<=n; i++)
        temp *= i;
    return (temp);
}
```


## Header Files

- Header files
- Contain function prototypes for library functions.
- <stdlib.h>, <math.h>, etc.
_ Load with: \#include <filename>
- Example:
\#include <math.h>
- Custom header files
- Create file(s) with function definitions.
- Save as filename.h (say).
_ Load in other files with \#include "filename.h"
- Reuse functions.


## Calling Functions: Call by Value and Call by Reference

- Used when invoking functions.
- Call by value
- Copy of argument passed to function.
- Changes in function do not affect original.
- Use when function does not need to modify argument.
- Avoids accidental changes.
- Call by reference.
- Passes the reference to the original argument.
- Execution of the function may affect the original.
- Not directly supported in C - can be effected using pointers.

C supports only "call by value"

## Example: Random Number Generation

- rand function
- Prototype defined in <stdlib.h>
- Returns "random" number between 0 and RAND_MAX

$$
\text { i }=\operatorname{rand}() ;
$$

- Pseudorandom
- Preset sequence of "random" numbers
- Same sequence for every function call
- Scaling
- To get a random number between 1 and $n$

$$
1+(\operatorname{rand}() \% n)
$$

- To simulate the roll of a dice:

$$
1+(\operatorname{rand}() \div 6)
$$

## Random Number Generation: Contd.

- srand function
- Prototype defined in <stdlib.h>
- Takes an integer seed, and randomizes the random number generator.
srand (seed);
\#include <stdio.h>
\#include <stdio.h>
\#include <stdlib.h>
\#include <stdlib.h>
int main()
int main()
{
{
int i;
int i;
unsigned seed;
unsigned seed;
printf ("Enter seed: ");
printf ("Enter seed: ");
scanf ("%u", \&seed);
scanf ("%u", \&seed);
srand (seed);
srand (seed);
for (i = 1; i <= 10; i++)
for (i = 1; i <= 10; i++)
{
{
printf ("%10d ", 1 + (rand() % 6));
printf ("%10d ", 1 + (rand() % 6));
if (i % 5 == 0)
if (i % 5 == 0)
printf ("\n");
printf ("\n");
}
}
return 0;
return 0;
}
}


## Program Output

| Enter seed: 67 |  |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 6 | 1 | 4 | 6 | 2 |
| 1 | 6 | 1 | 6 | 4 |


| Enter seed: 867 |  |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 2 | 4 | 6 | 1 | 6 |
| 1 | 1 | 3 | 6 | 2 |

Enter seed: 67

| 6 | 1 |
| :--- | :--- |
| 1 | 6 |


|  | 4 |
| :--- | :--- |
| 6 | 1 |


| 6 | 2 |
| :--- | :--- |
| 6 | 4 |

## \#define: Macro definition

- Preprocessor directive in the following form:
\#define string1 string2
- Replaces stringl by string2 wherever it occurs before compilation.
- For example,
\#define PI 3.1415926
\#define discr b*b-4*a*c


## \#define: Macro definition

```
#include <stdio.h>
#define PI 3.1415926
main()
{
    float r=4.0, area;
    area = PI*r*r;
}
```

```
#include <stdio.h>
main()
{
    float r=4.0, area;
    area = 3.1415926*r*r;
}
```


## \#define with arguments

- \#define statement may be used with arguments.
- Example: \#define sqr(x) x*x
- How macro substitution will be carried out?

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
r=\operatorname{sqr}(a)+\operatorname{sqr}(30) ; & \rightarrow r=a * a+30 * 30 ; \\
r=\operatorname{sqr}(a+b) ; & \rightarrow r=a+b * a+b ;
\end{array}
$$

- The macro definitionshould have been written as: \#define $\operatorname{sqr}(x)(x) *(x)$

$$
r=(a+b) *(a+b) ;
$$

## Recursion: Function calling itself

## Recursion

- A process by which a function calls itself repeatedly. - Either directly.
- X calls X.
- Or cyclically in a chain.
- X calls Y , and Y calls X .
- Used for repetitive computations in which each action is stated in terms of a previous result.

$$
\operatorname{fact}(n)=n * \text { fact }(n-1)
$$

## Contd.

- For a problem to be written in recursive form, two conditions are to be satisfied:
- It should be possible to express the problem in recursive form.
- The problem statement must include a stopping condition.

$$
\begin{array}{llll}
\operatorname{fact}(n) & =1, & & \text { if } n=0 \\
& =n * \operatorname{fact}(n-1), & & \text { if } n>0
\end{array}
$$

- Examples:
- Factorial:

```
    fact(0) = 1
    fact(n) = n * fact(n-1), if n > 0
```

- GCD:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \operatorname{gcd}(0, n)=n \\
& \operatorname{gcd}(m, 0)=m \\
& \operatorname{gcd}(m, n)=m, \text { if } m=n \\
& \text { gcd }(m, n)=\operatorname{gcd}(m \circ n, n), \text { if } m>n \\
& \operatorname{gcd}(m, n)=\operatorname{gcd}(m, n \div m), \text { if } m<n
\end{aligned}
$$

- Fibonacci series ( $0,1,1,2,3,5,8,13, \cdots$.)

```
fib (0) \(=0\)
fib (1) \(=1\)
fib (n) \(=\) fib ( \(n-1\) ) + fib ( \(n-2\) ), if \(n>1\)
```


## Example 1 :: Factorial

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


## Example 2 :: GCD

```
int gcd (m, n)
int m, n;
{
    if (m == 0) return n;
    if (n == 0) return m;
    if (m == n) return (m);
    if (m > n)
        return gcd (m%n, n);
        else
        return gcd (m, n%m);
}
```

- Mechanism of execution
- When a recursive program is executed, the recursive function calls are not executed immediately.
- They are kept aside (on a stack) until the stopping condition is encountered.
- The function calls are then executed in reverse order.


## Example :: Calculating fact(4)

- First, the function calls will be processed:

```
fact(4) = 4 * fact(3)
fact(3) = 3 * fact(2)
fact(2) = 2 * fact(1)
fact(1) = 1 * fact(0)
```

- The actual values return in the reverse order:

```
fact(0) = 1
fact(1) = 1 * 1 = 1
fact(2) = 2 * 1 = 2
fact(3) = 3 * 2 = 6
fact(4) = 4 * 6 = 24
```


## Example 3 :: Fibonacci number

- Fibonacci number $f(n)$ can be defined as:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& f(0)=0 \\
& \begin{array}{l}
f(1)=1 \\
f(n)=f(n-1)+f(n-2), \quad \text { if } n>1 \\
\text { The successive Fibonacci numbers are: } \\
0,1,1,2,3,5,8,13,21, \cdots . .
\end{array}
\end{aligned}
$$

- Function definition:

```
int f (int n)
{
    if (n < 2) return (n);
    else return (f(n-1) + f(n-2));
}
```


## Tracing Execution

- How many times the function is called when evaluating $f(4)$ ?

- Inefficiency:
- Same thing is computed several
called 9 times times.


## Performance Tip

- Avoid Fibonacci-style recursive programs which result in an exponential "explosion" of calls.
- Avoid using recursion in performance situations.
- Recursive calls take time and consume additional memory.


## Fibonacci number: iterative version

```
#include <stdio.h>
int f (int x);
int main()
{
    printf ("\n %d %d %d %d", f(2), f(3), f(4), f(5));
}
int f (int n)
{
    int a = 0, b = 1, temp, i;
    for (i=2; i<=n; i++)
    {
        temp = a + b;
        a = b;
        b = temp;
        }
        return (b);
}
```


## Example 4 :: Towers of Hanoi Problem



- The problem statement:
- Initially all the disks are stacked on the LEFT pole.
- Required to transfer all the disks to the RIGHT pole.
- Only one disk can be moved at a time.
- A larger disk cannot be placed on a smaller disk.
- CENTER pole is used for temporary storage of disks.
- Recursive statement of the general problem of n disks.
- Step l:
- Move the top ( $\mathrm{n}-1$ ) disks from LEFT to CENTER.
- Step 2:
- Move the largest disk from LEFT to RIGHT.
- Step 3:
- Move the ( $\mathrm{n}-\mathrm{l}$ ) disks from CENTER to RIGHT.

```
#include <stdio.h>
void transfer (int n, char from, char to, char temp);
main()
{
        int n; /* Number of disks */
        scanf ("%d", &n);
        transfer (n, 'L', 'R', 'C');
}
void transfer (int n, char from, char to, char temp)
{
    if (n > 0) {
            transfer (n-1, from, temp, to);
            printf ("Move disk %d from %c to %c \n", n, from, to);
            transfer (n-1, temp, to, from);
        }
        return;
}
```

```
3
Move disk 1 from L to R
Move disk 2 from L to C
Move disk 1 from R to C
Move disk }3\mathrm{ from L to R
Move disk 1 from C to L
Move disk 2 from C to R
Move disk 1 from L to R
```

```
4
Move disk 1 from L to C
Move disk 2 from L to R
Move disk 1 from C to R
Move disk 3 from L to C
Move disk 1 from R to L
Move disk 2 from R to C
Move disk 1 from L to C
Move disk 4 from L to R
Move disk 1 from C to R
Move disk 2 from C to L
Move disk 1 from R to L
Move disk }3\mathrm{ from C to R
Move disk 1 from L to C
Move disk 2 from L to R
Move disk 1 from C to R
```

| 5 |  |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Move disk | 1 | from $L$ to $R$ |
| Move disk | 2 | from $L$ to $C$ |
| Move disk | 1 | from $R$ to $C$ |
| Move disk | 3 | from $L$ to $R$ |
| Move disk | 1 | from $C$ to $L$ |
| Move disk 2 | from $C$ to $R$ |  |
| Move disk | 1 | from $L$ to $R$ |
| Move disk | 4 | from $L$ to $C$ |
| Move disk 1 | from $R$ to $C$ |  |
| Move disk 2 | from $R$ to $L$ |  |
| Move disk 1 | from $C$ to $L$ |  |
| Move disk 3 | from $R$ to $C$ |  |
| Move disk 1 | from $L$ to $R$ |  |
| Move disk 2 | from $L$ to $C$ |  |
| Move disk 1 | from $R$ to $C$ |  |

## Recursion vs. Iteration

- Repetition
- Iteration: explicit loop
- Recursion: repeated function calls
- Termination
- Iteration: loop condition fails
- Recursion: base case recognized
- Both can have infinite loops
- Balance
- Choice between performance (iteration) and good software engineering (recursion).


## How are function calls implemented?

- The following applies in general, with minor variations that are implementation dependent.
- The system maintains a stack in memory.
- Stack is a last-in first-out structure.
- Two operations on stack, push and pop.
- Whenever there is a function call, the activation record gets pushed into the stack.
- Activation record consists of:
- the return address in the calling program,
- the return value from the function, and
- the local variables inside the function.



Before call


Call ncr

fact returns

ncr returns

## What happens for recursive calls?

- What we have seen $\cdots$.
- Activation record gets pushed into the stack when a function call is made.
- Activation record is popped off the stack when the function returns.
- In recursion, a function calls itself.
- Several function calls going on, with none of the function calls returning back.
- Activation records are pushed onto the stack continuously.
- Large stack space required.
- Activation records keep popping off, when the termination condition of recursion is reached.
- We shall illustrate the process by an example of computing factorial.
- Activation record looks like:

| Local <br> Variables |
| :---: |
| Return Value |
| Return Addr |

## Example:.: main() calls fact(3)

```
main()
{
    int n;
    n = 3;
    printf ("%d \n", fact(n) );
}
```

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


## TRACE OF THE STACK DURING EXECUTION



## Do Yourself

- Trace the activation records for the following version of


| Local <br> Variables <br> $(\mathrm{n}, \mathrm{a}, \mathrm{b})$ |
| :---: |
| Return Value |
| Return Addr <br> (either main, <br> or X, or Y$)$ |

## Storage Class of Variables

## What is Storage Class?

- It refers to the permanence of a variable, and its scope within a program.
- Four storage class specifications in C:
- Automatic: auto
- External: extern
_ Static: static
- Register: register


## Automatic Variables

- These are always declared within a function and are local to the function in which they are declared.
- Scope is confined to that function.
- This is the default storage class specification.
- All variables are considered as auto unless explicitly specified otherwise.
- The keyword auto is optional.
- An automatic variable does not retain its value once control is transferred out of its defining function.

```
#include <stdio.h>
int factorial(int m)
{
    auto int i;
    auto int temp=1;
    for (i=1; i<=m; i++)
        temp = temp * i;
    return (temp);
}
```

```
main ()
    \{
        auto int \(n\);
        for \((n=1 ; n<=10 ; n++)\)
        printf ("\%d! = \%d \(\backslash n^{\prime \prime}\),
            n, factorial (n));
    \}
```


## Static Variables

- Static variables are defined within individual functions and have the same scope as automatic variables.
- Unlike automatic variables, static variables retain their values throughout the life of the program.
- If a function is exited and re-entered at a later time, the static variables defined within that function will retain their previous values.
- Initial values can be included in the static variable declaration.
- Will be initialized only once.
- An example of using static variable:
- Count number of times a function is called.

```
#include <stdio.h>
int factorial (int n)
{
    static int count=0;
    count++;
    printf ("n=%d, count=%d \n", n, count);
    if (n == 0) return 1;
    else return (n * factorial(n-1));
}
```

main ()
\{
int i=6;
printf ("Value is: \%d $\backslash n "$, factorial(i));
\}

- Program output:

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
n=6, & \text { count=1 } \\
n=5, & \text { count=2 } \\
n=4, & \text { count=3 } \\
n=3, & \text { count=4 } \\
n=2, & \text { count }=5 \\
n=1, & \text { count=6 } \\
n=0, & \text { count=7 } \\
\text { Value is: } 720
\end{array}
$$

## EXAMPLE 2

```
#include <stdio.h>
int fib (int n)
{
    static int count=0;
    count++;
    printf ("n=%d, count=%d \n", n, count);
    if (n < 2) return n;
    else return (fib(n-1) + fib(n-2));
}
```

```
main()
{
    int i=4;
    printf ("Value is: %d \n", fib(i));
}
```

- Program output:

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
\mathrm{n}=4, & \text { count=1 } \\
\mathrm{n}=3, & \text { count=2 } \\
\mathrm{n}=2, & \text { count=3 } \\
\mathrm{n}=1, & \text { count=4 } \\
\mathrm{n}=0, & \text { count=5 } \\
\mathrm{n}=1, & \text { count=6 } \\
\mathrm{n}=2, & \text { count=7 } \\
\mathrm{n}=1, & \text { count=8 } \\
\mathrm{n}=0, & \text { count=9 }
\end{array}
$$



$$
\text { Value is: } 3 \quad[0,1,1,2,3,5,8, \ldots]
$$

## Register Variables

- These variables are stored in high-speed registers within the CPU.
- Commonly used variables may be declared as register variables.
- Results in increase in execution speed.
- The allocation is done by the compiler.


## External Variables

- They are not confined to single functions.
- Their scope extends from the point of definition through the remainder of the program.
- They may span more than one functions.
- Also called global variables.
- Alternate way of declaring global variables.
- Declare them outside the function, at the beginning.

```
#include <stdio.h>
int count=0; /** GLOBAL VARIABLE **/
int factorial (int n)
{
    count++;
    printf ("n=%d, count=%d \n", n, count);
    if (n == 0) return 1;
    else return (n * factorial(n-1));
}
```

```
main() {
    int i=6;
    printf ("Value is: %d \n", factorial(i));
    printf ("Count is: %d \n", count);
}
```


## Some Examples on Recursion

## GCD Computation ... Correct Version

```
#include <stdio.h>
int gcd (m, n)
int m, n;
{
    if (m == 0) return n;
    if (n == O) return m;
    if (m == n) return (m);
    if (m > n)
        return gcd (m%n, n);
        else
            return gcd (m, n%m);
}
int main()
{
    int num1, num2;
    scanf ("%d %d", &num1, &num2);
    printf ("\nGCD of %d and %d is %d", num1, num2, gcd(num1,num2));
}
```


## Compute power ab

```
// Compute a to the power b
#include <stdio.h>
long int power (int a, int b)
{
    if (b == 0) return (1);
    else return (a * power(a,b-1));
}
int main()
{
    int x, y;
    long int result;
    scanf ("%d %d", &x, &y);
    result = power (x, y);
    printf ("\n%d to the power %d is %ld", x, y, result);
}
```


## Sum of digits of a number

```
// Find sum of the digits of a number
#include <stdio.h>
int digitsum (int num)
{
    int digit;
    if (num == 0) return (0);
    else {
        digit = num % 10;
        return (digit + digitsum(num/10));
            }
}
int main()
{
    int a;
    scanf ("%d", &a);
    printf ("\nSum of digits of %d is %d", a, digitsum(a));
}
```


## Decimal to Binary

```
// Print a decimal number in binary
#include <stdio.h>
void dec2bin (int n)
{
    if (n == 0) return;
    else {
        dec2bin (n/2);
        printf ("%2d", n%2);
            }
}
int main()
{
    int dec;
    scanf ("%d", &dec);
    printf ("\nBinary of %d is", dec);
    dec2bin (dec);
}
```

