

Programming Design

Pointers

Ling-Chieh Kung

Department of Information Management
National Taiwan University

Outline

- **Basics of pointers**
- Using pointers in functions
- Dynamic memory allocation (DMA)
- Arrays and pointer arithmetic

Pointers

- A **pointer** is a variable which stores a **memory address**.
 - An **array** variable also stores a memory address.
- To declare a pointer, use *****.

```
type pointed* pointer name;
```

```
type pointed *pointer name;
```

- Examples:

```
int *ptrInt;
```

```
double* ptrDou;
```

- These pointers will store addresses.
 - These pointers will store addresses of **int/double** variables.
- We may point to **any** type.
- To point to different types, use different types of pointers.

Sizes of pointers

- All pointers have the same size.
 - In a 32-bit computer, a pointer is allocated 4 bytes.
 - In a 64-bit computer, a pointer is allocated 8 bytes.

```
int* p1 = 0;  
cout << sizeof(p1) << "\n"; // 8  
double* p2 = 0;  
cout << sizeof(p2) << "\n"; // 8
```

- The length of pointers decides the maximum size of the memory space.
 - 32 bits: 2^{32} bytes = 4GB.
 - 64 bits: 2^{64} bytes = ?

Pointer assignment

- We use the **address-of operator &** to obtain a variable's address:

```
pointer name = &variable name
```

- The address-of operator **&** returns the (beginning) **address** of a variable.
- Example:

- **ptr** points to **a**, i.e., **ptr** stores **the address of a**.

```
int a = 5;  
int* ptr = &a;
```

- When assigning an address, the two types must **match**.

```
int a = 5;  
double* ptr = &a; // error!
```

Variables in memory

- `int a = 5;`
- `double b = 10.5;`
- `int* aPtr = &a;`
- `double* bPtr = &b;`
- `cout << &a; // 0x20c644`
- `cout << &b; // 0x20c660`
- `cout << &aPtr; // 0x20c658`
- `cout << &bPtr; // 0x20c64c`

Address	Identifier	Value
0x20c644	a	5
0x20c64c	bPtr	0x20c660
0x20c650		
0x20c658	aPtr	0x20c644
0x20c65c		
0x20c660	b	10.5
0x20c664		

Memory

Address operators

- There are two address operators.
 - **&**: The **address-of operator**. It returns a variable's address.
 - *****: The **dereference operator**. It returns the pointed variable.
- For `int a = 5`:
 - `a` equals 5.
 - `&a` returns an address (e.g., `0x22ff78`).
- For `int* ptrA = &a`:
 - `ptrA` stores an address (e.g., `0x22ff78`).
 - `&ptrA` returns the pointer's address (e.g., `0x21aa74`). This has nothing to do with the pointed variable `a`.
 - `*ptrA` returns `a`, **the variable** pointed by the pointer.

Address operators

- Example:

```
int a = 10;
int* p1 = &a;
cout << "value of a = " << a << "\n";
cout << "value of p1 = " << p1 << "\n";
cout << "address of a = " << &a << "\n";
cout << "address of p1 = " << &p1 << "\n";
cout << "value of the variable pointed by p1 = " << *p1 << "\n";
```


Address operators

- **&** returns **a variable's address**.
 - We cannot use **&100**, **&(a++)** (because **a++** returns the value of **a**).
 - We can only perform **&** on a **variable**.
 - We cannot assign a value to **&x** (**&x** is a value!).
 - We can get a usual variable's or a pointer variable's address.
- ***** returns **the pointed variable**.
 - We can perform ***** on a pointer variable.
 - We cannot perform ***** on a usual variable.
 - We cannot change a variable's address. No operation can do this.

Address operators

- What is $*\&x$ if x is a variable?
 - $\&x$ is the address of x .
 - $*(\&x)$ is the variable stored in that address.
 - So $*(\&x)$ is x .
- What is $\&*x$ if x is a pointer?
 - If x is a pointer, $*x$ is the variable stored at x (x stores an address!).
 - $\&*x$ is the address of $*x$, which is exactly x .
- $\&$ and $*$ **cancel each other**.
- What is $\&*x$ if x is not a pointer?

Address operators: examples

```
int a = 10;
int* ptr = &a;
cout << *ptr; // ?
*ptr = 5;
cout << a;    // ?
a = 18;
cout << *ptr; // ?
```

```
int a = 10;
int* ptr1;
int* ptr2;
ptr1 = ptr2 = &a;
cout << *ptr1; // ?
*ptr2 = 5;
cout << *ptr1; // ?
(*ptr1)++;
cout << a;    // ?
```

Null pointers

- What will happen?

```
int* ptr;  
cout << *ptr; // ?
```

- If we dereference a pointers of unknown value, the outcome is unpredictable.
 - The pointers points to **somewhere**... And we do not know where it is!
- A pointer **pointing to nothing** should be assigned **nullptr, NULL, or 0**.
 - Dereferencing a null pointer shutdowns the program (a run-time error).

```
int* p2 = nullptr;  
cout << "value of p2 = " << p2 << "\n";  
cout << "address of p2 = " << &p2 << "\n";  
cout << "the variable pointed by p2 = " << *p2 << "\n";
```

Null pointers

- As a bad example:

```
#include <iostream>
using namespace std;

int main()
{
    int* ptrArray[10000];
    for(int i = 0; i < 10000; i++)
        cout << i << " " << *ptrArray[i] << "\n";
    return 0;
}
```

Good programming style

- Initialize a pointer as **nullptr**, **0**, or **NULL** if no initial value is available.
 - **nullptr** is the current standard in C++, but they are all the same for representing a “null pointer”.
 - By using **nullptr** (instead of **0**), everyone knows the variable must be a pointer, and you are not talking about a number or character.
- In general, when you get **a run time error** or different outcomes for multiple executions, check your arrays and pointers.
- When we use ***** in **declaring** a pointer, that ***** is not a dereference operator.
 - It is just a special syntax for declaring a pointer variable.
- When we use **&** in **declaring** a reference, that **&** is not an address-of operator.
 - It is just a special syntax for declaring a reference variable.

Good programming style

- I prefer to view **int*** as a type, which represents an “integer pointer”.
 - I prefer “**int* p**” to “**int *p**”.
- The other way is also common. It views ***p** as an integer.
 - They prefer “**int *p**” to “**int* p**”.
- Be consistent throughout your program.
- Be careful:

```
int b = 5;
int *ptr1 = &b; // int, int, addr
*ptrB = 12;
cout << b << "\n";
int* ptr2 = &b; // addr, addr, addr
```

```
int* p, q; // p is int*, q is int
int *p, *q; // two pointers
int* p, *q; // two pointers
int* p, * q; // two pointers
```

Outline

- The basics of pointers
- **Using pointers in functions**
 - Call by reference
 - Call by pointer
 - Returning a pointer
- Dynamic memory allocation (DMA)
- Arrays and pointer arithmetic

References and pointers

- Recall this example:
- When invoking a function and passing parameters, the default scheme is to “**call by value**” (or “pass by value”).
 - The function declares its own local variables, using a copy of the arguments’ values as initial values.
 - Thus we swapped the two local variables declared in the callee, not the two in the caller that we want to swap.
- To solve this, we can use “**call by reference**” or “call by pointer.”

```
void swap(int x, int y);
int main()
{
    int a = 10, b = 20;
    cout << a << " " << b << "\n";
    swap(a, b);
    cout << a << " " << b << "\n";
}
void swap(int x, int y)
{
    int temp = x;
    x = y;
    y = temp;
}
```

References

- A **reference** is a variable's **alias**.
- The reference is another variable that refers to the variable.
- Thus, using the reference is the same as using the variable.

```
int c = 10;  
int& d = c; // declare d as c's reference  
d = 20;  
cout << c << "\n"; // 20
```

- **int& d = c** is to declare **d** as **c**'s reference.
 - This **&** is different from the **&** operator which returns a variable's address.
- **int& d = 10** is an error.
 - A literal cannot have an alias!

Call by reference

- Now we know how to change a parameter's value:
 - Instead of declaring a usual local variable as a parameter, declare a **reference** variable.
- This is to “call by reference”.

```
void swap(int& x, int& y);
int main()
{
    int a = 10, b = 20;
    cout << a << " " << b << "\n";
    cout << &a << "\n";
    swap(a, b);
    cout << a << " " << b << "\n";
}
void swap(int& x, int& y)
{
    cout << &x << "\n";
    int temp = x;
    x = y;
    y = temp;
}
```

Call by reference

- Thus we can call by reference and modify our arguments' values.
- When calling by reference, the only thing you have to do is to add an **&** in the parameter declaration in the function header.
- Mostly people use references only to call by reference.
- View the **&** in declaration as a part of type.
 - I use **int& a = b** instead of **int &a = b**.
 - Be consistent of your choice about **int& a = b** and **int &a = b**.

```
void swap(int& x, int& y);  
int main()  
{  
    int a = 10, b = 20;  
    swap(a, b);  
}
```

Call by pointers

- To call by pointers:
 - Declare a **pointer** variable as a parameter.
 - Pass a pointer variable or an address (e.g., returned by **&**) at invocation.
- For the **swap()** example:

```
void swap(int* ptrA, int* ptrB)
{
    int temp = *ptrA;
    *ptrA = *ptrB;
    *ptrB = temp;
}
```

- Invocation becomes **swap(&a, &b)** ;

Address	Identifier	Value
0x20c644		
0x20c648		
0x20c64c		
0x20c650		
0x20c654		
0x20c658		
0x20c65c		
0x20c660	a	20
0x20c664	b	10

Memory

Call by pointers

- How about the following implementation?

```
void swap(int* ptrA, int* ptrB)
{
    int* temp = ptrA;
    ptrA = ptrB;
    ptrB = temp;
}
```

- Invocation: `swap(&a, &b);`

Address	Identifier	Value
0x20c644		
0x20c648		
0x20c64c		
0x20c650		
0x20c654		
0x20c658		
0x20c65c		
0x20c660	a	10
0x20c664	b	20

Memory

Call by pointers

- The principle behind calling by reference and calling by pointer is the same.
- You can view calling by reference as a special tool made by using pointers.
- Do not mix references and pointers!
 - E.g., we cannot pass a pointer variable or an address to a reference!
- You can call by reference in most situations, and it is clearer and more convenient than to call by pointer.
 - When you just want to modify arguments or return several values, call by reference.
 - When you really have to do something by pointers, call by pointer.

Returning a pointer

- May a function **return a pointer**? Yes!
 - We simply **returns an address**.
- Why returning an address?
 - **p** records the address of the first negative number in the array **a**.
 - With the address, we **also know** the value of that negative number.
 - If we only have the value, we **do not know** its address (and index).
- To obtain the index, we need **pointer arithmetic**.

```
#include <iostream>
using namespace std;
int* firstNeg(int a[], const int n) {
    for(int i = 0; i < n; i++) {
        if(a[i] < 0)
            return &a[i];
    } // what if a[i] >= 0 for all i?
}
int main()
{
    int a[5] = {0};
    for(int i = 0; i < 5; i++)
        cin >> a[i];
    int* p = firstNeg(a, 5);
    cout << *p << " " << p << "\n";
    return 0;
}
```


Outline

- The basics of pointers
- Using pointers in functions
- **Dynamic memory allocation (DMA)**
- Arrays and pointer arithmetic

Static memory allocation

- We declare an array by specifying its length as a constant variable or a literal.

```
const int ARRAY_LEN = 100;  
int a[ARRAY_LEN];
```

- Memory allocation to an array can be determined during the compilation time.
 - 400 bytes will be allocated for the above statements.
- This is called “**static memory allocation**”.
- We may decide the length of an array “**dynamically**”.
 - That is, during the **run** time.
- To do so, we must use a different syntax.
 - All types of variables may also be declared in this way.

Dynamic memory allocation

- The operator **new** allocates a memory space **and** returns the address.
 - In C, we use a different keyword **malloc**.
- **new int** allocates 4 bytes, and the returned address is not recorded.
- **int* a = new int** makes **a** store the address of the 4-byte space.
- **int* a = new int(5)** makes the space contain 5 as the value.
- **int* a = new int[5]** allocates 20 bytes (for 5 integers).
 - **a** points to the first integer.
 - **a** can be viewed as an array. It is a **dynamic array**.
- Dynamically allocated arrays **cannot be initialized** with a single statement.
 - A loop, for example, is needed.

Dynamic memory allocation

- Memory allocation (the size and location of the space) is determined during the **run time**.
- So we may write

```
int len = 0;  
cin >> len;  
int* a = new int[len];
```

- This allocates space according to the input from users.

Dynamic memory allocation

- Space allocated during the run time has **no name!**
 - On the other hand, every space allocated during the compilation time has a name.
- To access a dynamically-allocated space, we use a **pointer** to store its address.

```
int len = 0;
cin >> len; // 3
int* a = new int[len];
for(int i = 0; i < len; i++)
    a[i] = i + 1;
```

Address	Identifier	Value
0x20c644	N/A	1
0x20c648		2
0x20c64c		3
0x20c650		
0x20c654		
0x20c658	len	3
0x20c65c		
0x20c660	a	0x20c644
0x20c664		

Memory

Example: Fibonacci sequence

- Recall the repetitive implementation of generating the Fibonacci sequence.
- After we get the value of sequence length n , we dynamically declare an array of length n .
- Then just use that array!

```
double fibRepetitive(int n)
{
    if(n == 1)
        return 1;
    else if(n == 2)
        return 1;
    double* fib = new double[n];
    fib[0] = 1;
    fib[1] = 1;
    for(int i = 2; i < n; i++)
        fib[i] = fib[i - 1] + fib[i - 2];
    double result = fib[n - 1];
    delete[] fib; // to be explained
    return result;
}
```

Memory leak

- For space allocated during the **compilation** time, the system will **release this space** automatically when the corresponding variables no longer exist.

```

void func(int a)
{
    double b;
} // 4 + 8 bytes are released
int main()
{
    func(10);
    return 0;
}

```

Address	Identifier	Value
0x20c644		
0x20c648		
0x20c64c	a	10
0x20c650		
0x20c654		
0x20c658	b	?
0x20c660		
0x20c664		

Memory

Memory leak

- For space allocated during the **run** time, the system will **not** release this space unless it is asked to do so.
 - Because the space has no name!

```

void func()
{
    int* bPtr = new int[3];
}
// 8 bytes for bPtr are released
// 12 bytes for integers are not
int main()
{
    func( );
    return 0;
}

```

Address	Identifier	Value
0x20c644		
0x20c648	N/A	?
0x20c64c	N/A	?
0x20c650	N/A	?
0x20c654		
0x20c658		
0x20c65c		
0x20c660		
0x20c664		

Memory

Memory leak

- Programmers must keep a record for all space allocated dynamically.

```
double* b = new double;
*b = 5.2;
double c = 10.6;
b = &c; // now no one can access
        // the space containing 5.2
```

- This problem is called **memory leak**.
 - We lose the control of allocated space.
 - These space are **wasted**.
 - They will not be released until the program ends.

Address	Identifier	Value
0x20c644		
0x20c648	b	0x20c660
0x20c650		
0x20c654	N/A	5.2
0x20c65c		
0x20c660	c	10.6

Memory

Memory leak

- Try this carefully!
 - The outcome may be different on your computer.

```
#include <iostream>
using namespace std;

int main()
{
    for(int i = 0; ; i++)
    {
        int* ptr = new int[100000];
        cout << i << "\n";
        // delete [] ptr;
    }
    return 0;
}
```

Releasing space manually

- The **delete** operator will release a dynamically-allocated space.

```
int* a = new int;  
delete a; // release 4 bytes  
int* b = new int[5];  
delete b; // release only 4 bytes!  
           // Unpredictable results may happen  
delete [] b; // release all 20 bytes
```

- The **delete** operator will do nothing to the pointer. To avoid reusing the released space, set the pointer to **nullptr**.

```
int* a = new int;  
delete a; // a is still pointing to the address  
a = nullptr; // now a points to nothing  
int* b = new int[5];  
delete [] b; // b is still pointing to the address  
b = nullptr; // now b points to nothing
```

Good programming style

- Use DMA for arrays with **no predetermined** length.
 - Even though Dev-C++ (and some other compilers) converts

```
int a = 10;  
int b[a];
```

to

```
int a = 10;  
int* b = new int[a];  
// ...  
delete [] b;
```

- To avoid memory leak:
 - Whenever you write a **new** statement, add a **delete** statement below immediately (unless you know you really do not need it).
 - Whenever you want to change the value of a pointer, check whether memory leak occurs.
 - Whenever you write a **delete** statement, set the pointer to **nullptr**.

Two-dimensional dynamic arrays

- With static arrays, we may create matrices as two-dimensional arrays.
- An m by n two-dimensional array has:
 - m rows (single-dimensional arrays).
 - Each row has n elements.
- With dynamic arrays, we now may create matrices **with different row lengths**.
 - We may still have m rows.
 - Now each row may have different number of elements.
 - E.g., a **lower triangular matrix**.

Example: lower triangular arrays

- `int* array = new int[10]` declares an array of integers.
- `int** array = new int*[10]` declares **an array of integer pointers!**
 - The type of `array[0]` is `int*`.
 - The type of `array[1]` is `int*`.
- Then each of these integer pointers may store the address of a dynamic integer array.
 - And their lengths can be different.

```
int main()
{
    int r = 3;
    int** array = new int*[r];
    for(int i = 0; i < r; i++)
    {
        array[i] = new int[i + 1];
        for(int j = 0; j <= i; j++)
            array[i][j] = j + 1;
    }
    print(array, r); // later
    // some delete statements
    return 0;
}
```

Example: lower triangular arrays

- Let's visualize the memory events.
- In general, the space of the three 1-dim dynamic arrays may be **separated**.
- However, the space of the array elements in each array are **contiguous**.

```
int main()
{
    int r = 3;
    int** array = new int*[r];
    for(int i = 0; i < r; i++)
    {
        array[i] = new int[i + 1];
        for(int j = 0; j <= i; j++)
            array[i][j] = j + 1;
    }
    print(array, r); // later
    // some delete statements
    return 0;
}
```

Address	Identifier	Value
0x20c644	r	3
0x20c648	Array	0x20c654
0x20c650		
0x20c654	N/A	0x20c66c
0x20c65c	N/A	0x20c670
0x20c664	N/A	0x20c678
0x20c66c	N/A	1
0x20c670	N/A	1
0x20c674	N/A	2
0x20c678	N/A	1
0x20c67c	N/A	2
0x20c680	N/A	3

Memory

Example: lower triangular arrays

- To pass a two-dimensional dynamic array, just pass that pointer.

```
int main()
{
    int r = 3;
    int** array = new int*[r];
    for(int i = 0; i < r; i++)
    {
        array[i] = new int[i + 1];
        for(int j = 0; j <= i; j++)
            array[i][j] = j + 1;
    }
    print(array, r);
    // some delete statements
    return 0;
}
```

```
int print(int** arr, int r)
{
    for(int i = 0; i < r; i++)
    {
        for(int j = 0; j <= i; j++)
            cout << arr[i][j] << " ";
        cout << "\n";
    }
}
```


Example: lower triangular arrays

- An alternative:

```
int main()
{
    int r = 3;
    int** array = new int*[r];
    for(int i = 0; i < r; i++)
    {
        array[i] = new int[i + 1];
        for(int j = 0; j <= i; j++)
            array[i][j] = j + 1;
    }
    print(array, r);
    // some delete statements
    return 0;
}
```

```
int print1D(int* arr, int n)
{
    for(int i = 0; i < n; i++)
        cout << arr[i] << " ";
    cout << "\n";
}
int print(int** arr, int r)
{
    for(int i = 0; i < r; i++)
    {
        print1D(arr[i], i + 1);
    }
}
```

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- **Arrays and pointer arithmetic**

Pointers and arrays

- An array variable stores an address, **just like** a pointer!
 - It records the address of the **first** element of the array.
 - When passing an array, we pass an address.
 - The array indexing operator `[]` indicates **offsetting**.
- To further understand this issue, let's study **pointer arithmetic**.
 - Using `+`, `-`, `++`, and `--` on pointers.

Pointer arithmetic: ++ and --

- **++**: Increment the pointer variable's value by the number of bytes occupied by a variable in this type (i.e., point to the **next** variable).
 - E.g., for integer pointers, the value (an address) increases by 4 (bytes).
- **--**: Decrement the pointer variable's value by the number of bytes a variable in this type occupies (i.e., point to the **previous** variable).

```
int a = 10;
int* ptr = &a;
cout << ptr++;
    // just an address
    // we don't know what's here
cout << *ptr;
    // dangerous!
```

Pointer arithmetic

- Usually, one arbitrary address returned by performing arithmetic on a pointer variable is useless.
- The arithmetic is useful (and should be used) only when you can predict a variable's address.
 - In particular, when variables are stored **consecutively**.

```
double a[3] = {10.5, 11.5, 12.5};  
double* b = &a[0];  
cout << *b << " " << b << "\n"; // 10.5  
b = b + 2; // b++ and then b++  
cout << *b << " " << b << "\n"; // 12.5  
b--;  
cout << *b << " " << b << "\n"; // 11.5
```

Pointer arithmetic: –

- We cannot add two address.
- However, we can find the difference of two addresses.

```
double a[3] = {10.5, 11.5, 12.5};  
double* b = &a[0];  
double* c = &a[2];  
cout << c - b << "\n"; // 2, not 16!
```

Pointers and arrays

- Changing the value stored in a pointer is dangerous:

```
int y[3] = {1, 2, 3};
int* x = y;
for(int i = 0; i < 3; i++)
    cout << *(x + i) << " "; // 1 2 3
for(int i = 0; i < 3; i++)
    cout << *(x++) << " "; // 1 2 3
for(int i = 0; i < 3; i++)
    cout << *(x + i) << " "; // unpredictable
```

Indexing and pointer arithmetic

- The array indexing operator `[]` is just an **interface** for doing pointer arithmetic.
 - Interface: a (typically safer and easier) way of completing a task.

```
int x[3] = {1, 2, 3};
for(int i = 0; i < 3; i++)
    cout << x[i] << " "; // x[i] = *(x + i)
for(int i = 0; i < 3; i++)
    cout << *(x + i) << " "; // 1 2 3
```

- `x[i]` and `*(x + i)` are identical, but using the former is safer and easier.
- The address stored in an array variable (e.g., `x`) **cannot be modified**.

```
int x[3] = {1, 2, 3};
for(int i = 0; i < 3; i++)
    cout << *(x++) << " "; // error!
```


Example 1: incrementing array elements

- What does the following program do?

```
#include <iostream>
using namespace std;
int main()
{
    int a[5] = {0};
    for(int i = 0; i < 5; i++)
        cin >> a[i];
    int* p = a;
    for(int i = 0; i < 5; i++) {
        *p += 3;
        p++;
    }
    for(int i = 0; i < 5; i++)
        cout << a[i] << " ";
    return 0;
}
```

Example 2: insertion sort

- Consider the **insertion sort** taught last time.
 - Given a unsorted array A of length n , we first sort $A[0:(n - 2)]$, and then insert $A[n - 1]$ to the sorted part.
 - To complete this task, we do this **recursively**.
- What if we want to **first sort $A[1:(n - 1)]$** , and then insert $A[0]$?
- We will need to implement a function:

```
void insertionSort(int array[], const int n);
```

- Given **array**, each time when we (recursively) invoke it, we pass a **shorter** array formed by elements from **array[1]** to **array[n - 1]**, the **second** element to the last element.

Example 2: insertion sort

```
void insertionSort(int array[], const int n) {
    if(n > 1) {
        insertionSort(array + 1, n - 1);
        int num1 = array[0];
        int i = 1;
        for(; i < n; i++) {
            if(array[i] < num1)
                array[i - 1] = array[i];
            else
                break;
        }
        array[i - 1] = num1;
    }
}
```

Example 3: returning a pointer

- Recall that we want to find the first negative number in an array.
 - We want its **value** and **index**.
 - We return its address.
- Three issues remain.
 - Why not return its index?
 - What if all elements in **a** are nonnegative?
 - Why not **const int a[]**?

```
#include <iostream>
using namespace std;
int* firstNeg(int a[], const int n) {
    for(int i = 0; i < n; i++) {
        if(a[i] < 0)
            return &a[i];
    } // what if a[i] >= 0 for all i?
}
int main()
{
    int a[5] = {0};
    for(int i = 0; i < 5; i++)
        cin >> a[i];
    int* p = firstNeg(a, 5);
    cout << *p << " " << p - a << "\n";
    return 0; // what is p - a?
}
```

Example 3: returning a pointer

- To take the possibility of having no negative number into consideration:

```
#include <iostream>
using namespace std;
int* firstNeg(int a[], const int n) {
    for(int i = 0; i < n; i++) {
        if(a[i] < 0)
            return &a[i];
    }
    return nullptr;
}
```

```
int main()
{
    int a[5] = {0};
    for(int i = 0; i < 5; i++)
        cin >> a[i];
    int* p = firstNeg(a, 5);
    if(p != nullptr)
        cout << *p << " " << p - a << "\n";
    return 0;
}
```

Example 3: returning a pointer

- Why not `const int a[]`?
 - We return the address of `a[i]`, which allows the caller to alter the element.
 - `const int*` and `int*` are different!

```
#include <iostream>
using namespace std;
int* firstNeg(int a[], const int n) {
    for(int i = 0; i < n; i++) {
        if(a[i] < 0)
            return &a[i];
    }
    return nullptr;
}
```

```
int main()
{
    int a[5] = {0};
    for(int i = 0; i < 5; i++)
        cin >> a[i];
    int* p = firstNeg(a, 5);
    if(p != nullptr)
        *p = -1 * *p; // *p at the LHS of =
    return 0;
}
```

Example 3: returning a pointer

- To use `const int a[]`, we need to change the return type.
 - We should also `return const int*`.
 - This is an `int*` that cannot be put at the LHS of an assignment operator.

```
#include <iostream>
using namespace std;
const int* firstNeg
    (const int a[], const int n) {
    for(int i = 0; i < n; i++) {
        if(a[i] < 0)
            return &a[i];
    }
    return nullptr;
}
```

```
int main()
{
    int a[5] = {0};
    for(int i = 0; i < 5; i++)
        cin >> a[i];
    const int* p = firstNeg(a, 5);
    if(p != nullptr)
        cout << *p << "\n"; // OK
    return 0;
}
```

Remarks

- When should we use pointers?
 - Call by reference/pointer.
 - Dynamic memory allocation and dynamic arrays.
 - Dynamic data structures (to be introduced later in this semester).
 - C strings (to be introduced later in this semester).
- If not needed, avoid using pointers.
 - In the past, using pointers may enhance the run-time efficiency (at the implementation level).
 - Modern compilers are good at implementation-level efficiency optimization.
 - Readability is more important.