

Introduction

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dimensional
Arrays

Shallow vs
Deep

Computer Science I

Arrays

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3. Dynamic Arrays
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- Rarely do we deal with only one piece of data

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- Rarely do we deal with only one piece of data
- Usually more than one number, string, object, etc. must be stored and processed

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- Rarely do we deal with only one piece of data
- Usually more than one number, string, object, etc. must be stored and processed
- *Collections* of data can be stored in *arrays*

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- Rarely do we deal with only one piece of data
- Usually more than one number, string, object, etc. must be stored and processed
- *Collections* of data can be stored in *arrays*
- An “array” is an *ordered series or arrangement*

In code:

- Arrays are collections of ordered data stored *contiguously* in memory

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In code:

- Arrays are collections of ordered data stored *contiguously* in memory
- *ordered* is not the same as *sorted*

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In code:

- Arrays are collections of ordered data stored *contiguously* in memory
- *ordered* is not the same as *sorted*
- Have a single identifier (name)

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In code:

- Arrays are collections of ordered data stored *contiguously* in memory
- *ordered* is not the same as *sorted*
- Have a single identifier (name)
- Size is *fixed* when created

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In code:

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- You access individual elements in an array with an *index*

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- Arrays are 0-indexed: first element is at index 0, the second at index 1, etc.

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In code:

- Arrays are collections of ordered data stored *contiguously* in memory
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- Arrays are 0-indexed: first element is at index 0, the second at index 1, etc.
- An array of size n has the last element at index $n - 1$

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In code:

- Arrays are collections of ordered data stored *contiguously* in memory
- *ordered* is not the same as *sorted*
- Have a single identifier (name)
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- You access individual elements in an array with an *index*
- Arrays are 0-indexed: first element is at index 0, the second at index 1, etc.
- An array of size n has the last element at index $n - 1$
- Indexing is usually done with the square brackets `[]`

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Example

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- Suppose `arr` is an integer (4 bytes each) array

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- Suppose `arr` is an integer (4 bytes each) array
- `arr` is actually a *memory address*

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- Suppose `arr` is an integer (4 bytes each) array
- `arr` is actually a *memory address*
- i -th element is at `arr[i]`

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- Suppose `arr` is an integer (4 bytes each) array
- `arr` is actually a *memory address*
- i -th element is at `arr[i]`
- Indexing automatically computes a *memory offset*

- Suppose `arr` is an integer (4 bytes each) array
- `arr` is actually a *memory address*
- i -th element is at `arr[i]`
- Indexing automatically computes a *memory offset*
- i -th element is

$$i \times 4$$

bytes away from the beginning of the array

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Memory Offsets

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index	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
contents	48	9	17	5	29	72	42	101	32

$0 \times 4 = 0$ bytes

Memory Offsets

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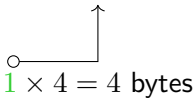
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index	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
contents	48	9	17	5	29	72	42	101	32


 $1 \times 4 = 4 \text{ bytes}$

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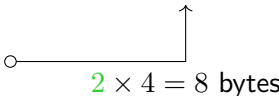
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index	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
contents	48	9	17	5	29	72	42	101	32


 $2 \times 4 = 8 \text{ bytes}$

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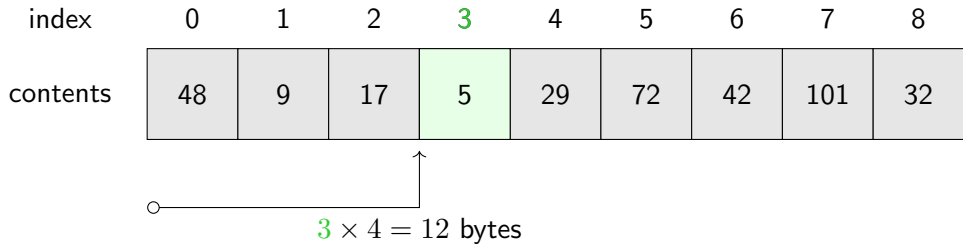
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index	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
contents	48	9	17	5	29	72	42	101	32


 $4 \times 4 = 16 \text{ bytes}$

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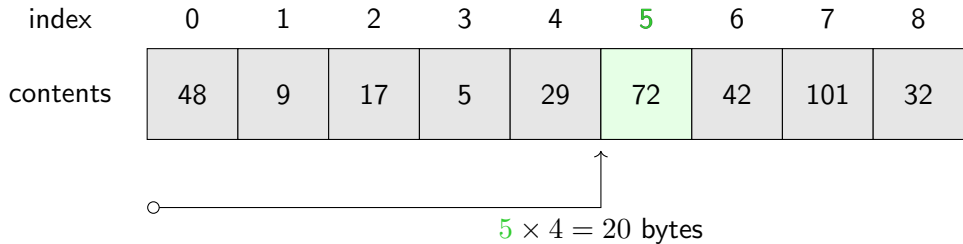
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Part II: Using Arrays

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- Static arrays are allocated on the program stack

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- Static arrays are allocated on the program stack
- Declaration specifies size

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- Static arrays are allocated on the program stack
- Declaration specifies size

```
1  int arr[10];
2  double numbers[20];
```

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- Static arrays are allocated on the program stack
- Declaration specifies size

```
1  int arr[10];
2  double numbers[20];
```

- Once declared, indexing can be used to access values

```
1  arr[0] = 42;
2  arr[1] = 12;
3  arr[2] = arr[0] + 20;
4  arr[9] = 3.75; //truncation
5
6  printf("a[0] = %d\n", a[0]);
```

Alternative Syntax

Declaration/initialization

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- You can declare and initialize an array at the same time

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- You can declare and initialize an array at the same time

```
1  int primes[] = { 2, 3, 5, 7, 11, 13, 17 };
```

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Declaration/initialization

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- You can declare and initialize an array at the same time

```
1  int primes[] = { 2, 3, 5, 7, 11, 13, 17 };
```

- Size specification is *optional*

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- You can declare and initialize an array at the same time

```
1  int primes[] = { 2, 3, 5, 7, 11, 13, 17 };
```

- Size specification is *optional*
- Example of *code elision*

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Declaration/initialization

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- You can declare and initialize an array at the same time

```
1  int primes[] = { 2, 3, 5, 7, 11, 13, 17 };
```

- Size specification is *optional*
- Example of *code elision*
- Problem: You still need to keep track of the *size* of the array

Variable Length Arrays

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- C99+ allows you to declare an array with a variable size

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- C99+ allows you to declare an array with a variable size

```
1  int n = 10;
2  int arr[n];
```


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- C99+ allows you to declare an array with a variable size

```
1  int n = 10;
2  int arr[n];
```

- Just because you *can* (or more accurately *might*) be able to do this, doesn't mean you should

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- C99+ allows you to declare an array with a variable size

```
1  int n = 10;
2  int arr[n];
```

- Just because you *can* (or more accurately *might*) be able to do this, doesn't mean you should
- Avoid in general

Pitfalls

Uninitialized Arrays

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- Like regular variables, there is *no default value*

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- Like regular variables, there is *no default value*
- `arr[3]` was not set, its value could be anything

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- Like regular variables, there is *no default value*
- `arr[3]` was not set, its value could be anything
- Never make assumptions about uninitialized variables

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- Like regular variables, there is *no default value*
- `arr[3]` was not set, its value could be anything
- Never make assumptions about uninitialized variables
- Always initialize yourself

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- Accessing invalid indices is *undefined behavior*

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- Accessing invalid indices is *undefined behavior*

```
1  int arr[10];  
2  ...  
3  arr[10] = 42;  
4  arr[-1] = 21;
```

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- Accessing invalid indices is *undefined behavior*

```
1  int arr[10];  
2  ...  
3  arr[10] = 42;  
4  arr[-1] = 21;
```

- May lead to:

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Out-of-bounds indexing

- Accessing invalid indices is *undefined behavior*

```
1  int arr[10];  
2  ...  
3  arr[10] = 42;  
4  arr[-1] = 21;
```

- May lead to:
 - A segmentation fault, bus error

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- Accessing invalid indices is *undefined behavior*

```
1  int arr[10];
2  ...
3  arr[10] = 42;
4  arr[-1] = 21;
```

- May lead to:
 - A segmentation fault, bus error
 - Corrupted memory

- Accessing invalid indices is *undefined behavior*

```
1  int arr[10];
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3  arr[10] = 42;
4  arr[-1] = 21;
```

- May lead to:
 - A segmentation fault, bus error
 - Corrupted memory
 - Incorrect results

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- Accessing invalid indices is *undefined behavior*

```
1  int arr[10];  
2  ...  
3  arr[10] = 42;  
4  arr[-1] = 21;
```

- May lead to:
 - A segmentation fault, bus error
 - Corrupted memory
 - Incorrect results
- *Your responsibility to do bookkeeping*

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- You must always keep track of the size of an array

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- You must always keep track of the size of an array
- In general there is no way to determine the size of an array

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- You must always keep track of the size of an array
- In general there is no way to determine the size of an array
- Only in very limited situations (static arrays)

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- You must always keep track of the size of an array
- In general there is no way to determine the size of an array
- Only in very limited situations (static arrays)
- Arrays should be accompanied by an integer variable to keep track of its size

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- You must always keep track of the size of an array
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- Idiomatic loops over arrays

- You must always keep track of the size of an array
- In general there is no way to determine the size of an array
- Only in very limited situations (static arrays)
- Arrays should be accompanied by an integer variable to keep track of its size
- Idiomatic loops over arrays
- Demonstration

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```
1  int n = 10;
2  int primes[] = { 2, 3, 5, 7, 11, 13, 17, 19, 23, 29 };
3  int sum = 0;
4
5  for(int i=0; i<n; i++) {
6      sum += primes[i];
7  }
```

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Static Arrays are Insufficient

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- Static arrays are allocated on the program stack

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- Static arrays are allocated on the program stack
- Inside a stack frame in which it is declared

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- Static arrays are allocated on the program stack
- Inside a stack frame in which it is declared
- Stack space is *limited*

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- Static arrays are allocated on the program stack
- Inside a stack frame in which it is declared
- Stack space is *limited*
- 8MB (large) to 64k or even 8k (embedded systems)

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- Inside a stack frame in which it is declared
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- Demonstration

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- Stack is small, inappropriate to hold even “moderately” sized arrays

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- Stack is small, inappropriate to hold even “moderately” sized arrays
- Other disadvantages: static arrays cannot be returned from functions

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- Stack is small, inappropriate to hold even “moderately” sized arrays
- Other disadvantages: static arrays cannot be returned from functions
- Best to not use static arrays at all

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- Stack is small, inappropriate to hold even “moderately” sized arrays
- Other disadvantages: static arrays cannot be returned from functions
- Best to not use static arrays at all
- Don’t abuse the stack space, it is small and defenseless

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- Stack is small, inappropriate to hold even “moderately” sized arrays
- Other disadvantages: static arrays cannot be returned from functions
- Best to not use static arrays at all
- Don’t abuse the stack space, it is small and defenseless
- Better solution: use *dynamic arrays*

Dynamic Memory & Arrays

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- Dynamic memory is allocated in a program's *heap*

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- Dynamic memory is allocated in a program's *heap*
- Stack: highly organized, efficient, but small/limited

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- Dynamic memory is allocated in a program's *heap*
- Stack: highly organized, efficient, but small/limited
- Heap: Less organized, less efficient, but much larger

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- Dynamic memory is allocated in a program's *heap*
- Stack: highly organized, efficient, but small/limited
- Heap: Less organized, less efficient, but much larger
- Dynamically allocate memory on the heap using `malloc()` (**M**emory **A**llocation)

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- Located in the standard library `stdlib.h`

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- Use `sizeof()` to determine how many bytes each type of variable takes
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- A void pointer points to a generic memory location that can be *cast* to any type you want
- Returns `NULL` if unsuccessful

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- Takes one argument: the number of bytes you want to allocate
- Use `sizeof()` to determine how many bytes each type of variable takes
- Returns a generic *void pointer*: `void *`
- A void pointer points to a generic memory location that can be *cast* to any type you want
- Returns `NULL` if unsuccessful
- Demonstration

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Part IV: Memory Management

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- Memory on the stack is “cleaned up” when stack frames are removed

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- Memory on the stack is “cleaned up” when stack frames are removed
- Memory on the heap is *not* automatically cleaned up when it is no longer needed

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- Memory on the stack is “cleaned up” when stack frames are removed
- Memory on the heap is *not* automatically cleaned up when it is no longer needed
- It is *your* responsibility to “clean up” dynamically allocated memory when you no longer need it

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- Memory on the stack is “cleaned up” when stack frames are removed
- Memory on the heap is *not* automatically cleaned up when it is no longer needed
- It is *your* responsibility to “clean up” dynamically allocated memory when you no longer need it
- Failure to do so or failure to do so correctly can lead to:

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- Memory on the stack is “cleaned up” when stack frames are removed
- Memory on the heap is *not* automatically cleaned up when it is no longer needed
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 - Memory Leaks

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- Failure to do so or failure to do so correctly can lead to:
 - Memory Leaks
 - Reduced performance

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- Memory on the stack is “cleaned up” when stack frames are removed
- Memory on the heap is *not* automatically cleaned up when it is no longer needed
- It is *your* responsibility to “clean up” dynamically allocated memory when you no longer need it
- Failure to do so or failure to do so correctly can lead to:
 - Memory Leaks
 - Reduced performance
 - Illegal memory access/segmentation faults

Freeing Memory

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- To clean up memory you “free” it

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- To clean up memory you “free” it
- Standard library function:

```
void free(void *)
```

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- To clean up memory you “free” it
- Standard library function:

```
void free(void *)
```
- Takes a single argument: a pointer to dynamically allocated memory

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- To clean up memory you “free” it
- Standard library function:

```
void free(void *)
```
- Takes a single argument: a pointer to dynamically allocated memory
- Demonstration

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```

1  #include <stdlib.h>
2  #include <stdio.h>
3  int main(int argc, char **argv) {
4
5      int n = 100;
6      int *arr = (int *) malloc(n * sizeof(int));
7
8      //process the array
9      for(int i=0; i<n; i++) {
10         arr[i] = (i+1);
11     }
12
13     free(arr);
14
15     return 0;
16 }
```

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Dangling Pointers

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- Basic usage is easy, though there are many pitfalls

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- Basic usage is easy, though there are many pitfalls
- Once freed, dynamic memory cannot/should not be accessed

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- Basic usage is easy, though there are many pitfalls
- Once freed, dynamic memory cannot/should not be accessed
- Best to *reset* the pointer to `NULL`

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- Basic usage is easy, though there are many pitfalls
- Once freed, dynamic memory cannot/should not be accessed
- Best to *reset* the pointer to `NULL`
- Otherwise, it is a *dangling pointer*

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- Basic usage is easy, though there are many pitfalls
- Once freed, dynamic memory cannot/should not be accessed
- Best to *reset* the pointer to `NULL`
- Otherwise, it is a *dangling pointer*
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```
1  int *arr = (int *) malloc(n * sizeof(int));
2  //...
3  free(arr);
4
5  //arr still points to a memory location, but is no longer valid
6  printf("arr points to %p\n", arr);
7  //accessing is undefined behavior:
8  arr[0] = 42;
9
10 //best to reset to NULL;
11 free(arr);
12 arr = NULL;
```

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Memory Ownership

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- Different sections of code may “own” memory and be responsible for its management

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- Different sections of code may “own” memory and be responsible for its management
- Stack frames are “owned” by the program/function: the program is responsible for clean up

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- Different sections of code may “own” memory and be responsible for its management
- Stack frames are “owned” by the program/function: the program is responsible for clean up
- Ownership may be transferred: `malloc` transfers ownership to the calling function

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- Different sections of code may “own” memory and be responsible for its management
- Stack frames are “owned” by the program/function: the program is responsible for clean up
- Ownership may be transferred: `malloc` transfers ownership to the calling function
- Ownership is a design issue/decision

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- Different sections of code may “own” memory and be responsible for its management
- Stack frames are “owned” by the program/function: the program is responsible for clean up
- Ownership may be transferred: `malloc` transfers ownership to the calling function
- Ownership is a design issue/decision
- In general: only `free` memory if you own it

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- Different sections of code may “own” memory and be responsible for its management
- Stack frames are “owned” by the program/function: the program is responsible for clean up
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- Ownership is a design issue/decision
- In general: only `free` memory if you own it
- Don't `free` memory before you are done with it

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- Different sections of code may “own” memory and be responsible for its management
- Stack frames are “owned” by the program/function: the program is responsible for clean up
- Ownership may be transferred: `malloc` transfers ownership to the calling function
- Ownership is a design issue/decision
- In general: only `free` memory if you own it
- Don't `free` memory before you are done with it
- Don't `free` freed memory

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- Failure to properly clean up memory can lead to *memory leaks*

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Memory Leaks

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- Failure to properly clean up memory can lead to *memory leaks*
- A program holds on to memory it doesn't use

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- Failure to properly clean up memory can lead to *memory leaks*
- A program holds on to memory it doesn't use
- Or: references are lost to memory that cannot be freed

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Memory Leaks

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- Failure to properly clean up memory can lead to *memory leaks*
- A program holds on to memory it doesn't use
- Or: references are lost to memory that cannot be freed
- Program takes more and more resources

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- Failure to properly clean up memory can lead to *memory leaks*
- A program holds on to memory it doesn't use
- Or: references are lost to memory that cannot be freed
- Program takes more and more resources
- Performance degrades, taking the entire system down with it

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- Failure to properly clean up memory can lead to *memory leaks*
- A program holds on to memory it doesn't use
- Or: references are lost to memory that cannot be freed
- Program takes more and more resources
- Performance degrades, taking the entire system down with it
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Part V: Arrays & Functions

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- Goal: use arrays with functions

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- Goal: use arrays with functions
- Pass arrays to functions

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- Goal: use arrays with functions
- Pass arrays to functions
- Return arrays from functions

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- Goal: use arrays with functions
- Pass arrays to functions
- Return arrays from functions
- Recall: you always need to do your own *bookkeeping* with arrays

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- Goal: use arrays with functions
- Pass arrays to functions
- Return arrays from functions
- Recall: you always need to do your own *bookkeeping* with arrays
- Anytime you pass an array, you also need to pass its *size*

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- Goal: use arrays with functions
- Pass arrays to functions
- Return arrays from functions
- Recall: you always need to do your own *bookkeeping* with arrays
- Anytime you pass an array, you also need to pass its *size*
- Anytime you return an array, you need a way to implicitly determine its size

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Write a function that takes an array of integers and returns the sum of its values.

```

1  /**
2   * This function takes an integer array (of size n) and
3   * returns the sum of its elements. It returns 0 if the
4   * array is NULL.
5   */
6  int sum(int *arr, int n) {
7
8      if(arr == NULL) {
9          return 0;
10     }
11     int total = 0;
12     for(int i=0; i<n; i++) {
13         total += arr[i];
14     }
15     return total;
16 }
```

The const Keyword

- Arrays are *always* passed by reference in C

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- Arrays are *always* passed by reference in C
- It is possible to make changes to their contents

The const Keyword

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- Arrays are *always* passed by reference in C
- It is possible to make changes to their contents
- We don't always want this

The const Keyword

- Arrays are *always* passed by reference in C
- It is possible to make changes to their contents
- We don't always want this
- We can add the keyword `const` to prevent changes to the array

The const Keyword

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- Arrays are *always* passed by reference in C
- It is possible to make changes to their contents
- We don't always want this
- We can add the keyword `const` to prevent changes to the array
- The compiler checks for changes and generates an error if this “promise” is violated

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- Arrays are *always* passed by reference in C
- It is possible to make changes to their contents
- We don't always want this
- We can add the keyword `const` to prevent changes to the array
- The compiler checks for changes and generates an error if this “promise” is violated
- Design issue, not a full guarantee

The const Keyword

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- Arrays are *always* passed by reference in C
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- We don't always want this
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- The compiler checks for changes and generates an error if this “promise” is violated
- Design issue, not a full guarantee
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- Functions can create and return arrays

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- Functions can create and return arrays
- You *cannot* return static arrays

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- Functions can create and return arrays
- You *cannot* return static arrays
- Only dynamic arrays can be returned

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- Functions can create and return arrays
- You *cannot* return static arrays
- Only dynamic arrays can be returned
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```

1  #include <stdlib.h>
2  #include <stdio.h>
3
4  int * foo() {
5      int b[3];
6      b[0] = 10;
7      b[1] = 20;
8      b[2] = 30;
9      return b;
10 }
11
12 int main(int argc, char **argv) {
13     int *a = foo();
14     for(int i=0; i<3; i++) {
15         printf("a[%d] = %d\n", i, a[i]);
16     }
17     return 0;

```

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- Write a function that takes an integer n and returns an array of n integers, all initialized to 1
- Write a function that takes an integer array and returns a new *copy* of the array with all instances of zero removed

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- Up to now: 1-dimensional arrays

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- Up to now: 1-dimensional arrays
- You can have arrays with more than one dimension

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- Up to now: 1-dimensional arrays
- You can have arrays with more than one dimension
- 2-D arrays:

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- Up to now: 1-dimensional arrays
- You can have arrays with more than one dimension
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 - Rows & columns

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- Up to now: 1-dimensional arrays
- You can have arrays with more than one dimension
- 2-D arrays:
 - Rows & columns
 - Tabular data

Multidimensional Arrays

- Up to now: 1-dimensional arrays
- You can have arrays with more than one dimension
- 2-D arrays:
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 - Tabular data
 - Matrices

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- You can have arrays with more than one dimension
- 2-D arrays:
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 - Matrices
- 3-D arrays:

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- Up to now: 1-dimensional arrays
- You can have arrays with more than one dimension
- 2-D arrays:
 - Rows & columns
 - Tabular data
 - Matrices
- 3-D arrays:
 - Rows, columns, & “lanes”

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- Up to now: 1-dimensional arrays
- You can have arrays with more than one dimension
- 2-D arrays:
 - Rows & columns
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 - Matrices
- 3-D arrays:
 - Rows, columns, & “lanes”
 - 3-dimensional data

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- Up to now: 1-dimensional arrays
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- 3-D arrays:
 - Rows, columns, & “lanes”
 - 3-dimensional data
- 4+ dimensional arrays:

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- 3-D arrays:
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 - 3-dimensional data
- 4+ dimensional arrays:
 - Rethink what you're doing

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- Up to now: 1-dimensional arrays
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- 2-D arrays:
 - Rows & columns
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 - Matrices
- 3-D arrays:
 - Rows, columns, & “lanes”
 - 3-dimensional data
- 4+ dimensional arrays:
 - Rethink what you're doing
- Focus on 2-D arrays

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- A pointer, `int *arr` points to a 1-dimensional array

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- A pointer, `int *arr` points to a 1-dimensional array
- A “double” pointer, `int **mat` points to a “2-dimensional array”

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- A pointer, `int *arr` points to a 1-dimensional array
- A “double” pointer, `int **mat` points to a “2-dimensional array”
- Technically points to an array of pointers

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- A pointer, `int *arr` points to a 1-dimensional array
- A “double” pointer, `int **mat` points to a “2-dimensional array”
- Technically points to an array of pointers
- Each pointer in the array points to an array of integers

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- A pointer, `int *arr` points to a 1-dimensional array
- A “double” pointer, `int **mat` points to a “2-dimensional array”
- Technically points to an array of pointers
- Each pointer in the array points to an array of integers
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```
1  int n = 10;
2  int **matrix = NULL;
3  matrix = (int **) malloc(n * sizeof(int*));
4  for(int i=0; i<n; i++) {
5      matrix[i] = (int *) malloc(n * sizeof(int));
6  }
```

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```
1  int n = 10;
2  int **matrix = NULL;
3  matrix = (int **) malloc(n * sizeof(int*));
4  for(int i=0; i<n; i++) {
5      matrix[i] = (int *) malloc(n * sizeof(int));
6  }
```

****matrix**

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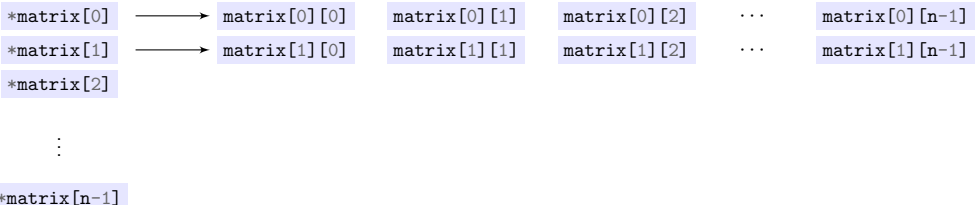
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```
1  int n = 10;
2  int **matrix = NULL;
3  matrix = (int **) malloc(n * sizeof(int*));
4  for(int i=0; i<n; i++) {
5      matrix[i] = (int *) malloc(n * sizeof(int));
6  }
```

****matrix**



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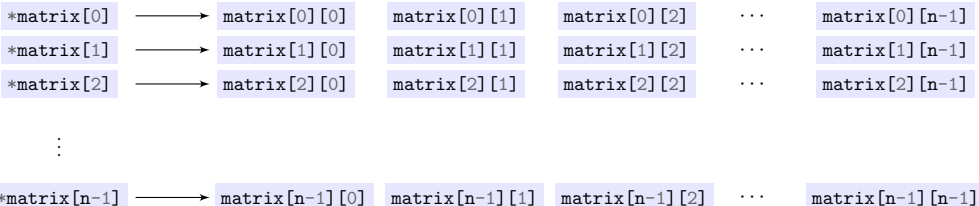
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```
1  int n = 10;
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3  matrix = (int **) malloc(n * sizeof(int*));
4  for(int i=0; i<n; i++) {
5      matrix[i] = (int *) malloc(n * sizeof(int));
6  }
```

****matrix**



- Once created, you can access elements using *two* indices

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- Once created, you can access elements using *two* indices
- Usually: row-column interpretation

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- Once created, you can access elements using *two* indices
- Usually: row-column interpretation
- `matrix[i][j]` accesses the *i*-th row and *j*-th column

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- `matrix[i][j]` accesses the i -th row and j -th column
- Use two nested for-loops to iterate over each row/column

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- Use two nested for-loops to iterate over each row/column

```

1  for(int i=0; i<n; i++) {
2      for(int j=0; j<n; j++) {
3          matrix[i][j] = (2*i+3*j);
4      }
5  }
6  printf("last row/column value = %d\n", matrix[n-1][n-1]);

```

```

1  #include <stdlib.h>
2  #include <stdio.h>
3
4  int main(int argc, char **argv) {
5
6      int n = 3;
7      int **matrix = NULL;
8      matrix = (int **) malloc(n * sizeof(int*));
9      for(int i=0; i<n; i++) {
10         matrix[i] = (int *) malloc(n * sizeof(int));
11     }
12
13     int value = 1;
14     for(int i=0; i<n; i++) {
15         for(int j=0; j<n; j++) {
16             matrix[i][j] = value;
17             value++;

```

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- Must do proper cleanup when freeing 2-D arrays

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- Cannot simply free the matrix: `free(matrix)`

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- Must do proper cleanup when freeing 2-D arrays
- Cannot simply free the matrix: `free(matrix)`
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- Must do proper cleanup when freeing 2-D arrays
- Cannot simply free the matrix: `free(matrix)`
- Results in a memory leak
- You must free each row before you free the array of pointers

```
1  for(int i=0; i<n; i++) {  
2      free(matrix[i]);  
3  }  
4  free(matrix);
```

Alternative: Contiguous Allocation

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```

1  #include <stdlib.h>
2
3  int main(int argc, char **argv) {
4
5      int n = 5, m = 3;
6      int **arr = (int **)malloc(sizeof(int *) * n);
7      arr[0] = (int *)malloc(sizeof(int) * (n * m));
8
9      for(int i=1; i<n; i++) {
10         arr[i] = (*arr + (m * i));
11     }
12
13     int value = 1;
14     for(int i=0; i<n; i++) {
15         for(int j=0; j<m; j++) {
16             arr[i][j] = value;
17             value++;

```

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Part VII: Shallow vs. Deep Copies

Shallow Copy

Consider the following piece of code, what does it print?

```

1  //create an array containing {10, 20, 30, 40, 50}
2  int n = 5;
3  int *a = (int *) malloc(n * sizeof(int));
4  for(int i=0; i<n; i++) {
5      a[i] = (i+1)*10;
6  }
7
8  //let's make a "copy"
9  int *b = a;
10 b[0] = 42;
11
12 //what is in a[0]?
13 printf("a[0] = %d\n", a[0]);

```

Shallow Copy

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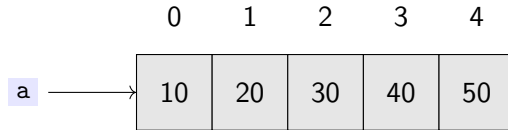
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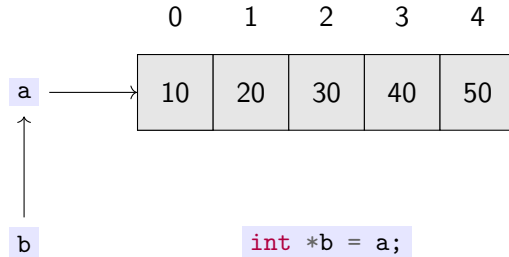
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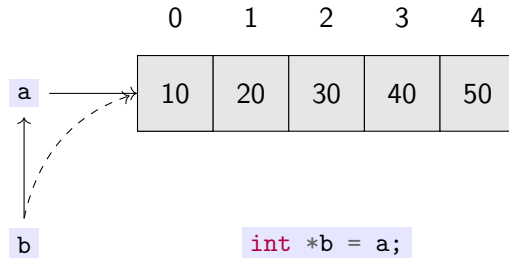
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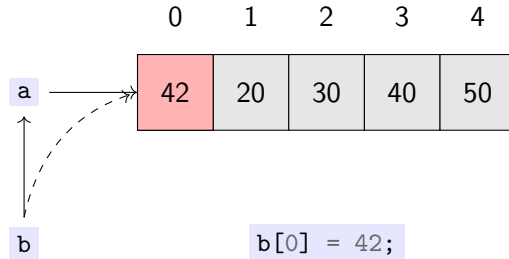
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- A shared reference is a *shallow copy*

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- A shared reference is a *shallow copy*
- Multiple pointers refer to the same memory location/array

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- A shared reference is a *shallow copy*
- Multiple pointers refer to the same memory location/array
- Changes to one reference affect the other

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- A shared reference is a *shallow copy*
- Multiple pointers refer to the same memory location/array
- Changes to one reference affect the other
- Not typically what we want with a “copy”

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- In contrast: a *deep copy* is when we have two *separate* arrays with the same *contents*

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- In contrast: a *deep copy* is when we have two *separate* arrays with the same *contents*
- Two *different* memory locations

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- In contrast: a *deep copy* is when we have two *separate* arrays with the same *contents*
- Two *different* memory locations
- Changes to one do not affect the other

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- In contrast: a *deep copy* is when we have two *separate* arrays with the same *contents*
- Two *different* memory locations
- Changes to one do not affect the other
- Example

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- In contrast: a *deep copy* is when we have two *separate* arrays with the same *contents*
- Two *different* memory locations
- Changes to one do not affect the other
- Example
- Demo: write a deep copy function

Deep Copy

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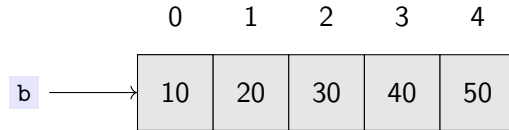
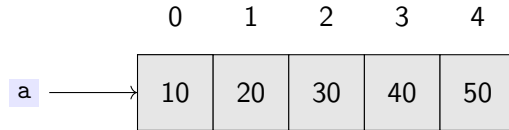
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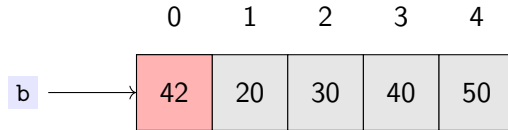
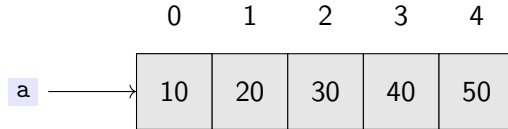
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`b[0] = 42;`

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```

1  /**
2   * This function creates a deep copy of the
3   * given array.
4   */
5  int * deepCopy(const int *a, int n) {
6      if(a == NULL || n < 0) {
7          return NULL;
8      }
9      int *copy = (int *) malloc(n * sizeof(int));
10     for(int i=0; i<n; i++) {
11         copy[i] = a[i];
12     }
13     return copy;
14 }
```