Single-dimensional arrays Multi-dimensional arrays

Programming Design Variables and Arrays

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Variables and arrays

- Today we introduce **arrays**.
 - A collection of variables of the same type.
 - An array variable is of an array type, a nonbasic data type.
- There are many nonbasic data types:
 - Arrays.
 - Pointers.
 - Self-defined data types (e.g., classes).
- Before we introduce arrays, let's talk more about variables and basic data types.

Basic data types

Outline

- Basic data types
- Constants and casting
- Single-dimensional arrays
- Multi-dimensional arrays

Data types, literals, and variables

- Recall that in C++, each variable must be have its **data type**.
 - It tells the system how to allocate memory spaces and how to interpret those 0s and 1s stored there.
 - It will also determine how operations are performed on the variable.
- Here we introduce **basic** (or built-in or primitive) data types.
 - Those provided as part of the C++ standard.
 - We will define our own data types later in this semester.
- Before we start, let's distinguish **literals** from **variables**.
 - Literals: items whose contents are **fixed**, e.g., 3, 8.5, and "Hello world".
 - Variables: items whose values may change.

Basic data types

• The ten C++ basic data types (bytes information comes from the instructor's compiler):

Category	Type	Bytes	Type	Bytes
	bool	1	long	4
Trades a sur	char	1	unsigned int	4
Integers	int	4	unsigned short	2
	short	2	unsigned long	4
Fractional numbers	float	4	double	8

- Basic type names are all keywords.
- Number of bytes are compiler-dependent.

int

- int means an integer.
- In Dev-C++ 5.11 for Windows 10:
 - An integer uses 4 bytes to store from -2^{31} to $2^{31} 1$.
 - unsigned (4 bytes): from 0 to $2^{32} 1$.
 - **short** (2 bytes): from -32768 to 32767.
 - long: the same as int.
- The C++ standard only requires a compiler to ensure that:
 - The space for a **long** variable \geq the space for an **int** one.
 - The space for an **int** variable \geq the space for a **short** one.
- short and long just create integers with different "lengths".
 - In most information systems this is not an issue.

Limits of int

• The limits of C++ basic data types are stored in **<climits>**.

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

int main()
{
   cout << INT_MIN << " " << INT_MAX << "\n";
   return 0;
}</pre>
```

• For information, see, e.g., http://www.cplusplus.com/reference/climits/.

sizeof

• We may use the **sizeof** operator to know the size of a variable or a type.

```
cout << "int " << sizeof(int) << "\n";
cout << "char " << sizeof(char) << "\n";
cout << "bool " << sizeof(bool) << "\n";

short s = 0;
cout << "short int " << sizeof(s) << "\n";
long 1 = 0;
cout << "long int " << sizeof(l) << "\n";

cout << "unsigned short int " << sizeof(unsigned short) << "\n";
cout << "unsigned int " << sizeof(unsigned) << "\n";
cout << "unsigned long int " << sizeof(unsigned long) << "\n";</pre>
```

• Dev-C++ (and some other compilers) offers **long** for 8-byte integers.

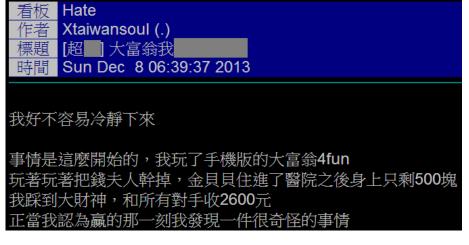
Overflow

- Be aware of **overflow!**
 - Storing a value that is "too large" to a variable.

```
int i = 0;
short sGood = 32765;

while(i < 10)
{
    short sBad = sGood + i;
    cout << sGood + i << " " << sBad << "\n";
    i = i + 1;
}</pre>
```

Overflow



- Why? Why 2.1 billions?
- $2^{31} 1 = 2147483647.$

Source: http://disp.cc/m/tread.php?id=115-70Zv

char

- **char** means a character.
 - Use **one byte** (-128 to 127) to store English letters, numbers, symbols, and special characters (e.g, the newline character).
 - Cannot store, e.g, Chinese characters.
- It is also an **integer**!
 - These characters are encoded with the **ASCII code** in most PCs.
 - ASCII = American Standard Code for Information Interchange.
 - See the ASCII code mapping in your textbook.
- Nevertheless, avoid doing arithmetic on **char**.

Example: ASCII code table 1

• This program prints out common symbols and their ASCII codes.

```
#include <iostream>
using namespace std;
int main()
{
  for(int c = 33; c \le 126; c++)
    cout << c << " ";
    char cAsChar = c;
    cout << cAsChar << "\n";
  return 0;
}
```

Single-dimensional arrays

Multi-dimensional arrays

Example: ASCII code table 2

- Here is another version.
- What is the difference?

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

int main()
{
   cout << " 0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9\n";
   cout << " 3 ";</pre>
```

```
for (int c = 33; c \le 126; c++)
 if(c % 10 = 0)
    if(c / 10 \le 9)
      cout << " ";
    cout << c / 10;
  char cAsChar = c;
  cout << " " << cAsChar;
  if (c % 10 = 9)
    cout << "\n";
return 0;
```

Literals in char type

• Use single quotation marks to make your **char** literal.

```
- char c = 'c';
- char c = 99;
```

• Some wrong ways of marking a character:

```
- Wrong: char c = "c";
- Wrong: char c = 'cc';
```

• More about **char** will be discussed when we talk about **casting** and **strings**.

Single-dimensional arrays

Multi-dimensional arrays

bool

- A bool variable uses 1 byte to record one Boolean value: true or false.
 - Two literals: true and false.
 - 7 bits are wasted.
 - All non-zero values are treated as true.
- **bool** variables play an important role in control statements!

```
bool b = 0;
cout \ll b \ll "\n";
b = 1;
cout \ll b \ll "\n";
b = 10;
cout \ll b \ll "\n";
b = 0.1:
cout \ll b \ll "\n";
b = -1;
cout \ll b \ll "\n";
```

float and double

- **float** and **double** are used to declare fractional numbers.
 - Can be **5.0**, **-6.2**, etc.
 - Can be **16.25e2** (1.625 \times 10³ or 1625), **7.33e-3** (0.00733), etc.
- They follow the IEEE floating point standards.
 - **float** uses 4 bytes to store values between 1.4×10^{-45} and 3.4×10^{38} .
 - double uses 8 bytes to store values between 4.9×10^{-324} and 1.8×10^{308} .
- Dev-C++ (and some other compilers) offers **long double** as a 16-bytes floating point data type.

Precision can be a big issue

- Consider the following program:
- Nothing special.

```
#include<iostream>
#include<cmath> // for sqrt()
using namespace std;
int main()
  for (int i = 0; i < 100; i++)
    float f = sqrt(i);
    cout << f << " " << f * f << " ";
    cout \ll "\n";
  return 0;
```

Single-dimensional arrays

Multi-dimensional arrays

Precision can be a big issue

• How about this:

-3.4?

 As modern computers store values in bits, most decimal fractional numbers can only be approximated.

```
      - 3
      1 1 . 0 0 0 0

      - 3.375
      1 1 . 0 1 1 0

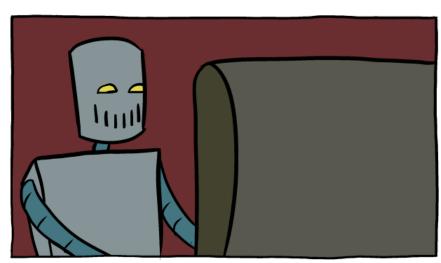
      - 3.4375
      1 1 . 0 1 1 1
```

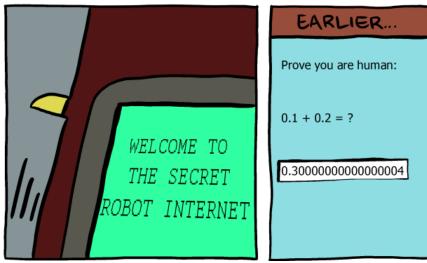
```
int bad = 0;
for (int i = 0; i < 100; i++)
{
  float f = sqrt(i);
  cout << f << " " << f * f << " ";
  if(f * f != i)
    cout << "!!!";
    bad++;
  cout << "\n";
cout << "bad precision: " << bad;
```

Precision can be a big issue

• Let's see how big the errors are:

```
#include<iostream>
#include<cmath>
#include<iomanip> // setprecision()
using namespace std;
int main()
  for (int i = 0; i < 100; i++)
    float f = sqrt(i);
    cout << f << " "
         << setprecision(10)</pre>
         << f * f << " ";</pre>
    cout \ll "\n";
  return 0;
```





(http://www.smbc-comics.com/comic/2013-06-05)

Precision can be a big issue

• Remedy: "imprecise" comparisons.

```
if(abs(f * f - i) > 0.0001)
{
   cout << "!!!";
   bad++;
}</pre>
```

- The error tolerance can be neither too large nor too small.
 - It should be set according to the property of your own problem.
- To learn more about this issue, study *Numerical Methods*, *Numerical Analysis*, *Scientific Computing*, etc.
- In this course, we will play with only integers for most of the time.

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Constant variables

- Sometimes we want to use a variable to store a particular value.
 - In a program doing calculations regarding circles, the value of π may be used **repeatedly**.
 - We do not want to write many **3.14** throughout the program! Why?
 - We may declare **pi** = **3.14** once and then use **pi** repeatedly.
- In this case, this variable is actually a **symbolic constant**.
 - We want to prevent it from being **modified**.

Constant variables

- A **constant** is one kind of variables.
- To declare a constant, use the key word **const**:
 - const int a = 100;
 - All further assignment operations on a constant generate compilation errors.
 - That is why we must **initialize** a constant.
- It is suggested to use **capital characters** and **underlines** to name constants. This distinguishes them from usual variables.
 - const double PI = 3.1416;
 - const int MAX LEVEL = 5;
 - Some people use lowercase characters and underlines.

Casting

- Variables are **containers**.
- Variables of different types are containers of different sizes/shapes.
 - long \geq int \geq short.
 - "Shapes" of **int** and **float** are different (though sizes are identical).
- A big container may store a small item. A big item must be "cut" to be stored in a small container.
 - So are variables of different types.

```
short s = 100;
int i = s; // 100
i = 100000;
s = i; // -31072
```

```
double d = 5; // d = 5.0 int s = 5.5; // s = 5
```

Casting

- Changing the type of a variable or literal is called **casting**.
- There are two kinds of casting:
 - Implicit casting: from a small type to a large type.
 - Explicit casting: from a large type to a small type.
- When implicit casting occurs, there is no value of precision loss.
 - The system does that automatically.
 - The value of that variable or literal does not change.
 - There is no need for a programmer to indicate how to implicitly cast one small type to a large type.
- To cast a large type to a small type, a programmer is responsible for indicating how to do it explicitly.

Explicit casting

- Suppose we want to store 5.6 to an integer:
 - int a = 5.6; is not good.
 - int a = static cast<int>(5.6); is better.
- To cast basic data types, we use **static cast**:

```
static_cast<type>(expression)
```

- When a float or double is cast to an integer value (and there is no value loss), the fractional part is **truncated**.
- In the example above, both statements makes **a** equal 5.
 - Then why bothering?

Explicit casting

- Explicit casting is to indicate the way of casting we want.
 - For basic types, there is only one way to cast a large type to a small type.
 - For more complicated types, however, there may be **multiple**.
- There are four different explicit casting operators.
 - static_cast, dynamic_cast, reindivter_cast, and const_cast.
 - For basic data types, **static** cast is enough.
- By explicitly indicating how to cast:
 - This is to make sure that, at the run time, the program runs as we expect.
 - This is also to notify other programmers (or the future ourselves).
- Explicit casting also allows for a temporary change of types (see below).

Good programming style

• There is an old way of explicit casting:

(type) expression

- For example, int a = (int) 5.6;
- Try to avoid it!
 - This operation includes all four possibilities, and we have no idea which one will be performed at the run time.
- If possible, try to modify your variable declaration to avoid casting.

Casting for division

• Let's try this program:

```
int grade1 = 0, grade2 = 0;
cin >> grade1 >> grade2;
cout << (grade1 + grade2) / 2;</pre>
```

- The division operator returns an integer if both operands (numerator and denominator) are integers.
- How to get our desired results?
 - If appropriate, we may change the data types of the operands.

```
double grade1 = 0, grade2 = 0;
```

- If not appropriate, we may cast the operands **temporarily**.

Casting for division

• Which one works?

```
int grade1 = 0, grade2 = 0;
cin >> grade1 >> grade2;
cout << static_cast<float>((grade1 + grade2) / 2);

int grade1 = 0, grade2 = 0;
cin >> grade1 >> grade2;
cout << static_cast<float>(grade1 + grade2) / 2;
```

- Casting can be a big issue when we work with nonbasic data types.
- At this moment, just be aware of fractional and integer values.

Casting a character to an integer

• Try to explain the following program:

```
char c = 254;
int a = 10;
cout << c + a; // 8. Why?</pre>
```

• Avoid doing arithmetic on **char**.

Outline

- Basic data types
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- Single-dimensional arrays
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Set of similar variables

- Suppose we want to write a program to store five students' scores.
- We may declare 5 variables.
 - int score1, score2, score3, score4, score5;
- What if we have 500 students? How to declare 500 variables?
- Even if we have only 5, we are unable to write a loop to process them.

```
for(int i = 0; i < 5; i++)
{
   cout << score1; // and then?
   cout << scorei; // error!
}</pre>
```

Why arrays?

- An array is a collection of variables with the same type.
- To declare five integer variables for scores, we may write:

```
int score[5];
```

- These variables are declared with the same array name (score).
- They are distinguished by their **indices**.

```
cin >> score[2];
```

```
cout << score[2] + score[3];</pre>
```

An array is a type

- Arrays are often used with loops.
 - Quite often the loop counter is used as the array index.
- An array is also a (nonbasic) type.
 - The type of **score** is an "integer array" (of length 5).
 - What is this?

```
cout << score;
```

int score[5];

for (int i = 0; i < 5; i++)

for(int i = 0; i < 5; i++)

cout << score[i] << " ";

cin >> score[i];

- We will go back to this when we introduce pointers.
 - For now, just treat an array as a sequence of variables.

Array declaration

• The grammar for declaring an array is

data type array name[number of elements];

- E.g., int score[5];
 - This is an integer array with five elements (the array length/size is 5).
 - Each array element itself is a variable.
 - The index starts at 0! They are score[0],
 score[1], ..., and score[4].
- It occupies 4 bytes \times 5 = 20 **continuous** bytes.
 - Try cout << sizeof(score);!

Address	Identifier	Value	
0.00.640	0		
0x20c648	Score[0]	3	
0x20c64c	Score[1]	?	
0 x 20c650	Score[2]	?	
0x20c654	Score[3]	?	
0 x 20c658	Score[4]	?	

Memory

An example

• We have written a program for 5 scores:

• If we have 500 students:

```
int score[5];
for(int i = 0; i < 5; i++)
  cin >> score[i];
for(int i = 0; i < 5; i++)
  cout << score[i] << " ";</pre>
```

```
int score[500];
for(int i = 0; i < 500; i++)
  cin >> score[i];
for(int i = 0; i < 500; i++)
  cout << score[i] << " ";</pre>
```

Array initialization

• Arrays are **not** initialized automatically.

```
int array[100];
for(int i = 0; i < 100; i++)
{
   cout << array[i] << " ";
   if (i % 10 == 9)
     cout << "\n";
}</pre>
```

Array initialization

• Various ways of initializing an array:

```
int daysInMonth1[12] = {31, 28, 31, 30, 31, 30, 31, 30, 31, 30, 31};
int daysInMonth2[] = {31, 28, 31, 30, 31, 30, 31, 30, 31, 30, 31};
cout << sizeof(daysInMonth2); // 4 * 12 = 48
int daysInMonth3[12] = {31, 28, 31}; // nine 0s
int daysInMonth4[3] = {1, 2, 3, 4}; // error!</pre>
```

• To initialize all elements to 0:

```
int array[100] = {0};

for(int i = 0; i < 100; i++)
{
  cout << array[i] << " ";
  if (i % 10 == 9)
   cout << "\n";
}</pre>
```

Example: inner product

- This program calculates the inner product of two given 4-dimensional vectors.
- Do these exercises at home:
 - Modify the program to allow a user to decide the values of the two vectors.
 - Write a program that calculate the sum of two vectors.

```
#include<iostream>
using namespace std;
int main()
  int a[4] = \{1, 2, 3, 4\};
  int b[4] = \{4, 3, 2, 1\};
  int ip = 0;
  for (int i = 0; i < 4; i++)
    ip += a[i] * b[i];
  cout \ll ip \ll "\n";
  return 0;
```

The boundary of an array

- In C++, it is **allowed** for one to "go outside an array".
 - No compilation error!
 - May or may not generate a run time error: If our program try to access a memory space allocated to another program, the operating system will terminate our program.
 - The result is unpredictable.
- A programmer must be aware of array bounds by herself/himself.

```
int array[100] = {0};
for(int i = 0; i < 500; i++)
{
   cout << array[i] << " ";
   if (i % 10 == 9)
      cout << "\n";
}</pre>
```

Memory allocation for arrays

- So what happens when we declare or access an array?
- When we declare an array:

```
int score[5];
```

- The system allocates memory spaces according to the type and length.
- The array variable indicates the beginning address of the space.

```
cout << score; // 0x20c648 (Hexadecimal)</pre>
```

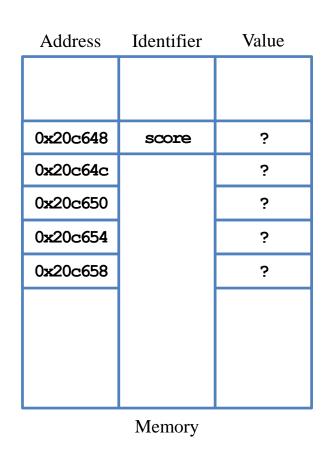
Address	Identifier	Value
2 22 212		_
0x20c648	score	3
0x20c64c		?
0 x 20c650		?
0x20c654		?
0 x 20c658		?
Mamoru		

Memory indexing for arrays

- When we access an array element:
 - The array index indicates the amount of offset for accessing a memory space.
 - score[i] means to take the variable stored at "starting from score, offset by i units".

```
cout << score + 2; // 0x20c650
```

- So score[i] is always accepted by the compiler for any value of i.
 - Always be careful when using arrays!



Finding the array length

- Sometimes we are given an array whose size is not known by us.
- One way of finding the **array length** is to use **sizeof**.
 - It returns the total number of bytes allocated to that array.
- Suppose the array is named score, its length equals

```
sizeof(score) / sizeof(score[0]);
```

- sizeof (score) is the total number of bytes allocated to the array.
- sizeof (score[0]) is the number of bytes allocated to the first element.

Finding the array length

• Example: Let's print out all elements in an array:

```
int array[] = {1, 2, 3};
int length = sizeof(array) / sizeof(array[0]);
for(int i = 0; i < length; i++)
  cout << array[i] << " ";</pre>
```

- When using **sizeof** to count the length of, e.g., an integer array:
 - Use sizeof(a) / sizeof(a[0]).
 - Do not use sizeof(a) / sizeof(int).
- Why?

Example: finding the maximum

- How to find the **maximum** among many numbers?
- We want to write a program that:
 - Asks the user to input 10 numbers.
 - Once 10 numbers are input, prints out the maximum.

```
float value[10] = {0};
for(int i = 0; i < 10; i++)
   cin >> value[i];
// and then?
```

- How to find the maximum?
 - Compare the first two and find the larger one.
 - Use it to be compare with the third one.
 - And so on.

Example: finding the maximum

• Let's record the current maximum at **max**:

```
float value[10] = {0};
for (int i = 0; i < 10; i++)
    cin >> value[i];

float max = value[0];
for(int i = 1; i < 10; i++)
{
    if(value[i] > max)
        max = value[i];
}
cout << max;</pre>
```

Good programming style

- It is suggested to declare a **constant** and use it to:
 - Declare an array.
 - Control any loop that traverses the array.
- Why?

```
const int VALUE LEN = 10;
float value[VALUE LEN] = {0};
for (int i = 0; i < VALUE LEN; i++)
    cin >> value[i];

float max = value[0];
for (int i = 1; i < VALUE LEN; i++)
{
    if (value[i] > max)
        max = value[i];
}
cout << max;</pre>
```

Things you cannot (should not) do

- Suppose that you have two arrays **a1** and **a2**.
 - Even if they have the same length and their elements have the same type, you cannot write a1 = a2. This results in a syntax error.
 - You also cannot compare two arrays with
 =, >, <, etc.
- Why?
- a1 and a2 are just two memory addresses!
- To copy one array to another array, use a loop to copy each element **one by one**.

```
int a1[5] = {1, 2, 3, 4, 5};
int a2[5] = {0};

// a2 = a1; // error!
for(int i = 0; i < 5; i++)
{
   a2[i] = a1[i];
}</pre>
```

Things you cannot (should not) do

- Although allowed in Dev-C++, you should not declare an array whose length is **nonconstant**.
 - This creates a syntax error in some compilers.
 - In ANSI C++, the length of an array must be fixed when it is declared.
- To dynamically determine the array length:
 - We will talk about this a few weeks later.
- The index of an array variable should be **integer**.
 - Some compiler allows a fractional index (casting is done automatically).

```
// DO NOT do this
int x = 0;
cin >> x;
// very bad!
int array[x];
array[2] = 3; // etc.
```

```
// Do this
int x = 0;
cin >> x;
// good!
int* array = new int[x];
array[2] = 3; // etc.
```

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Two-dimensional arrays

- While a one-dimensional array is like a **vector**, a two-dimensional array is like a **matrix** or **table**.
- Intuitively, a two-dimensional array is composed by **rows** and **columns**.
 - To declare a two-dimensional array, we should specify the numbers of rows and columns.

```
data type array name[rows][columns];
```

• As an example, let's declare an array with 3 rows and 7 columns.

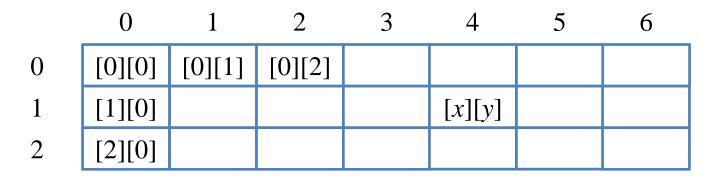
double score[3][7];

Single-dimensional arrays

Multi-dimensional arrays

Two-dimensional arrays

double score[3][7];



- score[0][0] is the 1st and score[0][1] is the 2nd. What are x and y?

Two-dimensional arrays

• We may initialize a two-dimensional array as follows:

```
int score1[2][3] = {{4, 5, 6}, {7, 8, 9}};
int score2[][3] = {4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9}; // 2 can be omitted.
```

```
int score3[2][3] = {{4, 5}, {7, 8, 9}};
cout << score3[0][2]; // 0</pre>
```

```
int score4[2][3] = {4, 5, 7, 8, 9};
cout << score4[0][2]; // 7</pre>
```

Single-dimensional arrays

Multi-dimensional arrays

Example: tic-tac-toe

• Let's write a program to detect the winner of a tic-tac-toe game:

```
int a[3][3] = {{1, 0, 1}, {1, 1, 0}, {0, 0, 1}};

for(int i = 0; i < 2; i++)
{
   if(a[i][0] == a[i][1] && a[i][1] == a[i][2])
   {
      cout << a[i][0] << endl;
      break;
   }
}
// then check for columns and diagonals</pre>
```

×	\circ	×
X	×	0
\circ	\circ	×

Example: matrix additions

• Let's write a program to do matrix additions.

```
int a[2][3] = \{\{1, 2, 3\}, \{1, 2, 3\}\};
int b[2][3] = \{\{4, 5, 6\}, \{7, 8, 9\}\};
int c[2][3] = \{0\};
for (int i = 0; i < 2; i++) // matrix addition
  for (int j = 0; j < 3; j++)
    c[i][j] = a[i][j] + b[i][j];
for(int i = 0; i < 2; i ++) // print out c
  for (int j = 0; j < 3; j ++)
    cout \ll c[i][j] \ll "";
  cout \ll "\n";
}
```

Example: matrix multiplications

• Let's write a program to do matrix multiplications.

```
int a[2][3] = {1, 1, 1, 2, 2, 2};
int b[3][4] = {1, 1, 1, 1, 2, 2, 2, 2, 3, 3, 3, 3};
int c[2][4] = {0};

for(int i = 0; i < 2; i++)
    for(int j = 0; j < 4; j++)
        for(int k = 0; k < 3; k++)
        c[i][j] += a[i][k] * b[k][j];

// print out c</pre>
```

Single-dimensional arrays

Multi-dimensional arrays

Embedded one-dimensional arrays

- Two-dimensional arrays are not actually rows and columns.
- A two-dimensional array is actually **several** one-dimensional arrays.

• Try this: int a[2][3]; cout << a << " " << a[0] << " " << a[1] << endl;

Single-dimensional arrays

Multi-dimensional arrays

Embedded one-dimensional arrays

- int a[2][3];
 - a[0] [0] is the first element.
 - a[0][1] is the second element.
 - a[1][0] is the **fourth** element.
- Two dimensional arrays are stored linearly.
 - And still consecutively.
- Try this:

```
int a[2][3];
cout << a << " " << a[0] << "\n";
cout << a[1] << " " << a + 1 << "\n";
cout << sizeof(a) << " " << sizeof(a[0]) << "\n";</pre>
```

Address	Identifier	Value
0x20c648	a[0]	3
0x20c64c		3
0 x 20c650		?
0x20c654	a[1]	?
0 x 20c658		,
0 x 20c65c		?

Memory

Embedded one-dimensional arrays

- So for a two dimensional array **score**:
 - score[0] is the ____th one-dimensional array.
 - score[i][j] is the ____th element of the ____th one-dimensional array.
 - score[i] is the ____th one-dimensional array.
- Which description is more accurate?
 - There is an array having three rows and seven columns.
 - There is an array having three rows, each having seven elements.
- All these one-dimensional arrays must be of the same length.
 - Two-dimensional arrays with various row lengths can be built with pointers.

Multi-dimensional arrays

- We may have arrays with even higher dimensions (but hard to use).
 - int threeDim[2][3][4];
 - This is an array of $2 \times 3 \times 4 = 24$ integers.
 - They together occupies $24 \times 4 = 96$ bytes (in a continuous space in the memory).
 - threeDim is still the address of the first element threeDim[0] [0] [0].

Address	Identifier	Value	
0x20c600	threeDim[0][0][0]	?	
0x20c604	threeDim[0][0][1]	?	
÷		:	
0x20c65c	threeDim[1][2][3]	?	

Memory

Single-dimensional arrays

Multi-dimensional arrays

Multi-dimensional arrays

threeDim

[0][0][0]	[0][0][1]	[0][0][2]	[0][0][3]
[0][1][0]	[0][1][1]	[0][1][2]	[0][1][3]
[0][2][0]	[0][2][1]	[0][2][2]	[0][2][3]
[1][0][0]	[1][0][1]	[1][0][2]	[1][0][3]
[1][1][0]	[1][1][1]	[1][1][2]	[1][1][3]
[1][2][0]	[1][2][1]	[1][2][2]	[1][2][3]

threeDim[1]

[1][0][0]	[1][0][1]	[1][0][2]	[1][0][3]
[1][1][0]	[1][1][1]	[1][1][2]	[1][1][3]
[1][2][0]	[1][2][1]	[1][2][2]	[1][2][3]

threeDim[1][1]

[1][1][0] [1][1][1] [1][1][2] [1][1][3]