
C++ Course

FLORIAN CLIQUET
NOTE TAKING OF ONLINE RESOURCES

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Introduction

This document provides an overview of C++ concepts written by Florian Cliquet. It's a set of notes on the "C++ Full Course for free" available at the following link : "C++ Full Course for free".

1 Variables and Basic Type

In C++, variables must be declared before they can be used. Each variable has a specific type, which determines the kind of data it can store. Basic types in C++ include ‘int’ for integers, ‘double’ for floating-point numbers, ‘char’ for characters, and ‘bool’ for boolean values.

```

1 // Example of variable declaration
2 int number = 10;           // Integer variable
3 double decimal = 5.5;     // Floating-point variable
4 char letter = 'A';        // Character variable
5 bool flag = true;         // Boolean variable
6
7 // Printing variables
8 std::cout << "Number: " << number << std::endl;
9 std::cout << "Decimal: " << decimal << std::endl;
10 std::cout << "Letter: " << letter << std::endl;
11 std::cout << "Flag: " << std::boolalpha << flag << std::endl;

```

Variables can also be initialized using different methods, such as direct assignment, copy initialization, and uniform initialization.

```

1 // Different ways to initialize variables
2 int a = 10;               // Direct assignment
3 int b(20);                // Copy initialization
4 int c{30};                // Uniform initialization
5
6 std::cout << "a: " << a << std::endl;
7 std::cout << "b: " << b << std::endl;
8 std::cout << "c: " << c << std::endl;

```

2 Const

The ‘const’ keyword is used to define constant variables, which cannot be modified after their initial definition. Constants provide a way to protect data from accidental changes and can improve code readability.

```

1 const int daysInWeek = 7;           // Constant integer
2 const double pi = 3.14159;         // Constant double
3 const char newline = '\n';         // Constant character
4
5 // Uncommenting the next line will cause a compilation error
6 // daysInWeek = 8; // Error: cannot modify a const variable
7
8 std::cout << "Days in a week: " << daysInWeek << std::endl;

```

```
9 std::cout << "Value of Pi: " << pi << std::endl;
10 std::cout << "Newline character: " << newline << std::endl;
```

3 Namespaces

Namespaces are used to organize code into logical groups and prevent name conflicts, especially in large projects or when using multiple libraries.

```
1 namespace MyNamespace {
2     int value = 100;
3     void display() {
4         std::cout << "Value: " << value << std::endl;
5     }
6 }
7
8 int main() {
9     int value = 10; // Local variable
10    std::cout << "Local value: " << value << std::endl;
11    std::cout << "Namespace value: " << MyNamespace::value <<
        std::endl;
12
13    MyNamespace::display(); // Calling a function in the
        namespace
14    return 0;
15 }
```

Namespaces can be nested and can also be brought into the current scope with the ‘using’ directive.

```
1 namespace OuterNamespace {
2     namespace InnerNamespace {
3         int value = 200;
4     }
5 }
6
7 using namespace OuterNamespace::InnerNamespace;
8
9 int main() {
10    std::cout << "InnerNamespace value: " << value << std::
        endl;
11    return 0;
12 }
```


4 Type def and type aliases

‘typedef’ and ‘using’ are used to create type aliases, which can make code more readable and maintainable.

```

1 typedef unsigned long ulong;
2 using uint = unsigned int;
3
4 ulong bigNumber = 1000000;
5 uint smallNumber = 100;
6
7 std::cout << "Big number: " << bigNumber << std::endl;
8 std::cout << "Small number: " << smallNumber << std::endl;

```

Type aliases are especially useful for complex types, such as function pointers or template instantiations.

```

1 // Using typedef for a function pointer
2 typedef void (*FunctionPtr)(int);
3 void myFunction(int x) {
4     std::cout << "Function called with " << x << std::endl;
5 }
6 FunctionPtr fp = myFunction;
7 fp(5);
8
9 // Using using for a template instantiation
10 template<typename T>
11 using Vec = std::vector<T>;
12
13 Vec<int> numbers = {1, 2, 3, 4, 5};
14 for (int number : numbers) {
15     std::cout << number << std::endl;
16 }

```

5 Arithmetic operators

C++ supports standard arithmetic operators : ‘+’, ‘-’, ‘*’, ‘/’, ‘

```

1 int sum = 5 + 3; // Sum: 8
2 int difference = 5 - 3; // Difference: 2
3 int product = 5 * 3; // Product: 15
4 int quotient = 5 / 3; // Quotient: 1
5 int remainder = 5 % 3; // Remainder: 2
6
7 std::cout << "Sum: " << sum << std::endl;

```

```

8 std::cout << "Difference: " << difference << std::endl;
9 std::cout << "Product: " << product << std::endl;
10 std::cout << "Quotient: " << quotient << std::endl;
11 std::cout << "Remainder: " << remainder << std::endl;

```

Arithmetic operators can also be used with floating-point numbers, but division behaves differently as it produces a floating-point result.

```

1 double num1 = 5.0, num2 = 3.0;
2 double divResult = num1 / num2; // Division: 1.66667
3
4 std::cout << "Division result: " << divResult << std::endl;

```

6 Type conversion

Type conversion can be implicit (automatic) or explicit (manual). Implicit conversion occurs when a value is automatically converted to another type.

```

1 // Implicit conversion
2 int integer = 10;
3 double floating = integer; // integer is implicitly converted
4 // to double
5
6 std::cout << "Integer: " << integer << std::endl;
7 std::cout << "Floating: " << floating << std::endl;

```

Explicit conversion, also known as type casting, is done manually by the programmer.

```

1 // Explicit conversion
2 double value = 5.75;
3 int intValue = (int)value; // Old C-style cast
4 int intValue2 = static_cast<int>(value); // Modern C++ cast
5
6 std::cout << "Double value: " << value << std::endl;
7 std::cout << "Integer value (C-style): " << intValue << std::
8 // endl;
9 std::cout << "Integer value (C++-style): " << intValue2 << std
10 // ::endl;

```

7 User input

C++ uses the ‘cin’ object to accept user input from the standard input stream.

```

1 int age;
2 std::string name;
3
4 std::cout << "Enter your name: ";
5 std::cin >> name;
6 std::cout << "Enter your age: ";
7 std::cin >> age;
8
9 std::cout << "Name: " << name << ", Age: " << age << std::endl
  ;

```

To read a whole line of input, including spaces, ‘std::getline’ is used.

```

1 std::string fullName;
2 std::cout << "Enter your full name: ";
3 std::cin.ignore(); // Ignore the newline character left in
  the buffer
4 std::getline(std::cin, fullName);
5
6 std::cout << "Full Name: " << fullName << std::endl;

```

8 Useful math-related functions

C++ provides various mathematical functions in the ‘<cmath>’ library, such as ‘sqrt’ for square root, ‘pow’ for power, ‘sin’, ‘cos’, ‘tan’ for trigonometric functions, etc.

```

1 #include <cmath>
2
3 double squareRoot = std::sqrt(25.0); // Square root of 25
4 double power = std::pow(2.0, 3.0);   // 2 raised to the power
  of 3
5 double sine = std::sin(0.5);         // Sine of 0.5 radians
6
7 std::cout << "Square Root: " << squareRoot << std::endl;
8 std::cout << "Power: " << power << std::endl;
9 std::cout << "Sine: " << sine << std::endl;

```

9 If statements

The ‘if’ statement is used to execute code based on a condition. If the condition evaluates to ‘true’, the block of code inside the ‘if’ statement is executed.

```
1 int number = 10;
2 if (number > 5) {
3     std::cout << "Number is greater than 5" << std::endl;
4 } else {
5     std::cout << "Number is not greater than 5" << std::endl;
6 }
```

You can chain multiple conditions using ‘else if’ and ‘else’.

```
1 int score = 85;
2 if (score >= 90) {
3     std::cout << "Grade: A" << std::endl;
4 } else if (score >= 80) {
5     std::cout << "Grade: B" << std::endl;
6 } else if (score >= 70) {
7     std::cout << "Grade: C" << std::endl;
8 } else if (score >= 60) {
9     std::cout << "Grade: D" << std::endl;
10 } else {
11     std::cout << "Grade: F" << std::endl;
12 }
```

10 Switches

The ‘switch’ statement provides a way to execute different parts of code based on the value of a variable. It’s often used as an alternative to multiple ‘if’ statements.

```
1 int day = 3;
2 switch (day) {
3     case 1:
4         std::cout << "Monday" << std::endl;
5         break;
6     case 2:
7         std::cout << "Tuesday" << std::endl;
8         break;
9     case 3:
10        std::cout << "Wednesday" << std::endl;
11        break;
12    case 4:
13        std::cout << "Thursday" << std::endl;
14        break;
15    case 5:
16        std::cout << "Friday" << std::endl;
17        break;
```

```

18     default:
19         std::cout << "Weekend" << std::endl;
20         break;
21 }

```

11 Ternary Operator

The ternary operator is a concise way to perform an ‘if-else’ operation. It’s written in the form ‘condition ? expr1 : expr2’.

```

1 int number = 10;
2 std::string result = (number > 5) ? "Greater than 5" : "Not
   greater than 5";
3
4 std::cout << result << std::endl;

```

12 Logical operators

Logical operators are used to combine or negate conditions. The common logical operators are ‘&&’ (logical AND), ‘||’ (logical OR), and ‘!’ (logical NOT).

```

1 bool a = true;
2 bool b = false;
3
4 if (a && b) {
5     std::cout << "Both are true" << std::endl;
6 } else if (a || b) {
7     std::cout << "At least one is true" << std::endl;
8 }
9
10 if (!b) {
11     std::cout << "b is false" << std::endl;
12 }

```

13 Useful string methods

The ‘std::string’ class provides several useful methods for string manipulation, such as ‘length’, ‘substr’, ‘find’, ‘replace’, etc.

```

1 std::string text = "Hello, World!";
2 std::cout << "Length: " << text.length() << std::endl;
3 std::cout << "Substring: " << text.substr(7, 5) << std::endl;

```

```

4
5 size_t position = text.find("World");
6 if (position != std::string::npos) {
7     std::cout << "'World' found at position " << position <<
8         std::endl;
9 }
10 text.replace(7, 5, "Universe");
11 std::cout << "Replaced: " << text << std::endl;

```

14 While loops

A ‘while’ loop repeatedly executes a block of code as long as a condition is true.

```

1 int count = 0;
2 while (count < 5) {
3     std::cout << "Count: " << count << std::endl;
4     count++;
5 }

```

15 Do while loops

A ‘do-while’ loop is similar to a ‘while’ loop, but the condition is checked after the loop’s body is executed at least once.

```

1 int count = 0;
2 do {
3     std::cout << "Count: " << count << std::endl;
4     count++;
5 } while (count < 5);

```

16 Break & continue

The ‘break’ statement exits a loop, while ‘continue’ skips the current iteration and proceeds to the next iteration.

```

1 for (int i = 0; i < 10; i++) {
2     if (i == 5) {
3         break; // Exit the loop when i is 5
4     }
5     if (i % 2 == 0) {
6         continue; // Skip even numbers

```

```

7     }
8     std::cout << i << std::endl;
9 }

```

17 User-defined functions

Functions are used to encapsulate code into reusable blocks. They can take parameters and return values.

```

1 int add(int a, int b) {
2     return a + b;
3 }
4
5 int main() {
6     int sum = add(3, 4);
7     std::cout << "Sum: " << sum << std::endl;
8     return 0;
9 }

```

18 Variable scope

Variable scope refers to the region of code where a variable can be accessed. Variables declared inside a function are local to that function, while variables declared outside any function are global.

```

1 int globalVar = 100; // Global variable
2
3 void myFunction() {
4     int localVar = 10; // Local variable
5     std::cout << "Local variable: " << localVar << std::endl;
6     std::cout << "Global variable: " << globalVar << std::endl;
7     ;
8 }
9
10 int main() {
11     myFunction();
12     std::cout << "Global variable: " << globalVar << std::endl;
13     ;
14
15     // Uncommenting the next line will cause a compilation
16     // error
17     // std::cout << "Local variable: " << localVar << std:::
18     // endl; // Error: localVar is not in scope

```

```

15
16     return 0;
17 }

```

19 Arrays

Arrays are used to store multiple values of the same type in a single variable. The size of an array must be specified when it's declared.

```

1 int numbers[5] = {1, 2, 3, 4, 5};
2
3 for (int i = 0; i < 5; i++) {
4     std::cout << numbers[i] << std::endl;
5 }

```

Arrays can also be initialized without specifying all elements.

```

1 int values[5] = {10, 20}; // Remaining elements are
   initialized to 0
2
3 for (int i = 0; i < 5; i++) {
4     std::cout << values[i] << std::endl;
5 }

```

20 Iterate over an array

Iterating over an array is commonly done using a 'for' loop.

```

1 int numbers[] = {10, 20, 30, 40, 50};
2
3 for (int i = 0; i < sizeof(numbers)/sizeof(numbers[0]); i++) {
4     std::cout << numbers[i] << std::endl;
5 }

```

21 Foreach loop

C++11 introduced the range-based 'for' loop, which simplifies iteration over arrays and other containers.

```

1 int numbers[] = {10, 20, 30, 40, 50};
2
3 for (int number : numbers) {
4     std::cout << number << std::endl;

```



```
5 }
```

22 Sort an array

The ‘<algorithm>’ library provides the ‘std::sort’ function to sort arrays and other containers.

```
1 #include <algorithm>
2
3 int numbers[] = {30, 10, 20, 50, 40};
4
5 std::sort(std::begin(numbers), std::end(numbers));
6
7 for (int number : numbers) {
8     std::cout << number << std::endl;
9 }
```

23 Fill() function

The ‘std::fill’ function fills a range with a specified value.

```
1 #include <algorithm>
2
3 int numbers[5];
4 std::fill(std::begin(numbers), std::end(numbers), 0);
5
6 for (int number : numbers) {
7     std::cout << number << std::endl;
8 }
```

24 Memory addresses

Each variable in C++ has a memory address, which can be accessed using the address-of operator (&).

```
1 int number = 100;
2 std::cout << "Value: " << number << std::endl;
3 std::cout << "Address: " << &number << std::endl;
```

25 Pass by value / Pass by Reference

Functions can pass arguments by value (copy) or by reference (address). Passing by reference allows the function to modify the original variable.

```

1 // Pass by value
2 void incrementValue(int value) {
3     value++;
4 }
5
6 // Pass by reference
7 void incrementReference(int& value) {
8     value++;
9 }
10
11 int main() {
12     int num1 = 10;
13     int num2 = 10;
14
15     incrementValue(num1);
16     incrementReference(num2);
17
18     std::cout << "After incrementValue: " << num1 << std::endl
19         ; // Output: 10
20     std::cout << "After incrementReference: " << num2 << std::
21         endl; // Output: 11
22
23     return 0;
24 }
```

26 Const parameters

Parameters can be marked as ‘const’ to prevent them from being modified inside the function.

```

1 void display(const int& value) {
2     std::cout << "Value: " << value << std::endl;
3     // Uncommenting the next line will cause a compilation
4     // error
5     // value++; // Error: cannot modify a const parameter
6 }
7
8 int main() {
9     int num = 100;
10    display(num);
11 }
```

```

10     return 0;
11 }

```

27 Pointers

Pointers are variables that store the memory address of another variable. They are declared using the asterisk (*) symbol.

```

1 int number = 100;
2 int* ptr = &number; // Pointer to number
3
4 std::cout << "Value: " << number << std::endl;
5 std::cout << "Address: " << ptr << std::endl;
6 std::cout << "Value through pointer: " << *ptr << std::endl;

```

28 Null pointers

A null pointer is a pointer that does not point to any valid memory location. It can be used to indicate that the pointer is not currently in use.

```

1 int* ptr = nullptr; // Null pointer
2
3 if (ptr == nullptr) {
4     std::cout << "Pointer is null" << std::endl;
5 }

```

29 Dynamic memory

Dynamic memory allocation allows you to allocate memory at runtime using the 'new' and 'delete' operators.

```

1 int* ptr = new int(10); // Allocate memory for an integer and
    initialize it to 10
2
3 std::cout << "Dynamically allocated value: " << *ptr << std::
    endl;
4
5 delete ptr; // Free the allocated memory
6 ptr = nullptr;

```

30 Recursion

Recursion is a technique where a function calls itself to solve a smaller instance of the same problem. It's often used to solve problems that can be broken down into similar subproblems.

```

1 int factorial(int n) {
2     if (n <= 1) {
3         return 1;
4     } else {
5         return n * factorial(n - 1);
6     }
7 }
8
9 int main() {
10     int result = factorial(5);
11     std::cout << "Factorial of 5: " << result << std::endl;
12     return 0;
13 }

```

31 Function templates

Templates allow you to write generic functions that can work with any data type. They are defined using the 'template' keyword.

```

1 template<typename T>
2 T add(T a, T b) {
3     return a + b;
4 }
5
6 int main() {
7     std::cout << "Sum of integers: " << add(3, 4) << std::endl
8     ;
9     std::cout << "Sum of doubles: " << add(3.5, 4.5) << std::
10     endl;
11     return 0;
12 }

```

32 Structs

Structures (structs) are user-defined data types that group related variables. They can contain variables of different types.

```
1 struct Person {
2     std::string name;
3     int age;
4 };
5
6 int main() {
7     Person person;
8     person.name = "John";
9     person.age = 30;
10
11     std::cout << "Name: " << person.name << std::endl;
12     std::cout << "Age: " << person.age << std::endl;
13     return 0;
14 }
```

33 Enums

Enumerations (enums) are user-defined types that consist of a set of named integral constants. They are used to represent discrete values.

```
1 enum Color { RED, GREEN, BLUE };
2
3 int main() {
4     Color color = GREEN;
5
6     if (color == GREEN) {
7         std::cout << "The color is green" << std::endl;
8     }
9
10    return 0;
11 }
```

34 Object-Oriented Programming

Object-oriented programming (OOP) in C++ is based on classes and objects. Classes are blueprints for creating objects, which are instances of classes.

```
1 class Animal {
2 public:
3     std::string name;
4     int age;
5 }
```

```

6     void speak() {
7         std::cout << name << " says hello!" << std::endl;
8     }
9 };
10
11 int main() {
12     Animal dog;
13     dog.name = "Buddy";
14     dog.age = 3;
15     dog.speak();
16
17     return 0;
18 }

```

35 Constructors

Constructors are special member functions that are called when an object is created. They initialize the object's attributes.

```

1 class Animal {
2 public:
3     std::string name;
4     int age;
5
6     // Constructor
7     Animal(std::string n, int a) : name(n), age(a) {}
8
9     void speak() {
10         std::cout << name << " says hello!" << std::endl;
11     }
12 };
13
14 int main() {
15     Animal dog("Buddy", 3);
16     dog.speak();
17
18     return 0;
19 }

```

36 Constructor overloading

Constructor overloading allows you to define multiple constructors with different parameters.

```

1 class Animal {
2 public:
3     std::string name;
4     int age;
5
6     // Default constructor
7     Animal() : name("Unknown"), age(0) {}
8
9     // Parameterized constructor
10    Animal(std::string n, int a) : name(n), age(a) {}
11
12    void speak() {
13        std::cout << name << " says hello!" << std::endl;
14    }
15 };
16
17 int main() {
18     Animal unknownAnimal;
19     Animal dog("Buddy", 3);
20
21     unknownAnimal.speak();
22     dog.speak();
23
24     return 0;
25 }

```

37 Getters & setters

Getters and setters are used to control access to the attributes of a class.

```

1 class Animal {
2 private:
3     std::string name;
4     int age;
5
6 public:
7     // Setter for name
8     void setName(std::string n) {
9         name = n;
10    }
11
12    // Getter for name
13    std::string getName() const {
14        return name;

```

```

15     }
16
17     // Setter for age
18     void setAge(int a) {
19         age = a;
20     }
21
22     // Getter for age
23     int getAge() const {
24         return age;
25     }
26
27     void speak() {
28         std::cout << name << " says hello!" << std::endl;
29     }
30 };
31
32 int main() {
33     Animal dog;
34     dog.setName("Buddy");
35     dog.setAge(3);
36
37     std::cout << "Name: " << dog.getName() << std::endl;
38     std::cout << "Age: " << dog.getAge() << std::endl;
39     dog.speak();
40
41     return 0;
42 }

```

38 Inheritance

Inheritance allows a class to inherit attributes and methods from another class. The class that inherits is called the derived class, and the class being inherited from is called the base class.

```

1 class Animal {
2 public:
3     std::string name;
4     int age;
5
6     void speak() {
7         std::cout << name << " says hello!" << std::endl;
8     }
9 };

```



```
10
11 // Derived class
12 class Dog : public Animal {
13 public:
14     void bark() {
15         std::cout << name << " is barking!" << std::endl;
16     }
17 };
18
19 int main() {
20     Dog dog;
21     dog.name = "Buddy";
22     dog.age = 3;
23
24     dog.speak();
25     dog.bark();
26
27     return 0;
28 }
```

39 Polymorphism

Polymorphism allows you to use a base class pointer or reference to call methods of derived classes. It is achieved using virtual functions.

```
1 class Animal {
2 public:
3     virtual void speak() {
4         std::cout << "Animal speaks!" << std::endl;
5     }
6 };
7
8 class Dog : public Animal {
9 public:
10     void speak() override {
11         std::cout << "Dog barks!" << std::endl;
12     }
13 };
14
15 class Cat : public Animal {
16 public:
17     void speak() override {
18         std::cout << "Cat meows!" << std::endl;
19     }
20 }
```

```
20 };
21
22 int main() {
23     Animal* animal1 = new Dog();
24     Animal* animal2 = new Cat();
25
26     animal1->speak();
27     animal2->speak();
28
29     delete animal1;
30     delete animal2;
31
32     return 0;
33 }
```

40 Virtual destructors

When a base class has virtual functions, its destructor should also be virtual to ensure proper cleanup of derived class objects

41 Templates

Templates in C++ allow for generic programming by enabling the creation of functions and classes that work with any data type. They are especially useful for creating container classes like arrays, lists, and maps that can hold any type of data.

41.1 Function Templates

Function templates allow you to define a function once and use it with different data types.

```
1 template<typename T>
2 T maximum(T a, T b) {
3     return (a > b) ? a : b;
4 }
5
6 int main() {
7     std::cout << "Maximum of 5 and 10: " << maximum(5, 10) <<
8         std::endl;
9     std::cout << "Maximum of 3.5 and 7.8: " << maximum(3.5,
10         7.8) << std::endl;
11     return 0;
12 }
```

41.2 Class Templates

Class templates allow you to create generic classes that can work with any data type.

```

1  template<typename T>
2  class Pair {
3  private:
4      T first;
5      T second;
6
7  public:
8      Pair(T a, T b) : first(a), second(b) {}
9
10     T getFirst() const {
11         return first;
12     }
13
14     T getSecond() const {
15         return second;
16     }
17 };
18
19 int main() {
20     Pair<int> pair1(5, 10);
21     Pair<double> pair2(3.5, 7.8);
22
23     std::cout << "First value of pair1: " << pair1.getFirst()
24         << std::endl;
25     std::cout << "Second value of pair1: " << pair1.getSecond()
26         << std::endl;
27     std::cout << "First value of pair2: " << pair2.getFirst()
28         << std::endl;
29     std::cout << "Second value of pair2: " << pair2.getSecond()
30         << std::endl;
31
32     return 0;
33 }

```

42 Standard Template Library (STL)

The Standard Template Library (STL) is a powerful set of C++ template classes to provide general-purpose classes and functions with templates that implement many popular and commonly used algorithms and data structures.

42.1 Containers

STL containers are used to store data. Some commonly used containers include vectors, lists, sets, maps, and queues.

```

1 #include <iostream>
2 #include <vector>
3 #include <list>
4 #include <set>
5 #include <map>
6 #include <queue>
7
8 int main() {
9     // Vector
10    std::vector<int> vec = {1, 2, 3, 4, 5};
11    for (int i : vec) {
12        std::cout << i << " ";
13    }
14    std::cout << std::endl;
15
16    // List
17    std::list<int> li = {5, 4, 3, 2, 1};
18    for (int i : li) {
19        std::cout << i << " ";
20    }
21    std::cout << std::endl;
22
23    // Set
24    std::set<int> s = {3, 1, 4, 1, 5};
25    for (int i : s) {
26        std::cout << i << " ";
27    }
28    std::cout << std::endl;
29
30    // Map
31    std::map<int, std::string> m;
32    m[1] = "one";
33    m[2] = "two";
34    m[3] = "three";
35    for (auto& pair : m) {
36        std::cout << pair.first << ": " << pair.second << std
37        ::endl;
38    }
39
40    // Queue
41    std::queue<int> q;

```

```

41     q.push(1);
42     q.push(2);
43     q.push(3);
44     while (!q.empty()) {
45         std::cout << q.front() << " ";
46         q.pop();
47     }
48     std::cout << std::endl;
49
50     return 0;
51 }

```

42.2 Algorithms

STL algorithms are used to perform operations on containers. Some commonly used algorithms include sorting, searching, and modifying elements.

```

1  #include <iostream>
2  #include <vector>
3  #include <algorithm>
4
5  int main() {
6      std::vector<int> vec = {3, 1, 4, 1, 5, 9, 2, 6};
7
8      // Sorting
9      std::sort(vec.begin(), vec.end());
10     for (int i : vec) {
11         std::cout << i << " ";
12     }
13     std::cout << std::endl;
14
15     // Searching
16     if (std::binary_search(vec.begin(), vec.end(), 4)) {
17         std::cout << "Found 4" << std::endl;
18     } else {
19         std::cout << "Not found 4" << std::endl;
20     }
21
22     // Modifying elements
23     std::reverse(vec.begin(), vec.end());
24     for (int i : vec) {
25         std::cout << i << " ";
26     }
27     std::cout << std::endl;
28 }

```

```
29     return 0;
30 }
```

42.3 Iterators

STL iterators are used to iterate over containers. They provide a way to access the elements of a container in a sequential manner.

```
1 #include <iostream>
2 #include <vector>
3
4 int main() {
5     std::vector<int> vec = {1, 2, 3, 4, 5};
6
7     // Using iterators to traverse the vector
8     std::vector<int>::iterator it;
9     for (it = vec.begin(); it != vec.end(); ++it) {
10         std::cout << *it << " ";
11     }
12     std::cout << std::endl;
13
14     return 0;
15 }
```

These are just a few examples of the powerful features provided by the STL. It's highly recommended to explore further and become familiar with its capabilities.

43 Concurrency

Concurrency in C++ refers to the ability of a program to execute multiple tasks simultaneously. This can be achieved using threads, which are independent sequences of execution within a program.

43.1 Threads

Threads in C++ are created using the '`<thread>`' header from the standard library. You can define a function and pass it to a thread constructor to execute concurrently.

```
1 #include <iostream>
2 #include <thread>
3
4 void printMessage() {
5     std::cout << "Hello from thread!" << std::endl;
```

```
6 }
7
8 int main() {
9     // Create a thread
10    std::thread t1(printMessage);
11
12    // Wait for the thread to finish execution
13    t1.join();
14
15    return 0;
16 }
```

43.2 Mutexes

Mutexes (mutual exclusions) are used to protect shared resources from being accessed simultaneously by multiple threads, which could lead to data corruption.

```
1 #include <iostream>
2 #include <thread>
3 #include <mutex>
4
5 std::mutex mtx;
6
7 void printMessage() {
8     mtx.lock();
9     std::cout << "Hello from thread!" << std::endl;
10    mtx.unlock();
11 }
12
13 int main() {
14     // Create multiple threads
15    std::thread t1(printMessage);
16    std::thread t2(printMessage
17    );
18    std::thread t3(printMessage);
19
20    // Wait for all threads to finish execution
21    t1.join();
22    t2.join();
23    t3.join();
24
25    return 0;
26 }
```

In this example, `std::mutex` is used to synchronize access to `std::cout` in the `printMessage` function. The `lock()` function is called to acquire the mutex, and `unlock()` is called to release it.

43.3 Lock Guards

Managing mutexes with explicit calls to `lock()` and `unlock()` can be error-prone, especially when dealing with exceptions. C++ provides `std::lock_guard`, a RAII (Resource Acquisition Is Initialization) wrapper for mutexes that automatically acquires the mutex on construction and releases it on destruction.

```
1 #include <iostream>
2 #include <thread>
3 #include <mutex>
4
5 std::mutex mtx;
6
7 void printMessage() {
8     std::lock_guard<std::mutex> lock(mtx);
9     std::cout << "Hello from thread!" << std::endl;
10 }
11
12 int main() {
13     std::thread t1(printMessage);
14     std::thread t2(printMessage);
15     std::thread t3(printMessage);
16
17     t1.join();
18     t2.join();
19     t3.join();
20
21     return 0;
22 }
```

Here, `std::lock_guard<std::mutex>` is used to create a lock guard that manages the `mtx` mutex. When the `lock_guard` object `lock` goes out of scope (at the end of the `printMessage` function), it automatically releases the mutex.

Concurrency introduces many complexities, such as race conditions and deadlocks, so it's important to be careful and use appropriate synchronization mechanisms like mutexes and lock guards.

44 Performance Optimization

Performance optimization is a critical aspect of C++ programming, particularly for applications that demand high efficiency and speed. In this section, we will explore various techniques and strategies for optimizing the performance of C++ code.

44.1 Algorithm Optimization

One of the fundamental ways to improve performance is by optimizing algorithms. This involves selecting or designing algorithms that have better time or space complexity for a given problem. Techniques such as choosing the right data structures, minimizing unnecessary operations, and implementing efficient algorithms play a significant role in algorithm optimization.

44.2 Memory Management

Efficient memory management is essential for reducing memory usage and improving performance. Techniques such as dynamic memory allocation, memory pooling, and memory reuse can help minimize memory overhead and fragmentation. Additionally, using stack memory instead of heap memory for temporary variables can result in faster memory access.

44.3 Compiler Optimizations

Modern C++ compilers offer various optimization options to improve code performance. These optimizations include inlining, loop unrolling, and instruction scheduling, among others. Understanding compiler optimizations and leveraging them effectively can significantly enhance the performance of C++ applications.

44.4 Profiling and Benchmarking

Profiling tools are indispensable for identifying performance bottlenecks in C++ code. Profilers analyze the execution behavior of a program and provide insights into areas where optimizations can be applied. Benchmarking is another essential aspect of performance optimization, allowing developers to compare the performance of different implementations and optimizations.

45 Cross-Platform Development

Cross-platform development is becoming increasingly important in the realm of C++ programming, as applications need to run seamlessly on diverse operating

systems and platforms. This section explores the tools and techniques used for developing cross-platform C++ applications.

45.1 CMake for Building C++ Projects

CMake is a popular build system generator that enables cross-platform building of C++ projects. It uses platform-independent configuration files to generate native build scripts for various build systems, such as Makefiles, Visual Studio projects, and Xcode projects. By using CMake, developers can maintain a single set of build files that work across different platforms and development environments.

45.2 Considerations for Cross-Platform Development

While developing cross-platform C++ applications, developers need to consider several factors to ensure compatibility and portability. These considerations include handling platform-specific features and APIs, managing dependencies, and testing on different platforms. Additionally, maintaining consistency in user interfaces and behavior across platforms is crucial for delivering a seamless user experience.

46 Error Handling and Exception Safety

Error handling and exception safety are crucial for writing robust and reliable C++ code. In this section, we will discuss best practices for error handling and techniques for ensuring exception safety.

46.1 Error Handling Mechanisms

C++ provides several mechanisms for error handling, including return codes, exceptions, and assertions. Return codes are commonly used for indicating errors in functions, while exceptions provide a way to propagate errors across different parts of the program. Assertions are useful for detecting logical errors during development and testing.

46.2 Exception Safety Guarantees

Exception safety is the property of code that ensures proper cleanup and resource management in the presence of exceptions. C++ offers three levels of exception safety guarantees: no-throw guarantee, strong exception safety, and basic exception safety. Understanding these guarantees is essential for writing exception-safe code and preventing resource leaks and undefined behavior.

46.3 Best Practices for Error Handling

Effective error handling requires adopting best practices that promote clarity, reliability, and maintainability. Such practices include using meaningful error messages, handling errors at appropriate levels of abstraction, and distinguishing between recoverable and unrecoverable errors. Additionally, logging and reporting mechanisms can help diagnose errors and facilitate debugging and troubleshooting.

46.4 Exception-Safe Coding Techniques

To ensure exception safety, developers employ various coding techniques, such as resource acquisition is initialization (RAII), smart pointers, and transactional programming. RAII is particularly powerful for managing resources dynamically allocated on the heap, ensuring proper cleanup and exception safety. Smart pointers, such as `std::unique_ptr` and `std::shared_ptr`, provide automatic memory management and exception safety guarantees.

47 Multithreading and Concurrency

Multithreading and concurrency are powerful techniques for improving the performance and responsiveness of C++ programs by allowing them to execute multiple tasks concurrently. In this section, we will explore the fundamentals of multithreading and techniques for writing safe and efficient concurrent code.

47.1 Multithreading Fundamentals

Multithreading involves the execution of multiple threads within a single process, each performing independent tasks concurrently. C++ provides a rich set of standard library features for multithreading, including thread management, synchronization primitives, and atomic operations. Understanding the fundamentals of multithreading is essential for writing efficient and scalable concurrent code.

47.2 Concurrency Challenges

Concurrent programming introduces various challenges, including race conditions, deadlocks, and thread synchronization issues. Race conditions occur when multiple threads access shared resources concurrently without proper synchronization, leading to unpredictable behavior. Deadlocks occur when threads compete for resources and become deadlocked, unable to make progress. Identifying and mitigating these concurrency challenges is critical for writing reliable and robust concurrent code.

47.3 Thread Synchronization

Thread synchronization mechanisms, such as mutexes, condition variables, and atomic operations, enable safe access to shared resources in multithreaded environments. Mutexes provide mutual exclusion, ensuring that only one thread can access a shared resource at a time. Condition variables allow threads to wait for certain conditions to be met before proceeding. Atomic operations provide lock-free access to shared variables, ensuring thread safety without the need for explicit locking.

47.4 Concurrency Best Practices

Writing safe and efficient concurrent code requires following best practices that promote thread safety, scalability, and maintainability. Such practices include minimizing shared mutable state, using thread-safe data structures and algorithms, and designing for concurrency from the ground up. Additionally, adopting high-level concurrency abstractions, such as futures and promises, can simplify the design and implementation of concurrent algorithms.

48 Conclusion

In conclusion, this document has provided a comprehensive overview of essential topics in modern C++ programming. From language fundamentals to advanced techniques, we've covered a wide range of concepts to help you become a proficient C++ developer.

We began by exploring the basic syntax and features of C++, including variables, data types, control structures, functions, and classes. Understanding these fundamentals is crucial for writing C++ programs and lays the groundwork for mastering more advanced topics.

Next, we delved into object-oriented programming (OOP) principles and techniques, including encapsulation, inheritance, polymorphism, and abstraction. OOP is a powerful paradigm for organizing and structuring code, promoting modularity, reusability, and maintainability.

We then discussed memory management in C++, covering stack and heap memory allocation, dynamic memory management with new and delete operators, and smart pointers for automatic memory management and resource cleanup.

Moving on, we explored generic programming and the Standard Template Library (STL), including containers, iterators, algorithms, and function objects. Generic programming allows for writing reusable and efficient code that operates on different data types and data structures.

Additionally, we examined advanced C++ features such as lambda expressions, move semantics, and variadic templates, which enhance code expressiveness, performance, and flexibility.

Furthermore, we addressed error handling and exception safety, emphasizing best practices for handling errors and ensuring robustness and reliability in C++ programs.

Finally, we discussed multithreading and concurrency, exploring fundamental concepts and techniques for writing safe and efficient concurrent code.

By mastering these topics and adopting best practices, you can write clean, efficient, and maintainable C++ code that meets the demands of modern software development.

We hope this document serves as a valuable resource in your journey to becoming a proficient C++ developer. Happy coding!