C++ 11 Language Features

Contents

[a) Core Language Features 3](#_Toc191307847)

[1. Keyword auto 3](#_Toc191307848)

[2. Type Traits 3](#_Toc191307849)

[3. Range-based for loops 5](#_Toc191307850)

[4. Lambda Expressions 6](#_Toc191307851)

[5. The noexcept Specifier 8](#_Toc191307852)

[6. Null pointer literal 10](#_Toc191307853)

[7. Rvalue References and Move Semantics 12](#_Toc191307854)

[8. Variadic Templates 16](#_Toc191307855)

[9. Static Assertions 18](#_Toc191307856)

[10. User-defined literals 19](#_Toc191307857)

[11. Generalized Constant Expressions 20](#_Toc191307858)

[12. Initializer Lists 21](#_Toc191307859)

[13. Unicode Support 23](#_Toc191307860)

[14. Raw String Literals 23](#_Toc191307861)

[15. Thread-local Storage 24](#_Toc191307862)

[16. Long Long Type 25](#_Toc191307863)

[17. Attributes 26](#_Toc191307864)

[18. Alignment Support 27](#_Toc191307865)

[19. Keyword decltype 28](#_Toc191307866)

[20. Suffix/Trailing Return Type 29](#_Toc191307867)

[b) Class-Related Features 29](#_Toc191307868)

[21. Delegating constructors 29](#_Toc191307869)

[22. Inherited Constructors 30](#_Toc191307870)

[23. Default Member Initializers 32](#_Toc191307871)

[24. Defaulted and Deleted Functions 33](#_Toc191307872)

[25. Override and Final 35](#_Toc191307873)

[26. Strongly-typed Enumerations 37](#_Toc191307874)

[27. Explicit Conversion Operator 38](#_Toc191307875)

[c) Standard Library Features 40](#_Toc191307876)

[28. Exclusive Ownership: std::unique\_ptr 40](#_Toc191307877)

[29. Shared Ownership: std::shared\_ptr 41](#_Toc191307878)

[30. Prevent Circular References: std::weak\_ptr 41](#_Toc191307879)

[31. Hash Tables 43](#_Toc191307880)

[32. Forward List 43](#_Toc191307881)

[33. Array Container 44](#_Toc191307882)

[34. The std::chrono 45](#_Toc191307883)

[35. Regular Expressions 47](#_Toc191307884)

[36. The std::tuple 47](#_Toc191307885)

[37. Random Number Generation 48](#_Toc191307886)

[38. Converting Numbers to Strings 50](#_Toc191307887)

[39. Converting Strings to Numbers 50](#_Toc191307888)

[40. Compile-Time Rational Arithmetic 51](#_Toc191307889)

# Core Language Features

### Keyword auto

* Automatic type deduction for variables.

auto i = 42; // i has type int

double f();

auto d = f(); // d has type double

* The type of a variable declared with auto is deduced from its initializer. Thus, an initialization is required.

auto i; // ERROR: can’t deduce the type of i

### Type Traits

* **C++11 introduced Type Traits**, which are a set of template-based utilities that allow **compile-time type introspection and transformation**.
* They are defined in the <type\_traits> header and are useful for **metaprogramming**, **SFINAE**, and **optimizing template code**.
* Key Features of Type Traits
  + Type Properties – Check if a type satisfies certain characteristics.
  + Type Relationships – Compare types.
  + Type Modifications – Transform types at compile time.

1. Type Properties

|  |  |
| --- | --- |
| Trait | Meaning |
| std::is\_integral<T>::value | true if T is an integral type (int, char, etc.) |
| std::is\_floating\_point<T>::value | true if T is a floating-point type (float, double, etc.) |
| std::is\_pointer<T>::value | true if T is a pointer (T\*) |
| std::is\_array<T>::value | true if T is an array type (int[], etc.) |
| std::is\_class<T>::value | true if T is a class/struct |
| std::is\_enum<T>::value | true if T is an enumeration |

|  |
| --- |
| #include <iostream>  #include <type\_traits>  template <typename T>  void checkType()  {  if (std::is\_integral<T>::value)  std::cout << "T is an integral type\n";  else  std::cout << "T is NOT an integral type\n";  }  int main()  {  checkType<int>(); // Output: T is an integral type  checkType<double>(); // Output: T is NOT an integral type  } |

1. Type Relationships

|  |  |
| --- | --- |
| **Trait** | **Meaning** |
| std::is\_same<T1, T2>::value | true if T1 and T2 are the same type |
| std::is\_base\_of<Base, Derived>::value | true if Base is a base class of Derived |
| std::is\_convertible<From, To>::value | true if From can be converted to To |

|  |
| --- |
| #include <iostream>  #include <type\_traits>  int main() {  std::cout << std::boolalpha;  std::cout << "int and int: " <<  std::is\_same<int, int>::value << '\n'; // true  std::cout << "int and double: " <<  std::is\_same<int, double>::value << '\n'; // false  }  /\*  int and int: true  int and double: false  \*/ |

1. Type Modifications

|  |  |
| --- | --- |
| **Trait** | **Meaning** |
| std::remove\_pointer<T>::type | Removes pointer (T\* → T) |
| std::remove\_reference<T>::type | Removes reference (T& → T) |
| std::add\_const<T>::type | Adds const (T → const T) |
| std::decay<T>::type | Converts an array/function to a pointer |
| std::make\_signed<T>::type | Converts an unsigned type to signed |

|  |
| --- |
| #include <iostream>  #include <type\_traits>  int main() {  using T = int\*;  using NoPtr = std::remove\_pointer<T>::type;  using ConstNoPtr = std::add\_const<NoPtr>::type;    std::cout << std::boolalpha;  std::cout << // Output: 1 (true)  std::is\_same<ConstNoPtr, const int>::value << '\n';  } |

### Range-based for loops

* C++11 introduces a new form of for loop, which iterates over all elements of a given range, array, or collection.
* The general syntax is as follows:

for (auto& elem : container) { /\* ... \*/ }

* Example

int x[10] = { 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10 };

for (auto y : x)

cout << y << " ";

### Lambda Expressions

* A lambda expression, sometimes also referred to as a lambda function or as a lambda, is a simplified notation for defining and using an **anonymous** (Lacking a name or identity) function object.

#### What are Function Objects?

* Function objects are often used as callbacks, providing a more powerful and type-safe alternative to function pointers (especially in C++).
* A typical use of a function object is in writing callback functions. A callback in procedural languages, such as C, may be performed by using function pointers.

|  |
| --- |
| #include <stdlib.h>  #include <iostream>  using namespace std;  // Callback function.  int compareInts(const void\* a, const void\* b)  {  return \*(const int\*)a - \*(const int\*)b;  }  int main(void)  {  int items[] = { 4, 3, 1, 2 };  qsort(items, sizeof(items) / sizeof(items[0]),  sizeof(items[0]), compareInts);  for (int i = 0; i < 4; i++)  cout << items[i] << endl;  return 0;  } |

* A function object (or functor) is an object of a class that can be called like a function using the function call operator (). This is achieved by overloading the operator() in the class definition. While the invocation syntax is the same as a regular function (e.g., my\_function\_object(arguments)), function objects are distinct from functions.
* Unlike function pointers, function objects can maintain state (member variables) and have their own type, enabling them to be used in generic programming (e.g., with STL algorithms) and improving type safety. They are also the underlying mechanism for lambdas in C++.

|  |
| --- |
| #include <iostream>  using namespace std;  // Comparator predicate: returns true if a < b, false otherwise  struct IntComparator {  bool operator()(const int& a, const int& b) const  {  return a < b;  }  };  int main()  {  IntComparator cpm;  int a = 10;  int b = 55;  if (cpm(a, b))  {  cout << "a is Less Than b" << endl;  }  else  cout << "a is greater than or equal to b" << endl;  return 0;  } |

* Instead of defining a named class with an operator(), later making an object of that class, and finally invoking it, we can use a shorthand which is **lambda**.

#### What is a Lambda?

* A **lambda expression** (often just called a "lambda") is a concise way to create an *anonymous* function object (or functor) *inline* where it's needed. It defines a function-like entity without a formal name, typically for short, simple operations.
* Syntax:

|  |
| --- |
| auto func = [capture\_list](parameter\_list) -> return type{  function\_body  }; |

* A lambda expression consists of a sequence of parts:
* A possibly empty capture list, specifying what names from the definition environment can be used in the lambda expression’s body, and whether those are copied or accessed by reference. The capture list is delimited by [].
* An optional parameter list, specifying what arguments the lambda expression requires. The parameter list is delimited by ().
* An optional mutable specifier, indicating that the lambda expression’s body may modify the state of the lambda.
* An optional noexcept specifier.
* An optional return type declaration of the form -> type
* A body, specifying the code to be executed. The body is delimited by {}.
* Example:

|  |
| --- |
| #include <iostream>  using namespace std;  int main(void)  {  // Lambda That Prints Hello World.  [] {cout << "Hello World" << endl; } ();  // Lambda That Does Nothing. It’s a Valid Lambda.  [] {}();  // Lambda That Returns A Double  auto l1 = []() -> double { return 50; };  cout << l1() << endl;  return 0;  } |

### The noexcept Specifier

* **C++11 introduced the** noexcept **specifier**, which is used to indicate that a function does not throw exceptions.
* This helps the compiler optimize code, enables better exception safety guarantees, and allows move operations to be more efficient.
* Key Features of noexcept
  + **Function Optimization**: Functions marked noexcept enable the compiler to generate better code.
  + **Move Semantics**: Containers like std::vector prefer noexcept move constructors for better efficiency.
  + **Exception Safety**: It helps signal to users that a function is guaranteed not to throw.

|  |
| --- |
| #include <vector>  #include <iostream>  struct A {  A() {}  A(const A&) { std::cout << "Copy constructor called\n"; }  // noexcept move constructor  A(A&&) noexcept { std::cout << "Move constructor called\n"; }  };  struct B {  B() {}  B(const B&) { std::cout << "Copy constructor called\n"; }  // Move constructor is NOT noexcept  B(B&&) { std::cout << "Move constructor called\n"; }  };  int main() {  std::vector<A> vecA;  vecA.reserve(2); // Reserve space for 2 elements  vecA.emplace\_back(); // Default construct A  vecA.emplace\_back(); // Default construct A  std::cout << "--- Resizing vecA ---\n";  vecA.resize(4); // Move constructor is called (because noexcept is present)  std::vector<B> vecB;  vecB.reserve(2); // Reserve space for 2 elements  vecB.emplace\_back(); // Default construct B  vecB.emplace\_back(); // Default construct B  std::cout << "--- Resizing vecB ---\n";  vecB.resize(4); // Copy constructor is called (because move is NOT noexcept)  }  /\*  --- Resizing vecA ---  Move constructor called  Move constructor called  --- Resizing vecB ---  Copy constructor called  Copy constructor called  \*/ |

* When Will the Copy Constructor Be Called?
  + If the move constructor is not declared noexcept, std::vector may prefer the copy constructor instead of the move constructor.
  + This happens when std::vector needs to grow (i.e., reallocate and move elements to a new location).
  + STL containers like std::vector assume that if moving an object might throw an exception, then copying is a safer alternative.
* Summary

| **Feature** | **Explanation** |
| --- | --- |
| void func() noexcept; | Declares func as not throwing exceptions |
| noexcept(expression) | Checks if an expression is noexcept at compile time |
| std::vector prefers noexcept move constructors | Improves performance |
| If noexcept function throws | Calls std::terminate() |
| noexcept in templates | Enables conditionally marking functions as noexcept |

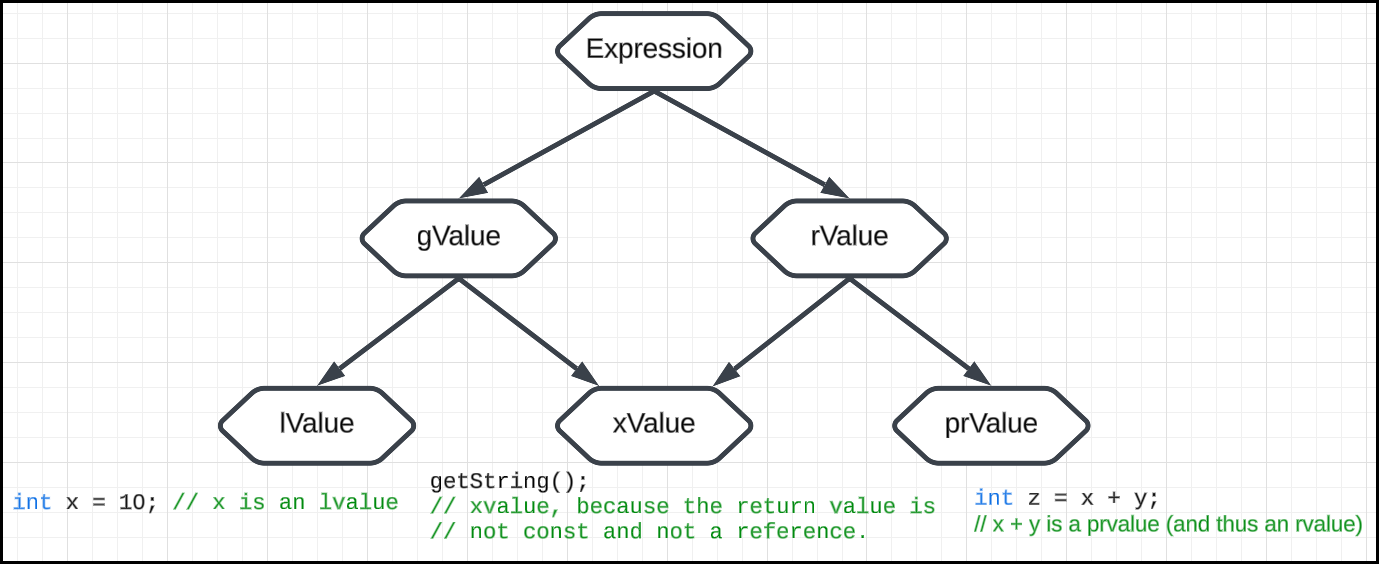
### Null pointer literal

* **Type Safety:** nullptr is of type std::nullptr\_t, defined in <cstddef>. This prevents accidental assignments of integer values (like 0 or NULL) to pointers, improving type safety. This is its biggest advantage.
* **Clear Intent:** Using nullptr explicitly signals that you intend a pointer to be null. This makes your code more readable and less prone to errors compared to using 0 or NULL, which could be misinterpreted as integers in some contexts.
* **No Implicit Conversion to Integer:** nullptr does not implicitly convert to an integer type. This prevents the common mistake of using a null pointer in an integer context.
* std::nullptr\_t**:** The type std::nullptr\_t is specifically designed for null pointers. **It's not an integral type**.
* **Prvalue:** nullptr is a prvalue (pure rvalue). This means you cannot take its address using the & operator. This is consistent with the idea that it represents a null pointer, not a memory location.
* Conversions:
  + An integral null pointer constant (like 0 or a NULL macro that expands to 0) can be implicitly converted to std::nullptr\_t. This is for backward compatibility.
  + The reverse conversion (from std::nullptr\_t to an integral type) is not allowed implicitly. This further enforces type safety.

|  |
| --- |
| #include <iostream>  using namespace std;  void function(int x)  {  cout << "Value of X: " << x << endl;  }  void function(char\* ptr)  {  if (ptr == nullptr)  {  cout << "Pointer is null. Allocating memory" << endl;  // Do some stuff here...  }  else  {  cout << "Value contained in the pointer: " << \*ptr << endl;  }  }  int main(void)  {  function(NULL); // Ambiguous call; the integer version will be called.  function(nullptr); // Pointer version will be called.  char ch = 'A';  char\* ptr1 = &ch;  function(ptr1); // Pointer version will be called.  return 0;  } |

### Rvalue References and Move Semantics

1. Lvalues and Rvalues

* What is a value?
  + Value is an expression which cannot be evaluated any further.
* What are Lvalues?
  + Lvalues (locator value) have storage addresses, means they are variables. When we use an object as an lvalue, we use the object’s identity (its location in memory).
* What are Rvalues?
  + Rvalues are the **value of an expression**. Rvalue is just a term only used to distinguish from Lvalue. When we use an object as an rvalue, we use the object’s value (its contents).
* Example:
  + Assume that we have written expression 5 + 6. This expression evaluates to 11, but in the program, we have not explicitly designated where in the computer this 11 is stored, the expression is an Rvalue.
  + Assume that we have declared a variable ‘y’. And we are assigning y = 5 + 6. Now ‘y’ has the value 11. So variable ‘y’ is an Lvalue (Modifiable Lvalue).
* Note: The term “Modifiable Lvalue” is used because; const variables can’t be modified even though it has storage.
* In C++11, an expression can be an:
  + **glvalue** (Generalized lvalue): An expression whose evaluation determines an identity (i.e., refers to a memory location). It can be an lvalue or an xvalue.
  + **prvalue** (Pure rvalue): An expression whose evaluation doesn't determine an identity. It's either a literal, the result of a function that returns by value, or a temporary object that isn't bound to a reference.
  + **xvalue** (eXpiring value): A glvalue that denotes an object whose resources can be "moved from." These are typically near the end of their lifetime.
  + **lvalue**: A glvalue that designates a function or an object with a stable address (that you can take with &). It can appear on the left-hand side of an assignment.
  + **rvalue**: A prvalue or an xvalue. It represents a value that is typically transient.

|  |
| --- |
| #include <iostream>  #include <string>  #include <vector>  class MyString {  std::string data;  public:  MyString(const std::string& str) : data(str) {  }  MyString(const MyString& other) : data(other.data) {  std::cout << "Copy Constructor\n";  }  MyString& operator=(const MyString& other) {  data = other.data;  std::cout << "Copy Assignment\n";  return \*this;  }  MyString(MyString&& other) noexcept : data(std::move(other.data)) {  std::cout << "Move Constructor\n";  }  MyString& operator=(MyString&& other) noexcept {  data = std::move(other.data);  std::cout << "Move Assignment\n";  return \*this;  }  //// Copy-Swap Assignment Operator instead of both assignment operators  //MyString& operator=(MyString other) {  // std::cout << "Copy Swap Operator\n";  // std::swap(data, other.data);  // return \*this;  //}  ~MyString() {  }  };  MyString getString() { // Returns a prvalue (pure rvalue)  return MyString("Hello"); // Temporary (prvalue)  }  int main() {  MyString str1("World"); // str1 is an lvalue  MyString str2 = std::move(getString()); // prvalue → Move Constructor called  MyString str3 = str1; // str1 is an lvalue → Copy Constructor called  str3 = getString(); // Move Assignment    return 0;  } |

#### Move constructor

* A move constructor is a special member function in C++ that allows the transfer of ownership of resources from one object to another *without* making a deep copy.

#### What it does:

* **Takes an rvalue reference**: The move constructor's parameter is an rvalue reference ( T&& ), which specifically identifies **temporary** or **about-to-be-destroyed objects**.

MyString(MyString&& other) noexcept

* **Steals resources**: Instead of copying data, the move constructor "**steals**" the resources (like dynamically allocated memory, file handles, etc.) from the source object. It modifies the source object so that it no longer owns the resources. This is often done by setting pointers in the source object to nullptr or a similar invalid state.

data(std::move(other.data))

* **Leaves the source in a valid but unspecified state**: After the move, the source object must be in a valid state so that its destructor can be safely called. It's common to leave it in a default-constructed or empty state.

#### When it's called:

* Returning a Temporary from a Function:

|  |
| --- |
| MyClass createObject() {  // Temporary object (rvalue)  return MyClass();  }  int main() {  // Move constructor called  MyClass obj = createObject();  } |

* Temporary Objects: When initializing an object with a temporary (rvalue).

MyClass c(MyClass("Temporary"));

* Passing Rvalues: When passing an rvalue to a function.

void processString(MyClass str);

processString(MyClass("Rvalue"));

* Moving an Object with std::move

MyClass obj1;

MyClass obj2 = std::move(obj1); // Move constructor called

* When Emplacing Objects in a Container (std::vector)

std::vector<MyClass> vec;

vec.push\_back(MyClass()); // Move constructor called

#### When it’s not called:

* If the Object is Copied Instead

MyClass obj1;

MyClass obj2 = obj1; // Copy constructor called (not move)

* If the Move Constructor is Deleted

class MyClass {

public:

// Disable move constructor

MyClass(MyClass&&) = delete;

};

* If Named Return Value Optimization (NRVO) Applies
  + Modern compilers **optimize** function return values using **NRVO (Named Return Value Optimization)**.

MyClass createObject() {

MyClass obj;

return obj; // NRVO may eliminate the move constructor call

}

* + Instead of moving obj, the compiler may construct it directly in the caller’s memory.

### Variadic Templates

* Variadic templates allow functions and classes to accept a **variable number of template parameters**.

#### How They Work:

* Variadic templates use a combination of parameter packs and recursion.
* **Parameter Packs**: A parameter pack is a template parameter that can accept zero or more arguments. There are two kinds:
  + **Type parameter pack**: typename... Types
  + **Non-type parameter pack**: int... Values (or other non-type template parameters)
* **Expansion**: You "expand" a parameter pack to access its individual elements. This is often done recursively.
* Syntax
  + A variadic template uses parameter packs, represented by ... (ellipsis):

|  |
| --- |
| template <typename... Args> // 'Args' is a parameter pack  void func(Args... args) { // 'args' is a function parameter pack  // Do something  } |

* + - Args... → A pack of types.
    - args... → A pack of values corresponding to those types.

|  |
| --- |
| #include <iostream>  // Base case: Function with a single argument  void print() {  std::cout << "\nEnd of recursion\n";  }  // Variadic template function  template <typename T, typename... Args>  void print(T first, Args... rest) {  std::cout << first << " ";  print(rest...); // Recursive call with remaining arguments  }  int main() {  print(1, 2.5, "Hello", 'A');  return 0;  } |

* How It Works?
  + main() calls print(): The main function calls print with four arguments: 1, 2.5, "Hello", 'A'.
  + Variadic Template Instantiation: The compiler sees the call to print with these arguments and instantiates the variadic template function. It deduces the types:
    - T is int (the type of 1).
    - Args... is a parameter pack containing the types double, const char\*, and char.
  + Inside the Variadic print():
    - first is initialized with the value 1.
    - rest... is a parameter pack containing the values 2.5, "Hello", 'A'.
  + Output: The code prints 1 (the value of first).
  + Recursive Call: The crucial part is print(rest...);. This expands the parameter pack rest.... It effectively generates a new call to print like this:
    - print(2.5, "Hello", 'A');// A new instantiation of print!
  + Repeated Instantiation and Calls: This process repeats. The compiler instantiates the print template again, this time with T being double and Args... being const char\*, and char. It prints 2.5, and then makes another recursive call: print("Hello", 'A');
  + Base Case: Eventually, the parameter pack Args... becomes empty. The call print() with no arguments matches the base case function (the first print function you defined), which prints "End of recursion" and stops the recursion.

### Static Assertions

* A **static assertion** (static\_assert) is a **compile-time assertion** introduced in **C++11**. It allows checking conditions **at compile time**, ensuring that the program doesn't compile if the condition fails.
* Syntax:

static\_assert(condition, "Error message");

* condition → A constexpr (compile-time) Boolean expression.
* "Error message" → A custom error message displayed if the assertion fails.
* If condition evaluates to false, compilation fails with the error message.

|  |
| --- |
| #include <iostream>  static\_assert(sizeof(int) == 4, "Integers must be 4 bytes!");  int main() {  std::cout << "Compilation successful!\n";  return 0;  } |

* The static\_assert statement checks if the size of an integer is 4 bytes. If it is not, the program will not compile and will display the error message.
* The static\_assert statement is a compile - time check, and it is used to ensure that certain conditions are met during compilation. If the condition is not met, the program will not compile and will display an error message.

|  |
| --- |
| #include <iostream>  #include <type\_traits>  template <typename T>  void process(T value)  {  static\_assert(std::is\_integral<T>::value, "T must be an integral type!");  std::cout << "Processing: " << value << "\n";  }  int main() {  process(42); // Works (int is integral)  // process(3.14); // Compilation Fails  return 0;  } |

### User-defined literals

* Literals are constant values like numbers (e.g., 42), characters (e.g., 'a'), and strings (e.g., "hello").
* Different types of literals:
  + **Numeric literals**: Numbers, e.g., 42, 3.14.
  + **Character literals**: Single characters, e.g., 'a'.
  + **String literals**: Sequences of characters, e.g., "hello".
  + **Raw string literals**: Strings that can contain special characters without needing escape sequences, e.g., R"(line 1\nline 2)".
* User-defined literals (UDLs):
  + Example of built in literal suffixes:
    - u or U: Unsigned integer (e.g., 10u, 12345U).
    - l or L: Long integer (e.g., 100000L).
    - f or F: Float (single-precision) (e.g., 3.14f, 2.718F).
    - l or L: Long double (e.g., 3.1415926535L).
    - L: Wide string literal (e.g., L"hello").
    - u8: UTF-8 string literal (e.g., u8"hello").
  + UDLs are custom literal suffixes that programmers can create. Literal suffixes are characters appended to a literal value (like a number, character, or string) that modify its type or interpretation.
  + They always start with an underscore \_ (e.g., 10\_km, 25.5\_degC).
  + A UDL is defined as a function (or function template) whose name starts with operator"" followed by the suffix you want to use. The compiler treats the literal preceding the suffix as an argument to this function.
  + Literal operators for floating-point numbers must take long double, unsigned long long, or const char\* as parameters.
  + Literal operators for integers must take unsigned long long, or const char\* as parameters.
* Example:

|  |
| --- |
| #include <iostream>  using namespace std;  // User-defined literal for kilometers  long double operator""\_km(long double km) {  return km \* 1000; // Convert to meters  }  // User-defined literal for meters  long double operator""\_m(long double m) {  return m/1000; // Convert to Kilometers  }  // User-defined literal for degrees Celsius  long double operator"" \_degC(long double degC) {  return degC + 273.15; // Convert to Kelvin  }  int main() {  long double distance\_meters = 5.0\_km;  std::cout << "5.0 km in meters: " << distance\_meters << "m\n";  long double distance\_km = 5500.0\_m;  std::cout << "5500 m in km: " << distance\_km << "km\n";  long double tempK = 25.0\_degC;  std::cout << "25.0 degC in Kelvin: " << tempK << "K\n";  return 0;  } |

### Generalized Constant Expressions

* Generalized Constant Expressions, commonly known as constexpr, were introduced in C++11.
* constexpr is a keyword that can be applied to variables and functions.
* It tells the compiler that it should evaluate the expression or function at compile time if possible. If the compiler can perform the evaluation at compile time, it will. If it can't (because the value depends on something not known at compile time), it will evaluate it at runtime.

#### constexpr Functions:

* A constexpr function is a function that can be evaluated at compile-time if its arguments are constant expressions. If the arguments are not constant expressions, it can still be evaluated at run-time.

#### constexpr Variables:

* A constexpr variable is guaranteed to have a constant value and can be used in contexts where a constant expression is required.

|  |
| --- |
| constexpr int add(int a, int b) {  return a + b;  }  int main() {  // Evaluated at compile-time  constexpr int result = add(3, 4);  cout << "Compile Time Result: " << result << "\n";  int x;  cout << "Enter value for x: ";  cin >> x;  // Evaluated at run-time  int runtimeResult = add(x, 10);  cout << "Runtime Result: " << runtimeResult;  constexpr int size = 10;  // Array size must be a constant expression  int array[size];  return 0;  } |

### Initializer Lists

* C++11 introduced **uniform initialization** using **braced** {} **lists**, which provides a consistent syntax for initializing variables, arrays, structs, and objects.
* Before C++11, there were several ways to initialize objects, each with its own quirks:

|  |
| --- |
| int a(1); // Variable definition  int b(); // Function declaration  int b(foo); // Variable definition or function declaration  // Initialize array variable  string a[] = { "foo", " bar" };  // Error: initializer list for non-aggregate vector  vector<string> v = { "foo", " bar" }; // Error  void f(string a[]);  f( { "foo", " bar" } ); // Syntax error: block as argument |

* Uniform initialization uses {} (braced lists), making the syntax more consistent across different data types.

|  |
| --- |
| int x1(5.3); // OK, but x1 becomes 5  int x2 = 5.3; // OK, but x2 becomes 5  // Uniform Initialization  int x3{ 5.3 }; // ERROR: narrowing  int x4 = { 5.3 };// ERROR: narrowing  char c1{ 7 }; // OK: even though 7 is an int, this is not narrowing  char c2{ 999 }; // ERROR: narrowing (if 999 doesn’t fit into a char)  int arr1[] = { 1, 2, 3 }; // Old-style  int arr2[]{ 1, 2, 3 }; // Uniform initialization  std::vector<int> vec = { 10, 20, 30 };  std::vector<int> vec2{ 10, 20, 30 }; |

#### The std::initializer\_list<T>

* C++11 introduced std::initializer\_list<T> to handle uniform initialization in **user-defined** classes.

|  |
| --- |
| #include <initializer\_list>  class MyClass {  public:  MyClass(std::initializer\_list<int> vals) {  for (int val : vals) {  std::cout << val << " ";  }  std::cout << "\n";  }  };  int main() {  MyClass obj{ 1, 2, 3, 4, 5 };  return 0;  }  // Output: 1 2 3 4 5 |

### Unicode Support

* C++11 introduced **Unicode support** by adding new **character types** and **string literals** for working with **UTF-8, UTF-16, and UTF-32** encoded text.
* C++11 introduces three new character types for Unicode:
  + char16\_t → Represents UTF-16 characters (16-bit)
  + char32\_t → Represents UTF-32 characters (32-bit)
  + wchar\_t (existing) → Typically for wide characters (platform-dependent)
* C++11 allows you to define Unicode string literals using **prefixes**:

| Encoding | Prefix | Example |
| --- | --- | --- |
| UTF-8 | u8 | u8"Hello" (Stored as char array) |
| UTF-16 | u | u"Hello" (Stored as char16\_t array) |
| UTF-32 | U | U"Hello" (Stored as char32\_t array) |
| Wide String | L | L"Hello" (Stored as wchar\_t array) |

**Note:** char8\_t → A dedicated type for UTF-8 characters was introduced in **C++20**.

### Raw String Literals

* Raw string literals in C++11 provide a way to **include special characters**, like **backslashes** or **quotes**, in strings **without needing to escape them**.
* This can make the code more readable and less error-prone, especially when dealing with complex strings.
* They are defined using a special syntax:

R"delimiter(raw-string-content)delimiter"

* R: Indicates a raw string literal.
* "delimiter( ... )delimiter": The string is enclosed in parentheses, which are themselves enclosed between delimiters. The delimiters are optional. If you don't use a delimiter, it's as if you used an empty one. If you use a delimiter, it must be the same before and after the raw string content.

|  |
| --- |
| int main() {  // Standard string with escaped characters  std::string escaped = "C:\\path\\to\\file.txt";  std::cout << "Escaped string:" << std::endl << escaped << std::endl;  // Raw string literal  std::string raw = R"\*\*(C:\path\to\file.txt)\*\*";  std::cout << "Raw string literal:" << std::endl << raw << std::endl;  return 0;  } |

### Thread-local Storage

* C++11 introduced thread-local storage using the thread\_local keyword. This allows variables to have separate instances for each thread, avoiding race conditions without requiring explicit synchronization mechanisms like std::mutex.
* Declaring a variable with thread\_local means each thread gets its own copy of the variable.
* The variable persists for the lifetime of the thread.
* It cannot be shared across threads but remains available as long as the thread exists.

|  |
| --- |
| #include <iostream>  #include <thread>  // Each thread gets its own "counter"  thread\_local int counter = 0;  void incrementCounter() {  ++counter;  printf("Thread ID: %d and Counter: %d\n",  std::this\_thread::get\_id(), counter);  }  int main() {  std::thread t1(incrementCounter);  std::thread t2(incrementCounter);  std::thread t3(incrementCounter);  t1.join();  t2.join();  t3.join();  return 0;  }  /\*  Thread ID: 26744 and Counter: 1  Thread ID: 14060 and Counter: 1  Thread ID: 15788 and Counter: 1  \*/ |

### Long Long Type

* The long long type was introduced in C++11 as a standard integer type with at least 64 bits of storage.
* Key Features of long long
  + It is **guaranteed** to be at least **64 bits** (sizeof(long long) >= 8).
  + It allows representation of very large integer values.
  + The corresponding **unsigned version** is unsigned long long.
  + The **format specifier** for long long in printf/scanf is %lld for signed and %llu for unsigned.

|  |
| --- |
| #include <iostream>  #include <limits>  int main() {  // Maximum for 64-bit signed integer  long long largeNumber = 9223372036854775807LL;  // Maximum for 64-bit unsigned integer  unsigned long long largeUnsigned = 18446744073709551615ULL;  std::cout << "Signed long long: " << largeNumber << '\n';  std::cout << "Unsigned long long: " << largeUnsigned << '\n';  // Check limits  std::cout << "Max long long: " <<  std::numeric\_limits<long long>::max() << '\n';  std::cout << "Min long long: " <<  std::numeric\_limits<long long>::min() << '\n';  return 0;  }  /\*  Signed long long: 9223372036854775807  Unsigned long long: 18446744073709551615  Max long long: 9223372036854775807  Min long long: -9223372036854775808  \*/ |

### Attributes

* C++11 introduced attributes, a standardized way to provide additional information to the compiler about your code.
* Attributes are mainly used for:
  + Optimizations
  + Warnings
  + Code analysis
* Syntax:

|  |
| --- |
| [[attribute\_name]] // General syntax  [[attribute\_name(parameters)]] // With parameters |

* Example:

|  |
| --- |
| #include <iostream>  #include <thread>  [[nodiscard]] int getValue() {  return 42;  }  int main() {  getValue(); // Compiler may warn: "Return value ignored"  return 0;  } |

#### **Commonly Used C++11 Attributes**

| **Attribute** | **Description** |
| --- | --- |
| [[noreturn]] | Indicates that a function **never returns**. |
| [[deprecated]] | Marks a function/class as **deprecated** (discouraged for use). |
| [[nodiscard]] | Warns if a function's return value is ignored. |
| [[maybe\_unused]] | Suppresses warnings for unused variables/functions. |

### Alignment Support

#### What is Alignment in C++?

* Alignment refers to how data is laid out in memory.
* Some CPU architectures require certain data types to be aligned for optimal performance.
* Misaligned accesses can cause performance penalties or even crashes on some architectures.

#### Why is Alignment Important?

* **Performance**: Unaligned memory accesses can be significantly slower on some architectures. The CPU might have to perform multiple memory accesses to fetch the data, or it might have to use special (and slower) instructions for unaligned accesses.
* **Portability**: Some architectures might not even support unaligned memory accesses at all, resulting in crashes or undefined behaviour.
* **Data Structures**: Proper alignment is crucial when working with data structures, especially when interfacing with hardware or other systems that have strict alignment requirements.
* C++11 introduced standardized alignment support using:
  + alignas (Specifier)
  + alignof (Operator)
  + std::aligned\_alloc (Function)
* Example:

|  |
| --- |
| #include <iostream>  struct alignas(16) MyStruct {  int a;  double b;  };  int main() {  std::cout << "Alignment of int: "  << alignof(int) << '\n';  std::cout << "Alignment of double: "  << alignof(double) << '\n';  std::cout << "Alignment of MyStruct: "  << alignof(MyStruct) << '\n';  } |

* Summary:

| **Feature** | **Purpose** |
| --- | --- |
| alignas(N) | Enforces **N-byte alignment** for variables & structures. |
| alignof(T) | Returns the **alignment requirement** of type T. |
| std::aligned\_alloc(N, size) | Allocates **N-byte aligned** memory. |
| std::free(ptr) | Frees memory allocated with std::aligned\_alloc(). |

### Keyword decltype

* decltype is a **compile-time type deduction feature** introduced in C++11.
* It **determines and returns the type** of an expression **without evaluating it**.
* Key Use Cases:
  + Infer **return types** of functions.
  + Deduce the type of **variables** and **expressions**.
  + Enable **generic programming** with **templates**.

|  |
| --- |
| #include <iostream>  #include <type\_traits>  using namespace std;  int main() {  int i = 4;  const int j = 6;  const int& k = i;  int a[5];  int\* p;  cout << boolalpha;  cout<<"decltype(i) == int: "<< is\_same<decltype(i), int>::value <<"\n";  cout<<"decltype(1) == int: "<< is\_same<decltype(1), int>::value <<"\n";  cout<<"decltype(2 + 3) == int: "<< is\_same<decltype(2 + 3), int>::value <<"\n";  cout<<"decltype(i = 1) == int&: "<< is\_same<decltype(i = 1), int&>::value <<"\n";  cout<<"decltype((i)) == int&: "<< is\_same<decltype((i)), int&>::value <<"\n";  cout<<"decltype(j) == const int: "<< is\_same<decltype(j), const int>::value <<"\n";  cout<<"decltype(k) == const int&: "<< is\_same<decltype(k), const int&>::value <<"\n";  cout<<"decltype(a) == int[5]: "<< is\_same<decltype(a), int[5]>::value <<"\n";  cout<<"decltype(\*p) == int&: "<< is\_same<decltype(\*p), int&>::value <<"\n";  return 0;  } |

### Suffix/Trailing Return Type

* Sometimes, the return type of a function depends on an expression processed with the arguments.

|  |
| --- |
| template <typename T1, typename T2>  decltype(x + y) add(T1 x, T2 y); |

* Unfortunately, the above code doesn't work. The compiler will parse codes from left to right, so it will issue an **error message** to indicate that variables ‘x’ and ‘y’ are used before their declarations.
* To solve this problem, C++11 introduced a feature called **trailing return types**. Using this feature, the previous program can be rewritten as follows:

|  |
| --- |
| template <typename T1, typename T2>  auto add(T1 x, T2 y) -> decltype(x + y); |

|  |
| --- |
| #include <iostream>  using namespace std;  template<typename T1, typename T2>  auto sum(T1& t1, T2& t2) -> decltype(t1 + t2)  {  return t1 + t2;  }  int main(void)  {  auto i = 1;  auto j = 1.3;  cout << sum(i, j) << endl;  return 0;  } |

# Class-Related Features

### Delegating constructors

* **Delegating constructors** allow a constructor in a class to call another constructor **within the same** class.
* A delegating constructor calls another constructor in the same class using **member initializer list syntax**.

#### Why Use Delegating Constructors?

* Avoids **code duplication** when multiple constructors share initialization logic.
* Ensures a **single initialization path**, reducing the chance of inconsistencies.
* Improves **readability and maintainability**.

|  |
| --- |
| #include <iostream>  #include <string>  using namespace std;  class Person {  string name;  int age;  public:  // Primary Constructor  Person(string n, int a) : name(n), age(a) {  cout << "Primary Constructor: " << name << ", " << age << "\n";  }  // Delegating Constructor (calls primary constructor)  Person(string n) : Person(n, 18) {  cout << "Delegating Constructor\n";  }  };  int main() {  Person p1("Alice", 25); // Calls primary constructor  Person p2("Bob"); // Calls delegating constructor  return 0;  } |

### Inherited Constructors

* **Inherited constructors** allow a derived class to inherit constructors from its base class **without explicitly redefining them**.
* This feature simplifies code and reduces duplication, especially in cases where the derived class **does not need additional initialization logic**.

#### The Problem Before C++11:

* Before C++11, if you wanted a derived class to have the same constructors as its base class, you had to manually define them in the derived class, even if they just called the base class constructors. This was tedious and error-prone.

|  |
| --- |
| class Base {  public:  Base(int x) : value(x) {}  Base(int x, double y) : value(x), other\_value(y) {}  // ... other constructors ...  protected:  int value;  double other\_value;  };  class Derived : public Base {  public:  // Redundant, just calls Base(int x)  Derived(int x) : Base(x) {}  // Redundant, just calls Base(int x, double y)  Derived(int x, double y) : Base(x, y) {}  // ... other constructors ...  }; |

#### Inherited Constructors (C++11):

* C++11 provides a way to automatically inherit constructors using the using declaration:

|  |
| --- |
| #include <iostream>  #include <string>  using namespace std;  class Base {  public:  Base(int x) { cout << "Base Constructor: " << x << "\n"; }  };  class Derived : public Base {  int y;  public:  using Base::Base;  // Explicitly initialize `y` since inherited constructors won't do it  Derived(int x, int y) : Base(x), y(y) {  cout << "Derived Constructor: " << y << "\n";  }  };  int main() {  Derived d1(42); // Calls Base(int), does not initialize `y`  Derived d2(10, 20); // Calls Base(int) and Derived(int, int)  return 0;  } |

### Default Member Initializers

* **Default member initializers** allow you to initialize **non-static** data members **directly in the** class **definition**, instead of using constructors.

#### Why Use Default Member Initializers?

* **Reduces redundancy** when multiple constructors need to initialize a member to the same default value.
* **Improves readability** by keeping default values next to member declarations.
* **Ensures consistency** since default values apply to all constructors unless explicitly overridden.
* Syntax:
  + You can initialize a member variable inside the class declaration using either:
    - **Brace** {} **initialization** (preferred, avoids narrowing conversions).
    - **Equal** = **initialization** (similar to assignment).

|  |
| --- |
| #include <iostream>  #include <string>  #include <vector>  using namespace std;  class Example {  int x = 5; // Default value  double b{ 3.14 }; // Default value  vector<int> numbers{ 1, 2, 3 };  public:  Example() = default; // Uses default values  Example(int val, double d) : x(val), b(d) {} // Overrides default  void print() {  cout << "x: " << x << "\n";  cout << "b: " << b << "\n";  for (int num : numbers)  cout << num << " ";  cout << "\n";  }  };  int main() {  Example e1; // Uses default x = 5, b = 3.14  Example e2(10, 2.2); // Uses x = 10, b = 2.2  e1.print();  e2.print();  } |

### Defaulted and Deleted Functions

* C++11 introduced **defaulted** and **deleted** functions to improve control over special member functions like constructors, destructors, and operators.

#### Defaulted Functions (= default)

* A **defaulted function** tells the compiler to generate the function's default implementation.
* Sometimes, if you add certain members (like a **custom destructor, Move Constructor/Assignment Operator**), the compiler **does not** generate special member functions (like the **copy constructor**). In such cases, you can explicitly ask the compiler to generate them using = default.
* These are the member functions that the compiler can automatically generate for you if you don't define them yourself:
  + Default constructor: MyClass()
  + Destructor: ~MyClass()
  + Copy constructor: MyClass(const MyClass& other)
  + Copy assignment operator: MyClass& operator=(const MyClass& other)
  + Move constructor: MyClass(MyClass&& other)
  + Move assignment operator: MyClass& operator=(MyClass&& other)
* Why?
  + Avoids redundant boilerplate code.
  + Improves clarity and intent.
  + Ensures correct and efficient compiler-generated implementations.

|  |
| --- |
| class MyClass {  // ... Other private members ...  public:  // Explicitly defaulted default constructor  MyClass() = default;  // Explicitly defaulted copy constructor  MyClass(const MyClass& other) = default;  // Explicitly defaulted copy assignment operator  MyClass& operator=(const MyClass& other) = default;  // Explicitly defaulted move constructor  MyClass(MyClass&& other) = default;  // Explicitly defaulted move assignment operator  MyClass& operator=(MyClass&& other) = default;  // Explicitly defaulted destructor  ~MyClass() = default;  }; |

* Example:

|  |
| --- |
| class Example {  private:  int\* ptr; // Dynamic resource  public:  // Constructor  Example(int val) : ptr(new int(val)) {}  // Custom destructor  ~Example() { delete ptr; }  // The compiler would not generate the copy constructor automatically  // Explicitly tell the compiler to generate it  Example(const Example&) = default;  };  int main() {  Example e1(10);  Example e2 = e1; // Allowed because we used `= default`  return 0;  } |

#### Deleted Functions (= delete)

* A **deleted function** explicitly prevents a function from being used.
* The = delete; tells the compiler: "Do not generate this function. If someone tries to use it, produce a **compile-time error**."
* C++11 **deleted functions** also apply to built-in types.
* Why?
  + Prevents accidental object copying/movement.
  + Enforces design constraints.
  + Improves safety and maintainability.

|  |
| --- |
| void func(int) {  cout << "Integer overload\n";  }  void func(double) = delete; // Disable function for double types  class NonCopyable {  public:  NonCopyable() = default;  // Disable copying  NonCopyable(const NonCopyable&) = delete;  // Disable copy assignment  NonCopyable& operator=(const NonCopyable&) = delete;  void print() { cout << "Instance exists\n"; }  };  int main() {  NonCopyable obj1;  // NonCopyable obj2 = obj1; // ERROR: Copying is deleted!  obj1.print();  func(10); // Allowed  // func(3.14); // ERROR: This function is deleted!  } |

### Override and Final

* C++11 introduced the override and final keywords to improve code clarity and prevent accidental mistakes when working with virtual **functions** in inheritance.

#### Prevent Mistakes When Overriding: override

* The override keyword is used to explicitly indicate that a member function in a derived class is intended to *override* a virtual function in its base class.
* If you accidentally misspell the function name or change the parameter list, the compiler will issue an error if you use override, preventing subtle bugs.

|  |
| --- |
| class Base {  public:  virtual void show() {  cout << "Base::show()\n";  }  };  class Derived : public Base {  public:  // Ensures we are overriding `Base::show()`  void show() override {  cout << "Derived::show()\n";  }  }; |

#### Prevent Further Overriding: final

* The final keyword prevents derived classes from **overriding** a virtual function.

|  |
| --- |
| class Base {  public:  // Cannot be overridden in derived classes  virtual void display() final {  cout << "Base::display()\n";  }  };  class Derived : public Base {  public:  // Error: Cannot override final function  // void display() override {  // cout << "Derived::display()\n";  // }  }; |

* The final can also be applied to **entire** class**es** to prevent inheritance.

|  |
| --- |
| // Cannot be inherited  class FinalClass final {  public:  void hello() { cout << "Hello from FinalClass\n"; }  };  // Compilation Error: FinalClass is final  // class DerivedClass : public FinalClass {  // }; |

* **Summary**

| **Feature** | **Purpose** |
| --- | --- |
| override | Ensures a function correctly overrides a base class virtual function. |
| final (function) | Prevents further overriding of a virtual function. |
| final (class) | Prevents a class from being inherited. |

### Strongly-typed Enumerations

* They offer improved type safety, scoping, and prevent implicit conversions that could lead to errors.
* **Scoped**: Unlike traditional enums, strongly-typed enums are scoped within their declaration. This means you access the enumerators using the enum's name and the scope resolution operator ::. This prevents name collisions with other enums or variables in the same scope.
* **Type Safety**: Strongly-typed enums do not implicitly convert to integer types. This prevents accidental comparisons or assignments between unrelated enum values or between enum values and integers. This significantly improves type safety and reduces the risk of errors.
* **Underlying Type**: You can explicitly specify the underlying integral type for a strongly-typed enum. This gives you control over the size and range of values the enum can hold. If you don't specify it, the default underlying type is int.
* **No Implicit Conversions**: As mentioned, there are no implicit conversions to integers or other enum types. This eliminates a common source of bugs with traditional enums.

|  |  |
| --- | --- |
| #include <iostream>  using namespace std;  enum Color {  Red,  Green,  Blue,  Orange  };  enum Fruit {  Apple,  Banana,  Grapes  };  int main() {  // No Error  if (Color::Blue == Fruit::Grapes) {  cout << "Comparing Fruits and Color\n";  }  return 0;  } | #include <iostream>  using namespace std;  enum class Color: int {  Red,  Green,  Blue,  Orange  };  enum class Fruit: char {  Apple,  Banana,  Grapes  };  int main() {  // Error  if (Color::Blue == Fruit::Grapes) {  cout << "Comparing Fruits and Color\n";  }  return 0;  } |

### Explicit Conversion Operator

* C++11 introduced the explicit keyword which can be applied to **conversion** **operators** (and **constructors** with a single argument) to **prevent** unintended implicit conversions that could lead to subtle bugs or incorrect behaviour.
  + A **conversion operator** is a special member function that allows an object of **that** class to be converted to another type.
  + Example:

|  |
| --- |
| class MyNumber {  private:  double value;  public:  MyNumber(double val) : value(val) {}  // Conversion operator to int  operator int() const {  // Truncate to integer  return static\_cast<int>(value);  }  // Conversion operator to string  operator string() const {  return to\_string(value);  }  double getValue() const { return value; }  };  int main() {  MyNumber num(3.14);  // Implicit conversion to int using the operator int()  int int\_val = num;  // Implicit conversion to string using the operator string()  std::string str\_val = num;  std::cout << "Integer value: " << int\_val << "\n";  std::cout << "String value: " << str\_val << "\n";  }  /\*  \* Integer value: 3  \* String value: 3.140000  \*/ |

* Using explicit to prevent implicit conversion.

|  |
| --- |
| class MyNumber {  private:  double value;  public:  MyNumber(double val) : value(val) {}  // Conversion operator to int  explicit operator int() const {  // Truncate to integer  return static\_cast<int>(value);  }  // Conversion operator to string  explicit operator string() const {  return to\_string(value);  }  double getValue() const { return value; }  };  int main() {  MyNumber num(3.14);  // Error: cannot convert from 'MyNumber' to 'int'  // int int\_val = num;  // Error: cannot convert from 'MyNumber' to 'std::string'  // std::string str\_val = num;  int int\_val = static\_cast<int>(num);  std::string str\_val = static\_cast<std::string>(num);  std::cout << "Integer value: " << int\_val << "\n";  std::cout << "String value: " << str\_val << "\n";  }  /\*  \* Integer value: 3  \* String value: 3.140000\*/ |

# Standard Library Features

* C++11 introduced **smart pointers** to **manage dynamic memory safely and automatically**, reducing the risk of memory leaks and dangling pointers.

### Exclusive Ownership: std::unique\_ptr

* A std::unique\_ptr **owns** a dynamically allocated object exclusively.
* **Cannot be copied** (ownership cannot be shared).
* **Can be moved** to transfer ownership.

|  |
| --- |
| #include <memory> // For smart pointers  class Example {  public:  Example() { std::cout << "Example Created\n"; }  ~Example() { std::cout << "Example Destroyed\n"; }  void sayHello() { std::cout << "Hello from Example\n"; }  };  int main() {  std::unique\_ptr<Example> ptr1 =  std::make\_unique<Example>(); // Allocates memory  ptr1->sayHello();  // Error: Cannot copy a unique\_ptr  // std::unique\_ptr<Example> ptr2 = ptr1;  // Ownership transferred  std::unique\_ptr<Example> ptr2 = std::move(ptr1);  if (!ptr1) {  std::cout << "ptr1 is now nullptr\n";  }  return 0;  } // `ptr2` goes out of scope, memory is freed |

### Shared Ownership: std::shared\_ptr

* A std::shared\_ptr allows **multiple smart pointers** to share ownership of the same object.
  + Internally maintains a **reference count**.
  + When the last shared\_ptr goes out of scope, the object is deleted.

|  |
| --- |
| #include <memory>  class Example {  public:  Example() { std::cout << "Example Created\n"; }  ~Example() { std::cout << "Example Destroyed\n"; }  };  int main() {  // Creates object  std::shared\_ptr<Example> ptr1 = std::make\_shared<Example>();  std::shared\_ptr<Example> ptr2 = ptr1; // Shared ownership  std::cout << "Reference Count: "  << ptr1.use\_count() << "\n"; // 2 references  ptr1.reset(); // ptr1 releases ownership  std::cout << "Reference Count: "  << ptr2.use\_count() << "\n"; // 1 reference left  return 0;  } // `ptr2` goes out of scope, object deleted |

### Prevent Circular References: std::weak\_ptr

* A std::weak\_ptr is a **non-owning** smart pointer that **references** **an object managed** **by** std::shared\_ptr.
  + **Does NOT increase reference count**.
  + Used to **avoid cyclic dependencies**.

|  |
| --- |
| #include <memory>  class B; // Forward declaration  class A {  public:  std::shared\_ptr<B> b\_ptr;  ~A() { std::cout << "A Destroyed\n"; }  };  class B {  public:  // Weak pointer avoids cyclic reference  std::weak\_ptr<A> a\_ptr;  ~B() { std::cout << "B Destroyed\n"; }  };  int main() {  std::shared\_ptr<A> a = std::make\_shared<A>();  std::shared\_ptr<B> b = std::make\_shared<B>();  a->b\_ptr = b;  b->a\_ptr = a; // Weak reference prevents memory leak  return 0; // Both objects are properly destroyed  } |

#### **Summary Table**

| **Smart Pointer** | **Ownership** | **Copyable?** | **Use Case** |
| --- | --- | --- | --- |
| std::unique\_ptr | **Exclusive** | ❌ No | Managing a single resource (e.g., file, socket, heap memory) |
| std::shared\_ptr | **Shared** | ✅ Yes | When multiple owners need access to the same object |
| std::weak\_ptr | **Non-owning** | ✅ Yes | Breaking cyclic references in std::shared\_ptr |

### Hash Tables

* C++11 introduced the following hash-based containers, which are also known as unordered associative containers:
  + std::unordered\_map: This container stores elements as key-value pairs, where each key is **unique**. It provides fast average-case lookup, insertion, and deletion of elements using a hash function.
  + std::unordered\_set: This container stores **unique** elements, and like std::unordered\_map, it uses a hash function to provide fast average-case access.
  + std::unordered\_multimap: This is similar to std::unordered\_map, but it allows **duplicate** keys.
  + std::unordered\_multiset: This is similar to std::unordered\_set, but it allows **duplicate** elements.
* These containers are defined in the <unordered\_map> and <unordered\_set> headers.
* They offer average-case **constant time complexity** for common operations like lookup, insertion, and deletion, making them very efficient for many applications.

### Forward List

* C++11 introduced std::forward\_list, a **singly linked list** available in the <forward\_list> header.
* Unlike std::list (which is a **doubly linked list**), std::forward\_list only maintains **a single pointer per node (to the next element)**, making it more **memory efficient** but also **less powerful** (no backward traversal).

std::forward\_list<int> flist = { 10, 20, 30, 40 };

### Array Container

* C++11 introduced std::array, a container that represents **fixed-size arrays** with some important features and benefits over the built-in C++ arrays.
* Unlike traditional C++ arrays (which are of fixed size and lack member functions), std::array provides a more modern and safer interface for handling arrays. It combines the **efficiency of C-style arrays** with the **power of STL containers**.

|  |
| --- |
| #include <array>  int main() {  // Create an array of 5 integers  std::array<int, 5> arr = { 1, 2, 3, 4, 5 };  // Access elements using []  std::cout << "Element at index 2: " << arr[2] << std::endl;  // Access elements using at() (with bounds checking)  std::cout << "Element at index 3: " << arr.at(3) << std::endl;  return 0;  } |

For more on Containers, refer “STL Containers.docx”

For more on Algorithms, refer “STL Algorithms.docx”

For more on Concurrency, refer “Parallel and Concurrent Programming with C++.docx”

### The std::chrono

* C++11 introduced the <chrono> library, which provides a robust way to handle time-related operations, including **measuring time intervals**, working with different **time units**, and setting time points.

#### Core Components of <chrono>

* The <chrono> library has three primary components:
  1. std::chrono::duration → Represents a time duration.
  2. std::chrono::time\_point → Represents a specific point in time.
  3. std::chrono::clock → Provides the current time.

#### Working with std::chrono::duration

* A **duration** represents a **span of time** and is **parameterized by**:
  + A representation type (e.g., int, double).
  + A time unit (e.g., seconds, milliseconds, nanoseconds).
* A std::chrono::duration represents a span of time, meaning a measurable interval or period between two points in time.
  + For example:
    - 5 seconds
    - 3.5 hours
  + All of these describe **durations**, or "how long" something takes.
* What does "**parameterized by**" mean?
  + The std::chrono::duration **template** is parameterized by two things:
    - A **representation type** → Specifies how to store the duration value (e.g., int, double).
    - A **time unit** → Specifies the unit of measurement (e.g., seconds, milliseconds, nanoseconds).
* Example:

std::chrono::duration<int, std::milli> five\_hundred\_milliseconds

= std::chrono::milliseconds(500);

#### Working with std::chrono::time\_point

* A std::chrono::time\_point represents a specific point in time. Think of it like a timestamp.
* It's different from std::chrono::duration, which represents a span of time. A time\_point is like a **coordinate on a timeline**, while a duration is like the **distance between two coordinates**.
* It is essentially a combination of a **clock** and a **duration**.

template <class Clock, class Duration = typename Clock::duration>

class time\_point;

#### Working with std::chrono::clock

* std::chrono provides several clock types, each with its own characteristics.
* std::chrono::system\_clock:
  + Represents the system's wall clock time. This is the time you'd typically see on your computer's clock.
  + Can be adjusted by the user or by network time synchronization (NTP). This means it's not guaranteed to be monotonic (it can jump forward or backward).
  + Useful for displaying the current time to the user or for logging timestamps.
* std::chrono::steady\_clock:
  + Represents a clock that is guaranteed to be monotonic. It never goes backward.
  + The actual time it represents is not necessarily related to wall-clock time. It's primarily for measuring durations.
  + Ideal for benchmarking code or measuring time intervals. Use this for any timing-related tasks where monotonicity is essential.
* std::chrono::high\_resolution\_clock:
  + Represents the clock with the finest possible resolution available on the system.
  + It might be an alias for system\_clock or steady\_clock. The C++ standard doesn't specify which.
  + Use this when you need the highest possible precision, but be aware that it might not always be the most accurate (due to underlying hardware limitations).

### Regular Expressions

* C++11 introduced **regular expressions (regex)** via the <regex> library, which allows you to search, match, and manipulate strings using **patterns**.
* In C++, regex support is provided via:
  + std::regex → Represents a regex pattern.
  + std::smatch/std::cmatch → Stores match results (for string / C-string).
  + std::regex\_search → Searches for a match in a string.
  + std::regex\_match → Checks if the entire string matches.
  + std::regex\_replace → Replaces matched substrings.

|  |
| --- |
| #include <regex>  int main() {  string email = "user@example.com";  regex pattern(R"([a-zA-Z0-9.\_%+-]+@[a-zA-Z0-9.-]+\.[a-zA-Z]{2,})");  if (regex\_match(email, pattern)) {  cout << "Valid email\n";  }  else {  cout << "Invalid email\n";  }  } |

### The std::tuple

* std::tuple is a **fixed-size** collection that can hold elements of **different types** (heterogeneous data). It is part of the <tuple> header.
* Why Use std::tuple?
  + Can store multiple values of different types.
  + Useful when returning multiple values from a function.
  + Provides type-safe access to elements.

|  |
| --- |
| int main() {  std::tuple<int, double, std::string> myTuple(42, 3.14, "Hello");  std::cout << "First: " << std::get<0>(myTuple) << "\n";  std::cout << "Second: " << std::get<1>(myTuple) << "\n";  std::cout << "Third: " << std::get<2>(myTuple) << "\n";  } |

### Random Number Generation

* C++11 introduced a **powerful and flexible** random number generation system in the <random> header.
* It replaces the old C-style functions like rand() and srand() with a modern, more robust approach.
* Random number generation in C++11 involves **three key components**:

|  |  |
| --- | --- |
| Component | Purpose |
| Engine (std::mt19937) | Generates pseudo-random numbers |
| Distribution (std::uniform\_int\_distribution) | Defines how numbers are distributed |
| Seed (std::random\_device) | Ensures randomness between runs |

#### The Engine (e.g., std::mt19937):

* **What it does**: The engine is the core of the random number generator. It's an algorithm that produces a sequence of numbers that appear random. However, these numbers are actually deterministic – if you start the engine with the same initial value (the **seed**), it will always produce the same sequence. This is why they are called pseudo random numbers. They are not truly random, but they are good enough for many practical applications.
* **Analogy**: Think of the engine as a complex mathematical formula that **spits out numbers**.
* std::mt19937 (**Mersenne Twister**): This is a very common and powerful pseudo-random number engine. It's generally a good default choice. It's fast and produces high-quality pseudo-random numbers.

#### The Distribution (e.g., std::uniform\_int\_distribution):

* **What it does**: The distribution **takes the raw output from the engine** and shapes it to fit a specific probability distribution. For example, std::uniform\_int\_distribution produces numbers that are evenly distributed within a specified range (like rolling a fair die). Other distributions exist for generating numbers with different patterns (Gaussian, normal, etc.).
* **Analogy**: The distribution is like a **filter** or a Mold. It takes the raw numbers from the engine and transforms them into the desired form.
* std::uniform\_int\_distribution: This distribution generates integers within a given range (inclusive). For example, std::uniform\_int\_distribution <int>(1, 6) will produce integers between 1 and 6 (inclusive), each with equal probability.

#### The Seed (e.g., std::random\_device):

* **What it does**: The seed is the **initial value** that you give to the **engine**. It's like the starting point for the engine's sequence of numbers. If you use the same seed every time you run your program, the engine will produce the same sequence of "random" numbers. This is often useful for debugging or testing, where you want predictable results. However, for true randomness between runs, you need a different seed each time.
* **Analogy**: The seed is like **setting the initial position of the gears** in your engine.
* std::random\_device: This class is used to obtain a non-deterministic seed from the operating system (if available). It's the best way to get a truly random starting point for your engine.

#### Steps to Generate Random Numbers

* Step 1: Include the Required Headers

#include <iostream> // For Input/Output

#include <random> // For random number generation

* Step 2: Create a Random Device

std::random\_device rd; // Seed generator

* Step 3: Initialize the Engine with the Seed

// Mersenne Twister Engine is initialized with

// seed from random device

std::mt19937 engine(rd());

* Step 4: Define a Distribution

// Range: 1 to 100

std::uniform\_int\_distribution<int> dist(1, 100);

* Step 5: Generate Random Numbers

std::cout << "Random Number: " << dist(engine) << "\n";

### Converting Numbers to Strings

* C++11 introduced **new standard functions** in <string> and <sstream> for **converting between strings and numbers** more easily and safely.
* Before C++11, we used std::stringstream for conversion, which was **verbose**. Now, std::to\_string() simplifies it.

std::cout << "Integer as string: " << to\_string(43)<< "\n";

std::cout << "Double as string: " << to\_string(3.14) << "\n";

### Converting Strings to Numbers

* C++11 provides functions to convert **strings to numbers**, replacing std::stringstream for this purpose.

|  |  |
| --- | --- |
| Function | Converts to |
| std::stoi(str) | int |
| std::stol(str) | long |
| std::stoll(str) | long long |
| std::stof(str) | float |
| std::stod(str) | double |
| std::stold(str) | long double |

* Example:

int i = std::stoi("123");

float f = std::stof("123.456");

double d = std::stod("123.456");

### Compile-Time Rational Arithmetic

* C++11 introduced std::ratio in <ratio> to **perform fractional (rational) arithmetic at compile-time**.
* It is particularly useful for **unit conversions, time calculations (**std::chrono**), and precise mathematical computations** where integer division may cause precision loss.

#### What is std::ratio?

* A std::ratio<N, D> represents a **fraction** N/D (numerator/denominator), but it's evaluated **at compile time**.

|  |
| --- |
| #include <ratio>  int main() {  using r = ratio<3, 4>; // Represents 3/4  cout << "Ratio: " << r::num <<  "/" << r::den << "\n"; // Output: 3/4    using r1 = ratio<1, 2>;  using r2 = ratio<1, 3>;  using sum = ratio\_add<r1, r2>; // (1/2 + 1/3) = 5/6  using product = ratio\_multiply<r1, r2>; // (1/2 \* 1/3) = 1/6  cout << "Sum: " << sum::num <<  "/" << sum::den << "\n"; // Output: 5/6  cout << "Product: " << product::num  << "/" << product::den << "\n"; // Output: 1/6  } |