

Basic structuring in C++

```
#include <iostream>
int main() {
    std::cout << "Hello World";
    return 0;
}
```

```
#include <iostream>
using namespace std;
int main() {
    cout << "Hello World";
    return 0;
}
```

Wishful thinking (A)

- * `iostream` → Header file for input and output.
- * `<<` → Insertion operator (h/c with `cout`)
`>>` → Extraction operator (h/c with `cin`)
- * `cout, cin, endl...` are functions defined in namespace `std`. If `using namespace std` is not declared, we must put `std::` before each function defined in namespace `std`.
- * Multiple use of `<<` in single statement → Cascading
- Data types
- * `int, float, char, bool (true(1), false(0))`

Data type	Size (bytes)	Range
<code>short int</code>	2	-32,768 - 32,767
<code>unsigned short int</code>	2	0 - 65,535
<code>int</code>	4	-2147483648 - +2147483647
<code>unsigned int</code>	4	0 - 4294967295
<code>long int</code>	4	-2147483648 - +2147483647
<code>unsigned long int</code>	4	0 - 4294967295
<code>long long int</code>	8	-2 ⁶³ to +(2 ⁶³ - 1)
<code>unsigned long long int</code>	8	0 to 18,446,744,073,709,551,815

unsigned char	1	0 to 255
char	1	-128 to 127
float	4	1.0 × 10 ⁻³⁸ to 3.4 × 10 ³⁸
double	8	
long double	10	(long double) structure

1) #include <iostream.h>

2) #include <iomanip.h>

• Header files and operators \Rightarrow file: bits

: "new off" \Rightarrow bits

: a counter

Two types of header files

1) System header files

2) User defined header files \Rightarrow robust \leftarrow creation

As we have seen in C-preprocessor #include <cmath> \rightarrow System defined
as #include "string" \rightarrow User defined

seen in C \rightarrow British standard on - Unix, mac, tan
 our standard has two i bits maximum prior to - h2
 as bits

• Operators \Rightarrow done first \Rightarrow H2 first term

- 1) Arithmetic operators (+, -, *, /, %, ++, --)
- 2) Assignment operators (=, +=, -=, *=, /=, %=, ^=, <<=, >>=)
- 3) Comparison operators (==, !=, >, <, >=, <=)
- 4) Logical operators (&&, ||, !)
- 5) Bitwise operators (&, |, ^, ~, <<, >>)

• scope resolution operator (::)

Ex. $x \rightarrow$ global

local

function

3) If a variable is declared globally and the same variable is also declared locally in a function,

3) if we print that variable inside a function,

3) local variable is given first priority; so, the local

3) variable is printed. So, if we want to print global

variable, use scope resolution operator (::)

```
#include <iostream>
```

```
using namespace std;
```

```
int int x=10; //
```

```
int main() {
```

```
int x=5;
```

```
cout << x << ::x << endl;
```

```
return 0;
```

Printing prints 5.1 prints 10 = 10

\downarrow Local variable \downarrow Global variable

- The default prototype of a decimal number is double and its size is definitely 8 bytes so if we want to manipulate it, we use a suffix f or F for float and l or L for long double.

size of (30.1) \rightarrow 8 }

size of (30.1f) \rightarrow 4 }

size of (30.1L) \rightarrow 12 }

called **_literals**

Float, double & long double literals

Reference variables

Reference variable is another name for an already existing variable (it is just like using type def for a variable);

\leftarrow int x=10;

int &y=x; \rightarrow y is reference variable

cout << x << endl;

cout << y << endl;

This means

x & y will be sharing the same address

$\begin{array}{|c|} \hline x \\ \hline 10 \\ \hline \end{array}$

O/P \rightarrow 10

10

Here & is not an address of operator, it is just a symbol to represent a variable as ref var

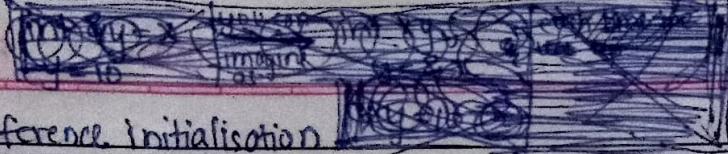
It is just like

for if you change y, x will also change and vice versa!

So it is an

Both ref var & actual var points to same address

- * Reference variable is an internal pointer.
- * Reference variable must be initialised during declaration



← means

PAGE:

- * Reference initialisation

- Typecasting

to an object cannot be changed in future to another object

Here (float) a/b some float : C(a/b) ^{value at memory address}
2 () return for
B = a/b

- Constants in iostream

We cannot initialise a variable if we use 'const' specifc before prototype of variable

const int a=10; \rightarrow Means, a cannot be altered
a = 15; \rightarrow invalid, shows error.

Manipulators

Operators which are used to format output

(Console I/O) \rightarrow to take input "X" from user to use

Most commonly used \rightarrow endl, ^{similar to} (setw)

endl requires <iostream>, Requires <iomanip>

endl \rightarrow end line

? namespace std ... (>>)

setw() \rightarrow set width

cout << 100 << endl;

Output will be cout << 10000 << endl; \rightarrow 10000

cout << 100 << setw(5) << endl;

cout << 100 << setw(5) << endl;

O/P \rightarrow {100 } without setw()

{10000 } (100 >> 5 >> 100)

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• Operator Precedence

usually variables in function are cleared after function

It is the Hierarchy of operators

Precedence	Operators	Associativity
1	:: scope resolution	L-R
2	att, a-- type(), typeid a() a[] . , ->	Post increment operator Functional cast Function call Subscript Member access
3	+a, -a +a, -a !, ~ *a &a sizeOf()	Pre increment operator Unary + - Logical NOT, Bitwise NOT Value of / indirection/dereference Address of
	co-await	Await expression
	new, new[] delete, delete[]	Dynamical mem alloc Deallocations
4	* , ->*	Pointer to member
5	* , \, %	Multiplication, division
6	+ , -	Addition, subtraction
7	>>, <<	Bitwise right shift
8	<= >=	Three-way comparison
9	< , <=	
10	> , >=	
	== , !=	
11	&	Bitwise AND
12	^	Bitwise XOR
13		Bitwise OR
14	&&	Logical AND

- | | | |
|----|----------|----------------------------------|
| 15 | • II | Logical OR |
| 16 | a? b: c | Ternary/conditional operator R-L |
| | throw | throw operator |
| | co yield | yield expression |

$=$	\neq	Assignment operator
$+$	$-$	Arithmetical operators
$*$	$/$	Arithmetical operators
$\%$		Arithmetical operators
\wedge	\vee	Logical operators
\ll	\gg	Bitwise compound operators
$<$	$>$	Comparison operators

Control Structures

- 1) Sequence structures
 - 2) Selection structures
 - 3) Loop structures

Sequence structure → The statements are executed one after other from top to bottom (without if/else, loop etc).

2 selection structures → Programs with conditional operators
Cif, else → where selected portions run

Loop structure → with loop

endl v/s \n

`cout << endl;` → Insert a new line & flushes the stream
`cout << "\n";` → Only inserts a newline = !

`cout << endl;` equivalent
to

cout << "In" << flush;

- * endl is a manipulator while \n is a character
- * endl does not occupy any memory while \n occupies memory

Swapping values

- * In C, swapping values in a function was only possible using pointers i.e. passing variables by ~~value~~ ~~call~~ by reference
- * But in C++, we can do the same using REFERENCE VARIABLES

```
#include <iostream>
void swap (int &a, int &b) {
    int temp = a;
    a = b;
    b = temp;
}
int main() {
    int x = 10, y = 15;
    swap (x, y);
    cout << "x : " << x << endl;
    cout << "y : " << y << endl;
    return 0;
}
```

Since reference variables are internal pointers (both variables points to same memory location i.e. share same memory) changing 'a' would be same as changing 'x'

Return by reference

Say we want to return 'a' in the above program, we would use function return type as int & ~~max~~ (int&a, int&b)

```
int & max (int &a, int &b)
{
    if(a > b)
        return a;
    else
        return b;
}
```

```
int main() {
    int x = 10, y = 15;
    max(x,y) = -1;
}
```

Here x would be assigned -1 if a is returned
y would be assigned -1 if b is returned

- Inline functions

In a normal function call, when program executes the function call instruction, the CPU stores the memory address of the instruction following the function call, copies the arguments of the function on the stack and transfers control to the called function. The CPU then executes the function code, stores the function return value in predefined memory location / registers and returns control to calling function. This can become overhead when the execution time of called function is way lesser than the switching time from calling function to called function.

- In this case we use **INLINE FUNCTION**. When the inline function is called, whole code of the inline function gets inserted or substituted at point of inline function call. Inline function's are not useful for functions which have long codes because here the execution time of function would be larger than switching time.

Declaration → We just use a keyword '**inline**' before the function prototype.

e.g. → ~~int sum()~~ **inline** int sum();

- * We won't use inline functions with

- 1) Large function

- 2) Recursions

- 3) While using static variable

- Static variable

The variables whose lifetime is till the program terminates. Memory is allocated to it till lifetime of program.

~~int sum (int a, int b) {
int c = a+b; static int d = 0
vector<~~

```
void demo() {  
    static int count=0;  
    count++;  
}  
int main() {  
    ...  
}
```

**STATIC VARIABLES ARE
INITIALISED ONLY ONCE** →
AND THE VARIABLE RETAINS
THE VALUE IF ITS ALTERED
LATER OR RETAINS THE
INITIALISED VALUE

It is evident that the life time of a variable in a function is only till the function is executed (local scope). But when we declare a static variable, memory is allocated for it till the lifetime of the whole program.

In first function call, count = 0
count = 1 (count is
initialised to 0)
In 2nd function call, count will not
be initialised to 0 again, count will
be 1 because it is a static variable

Default Arguments

```
int sum(int a, int b, int c=10, int d=15)  
{  
    return (a+b+c+d);  
}  
  
int main()  
{  
    cout << sum(10, 15) << endl;  
    cout << sum(10, 15, 20) << endl;  
    cout << sum(10, 15, 20, 25) << endl;  
    return 0  
}
```

T/O/P	50
	60
	70

A default argument is a value provided in a function declaration that is automatically assigned if the calling function doesn't provide a value for argument with default value

• Function Overloading

Two or more functions having same name, but having different number of parameters.

```
#include <iostream>
```

```
using namespace std;
```

```
int sum (int a, int b) {
```

```
    return (a+b);
```

```
int sum (int a, int b, int c) {
```

```
    return (a+b+c);
```

```
int main () {
```

```
    int x=10, y=15, z=15;
```

```
    printf ("%d", sum(x,y));
```

```
    printf ("%d", sum(x,y,z));
```

```
    return 0;
```

Called FUNCTION

POLYMORPHISM

IN OOPS

called when 2 arguments
are passed

called when 3 arguments
are passed

• Dynamic memory allocation in C++

C/C++	malloc()	memory allocation	free()	memory deallocation
C	malloc()		new	
C++	new		delete	

• New

syntax

```
ptr = new data-type;
```

eg → ptr = new int;

ptr = new float

Iterators

- * They are pointer like objects pointing to specific location of containers.
- *
 - begin() → first block
 - end() → block next to last block
- * The difference b/w $it++$ and $it = it + 1$
 - $it++$ → points to next iterator
 - $it = it + 1$ → moves to next location

In vectors and other

sequential containers

$it++ \Leftrightarrow it = it + 1$

Because they are sequential

$it++$ or $it + 1$

it

sequential
containers

Memory

In other containers like
sets and maps.

They are not sequential
 $so it = it + 1 \rightarrow$ compilation error

it

$it + 1$

$it + 2$

$it + 3$

$it + 1$

$it + 2$

$it + 3$

Non sequential

→ compilation
error

- auto keyword and range based loops

```
for (C it = v.begin(); it != v.end(); it++)
```

```
    cout << *it << " ";
```

data
type of
vector

```
For (int value : v)
```

```
    cout << value << " ";
```

What happens

here is, the loop
iterates over the

entire range of vector one by one and copies
it to value and printed inside loop.

- * We can use (int& value : v) instead to avoid
copying

- * auto → determines automatically the data-type of
variable.

Time complexity and constraints

No of iterations in online editors $\rightarrow 10^7 - 10^8$
per second

\therefore Solutions should

[No of iterations in our solutions
per second must always be $\leq 10^7$]

Eg. $N \leq 100000$

$a[i] \leq 10000$

for($i=0; i < n; i++$)
 $\quad \quad \quad cout << a[i] \leq end \backslash n$

$$\Rightarrow T(n) = O(n) \approx 10^5 \leq 10^7$$

[NO ERROR]

for($i=0; i < n; i++$)
 $\quad \quad \quad$ for($j=0; j < n; j++$)
 $\quad \quad \quad cout << a[i] \leq end$

$$T(n) = O(n^2)$$

$$\approx 10^{10} \geq 10^7$$

[TLE]

Eg: Constraints:

$$1 \leq T \leq 1000$$

$$1 \leq N \leq 1000$$

$$1 \leq a[i] \leq 1000$$

\Rightarrow Solution can be
max of N^2
complexity

```
int main () {
    int t;
    cin >> t;    int count=0;
    while (t--) {
```

```

int n;
cin >> n;

int sum = 0;
for (int i=0; i<n; i++) {
    int x;
    cin >> x;
    sum += x; count++;
}

cout << sum << endl;
}

```

$$T(n) = O(NT) \approx O(10^6) < 10^7$$

Now if we change the constraints as below

~~***~~ $1 \leq T \leq 10^5$

$1 \leq N \leq 10^5$

$1 \leq arr[i] \leq 1000$

Sum of N over all test cases is $< 10^7$

[Special case]

NOW $F(N) = \text{No of times count was incremented}$
 $= \text{cnt}$

time $\leftarrow \text{cnt}$

$t=0 \quad 0$

$t=1 \quad 1 \quad n_1$

$t=2 \quad 1 \quad n_2$

$t_N \quad 1 \quad n_N$

Range of data types

int \rightarrow -10^9 to 10^9

long int \rightarrow -10^{12} to 10^{12}

long long int \rightarrow -10^{18} to 10^{18}

Though double has a range very much greater than long long int, we avoid using it coz it is not precise.

Eg

long long x = 1e10;
cout << x << endl;

Output \rightarrow 1000000000

double x = 1e24;
cout << x << endl;

O/p \rightarrow 99999999...324.000
 \downarrow

int a = 100000;
int b = 100000;
int c = a+b; \rightarrow overflow

Not exactly printing 1e24,
prints a number very near to
1e24. \rightarrow May cause errors
due to wrong calculations.

long int d = a*b; \rightarrow No overflow but answer wrong
because a and b are int, a and b
will be multiplied and the final ans
will be again converted into 'int' and
then stored into d.

long int d = a*1LL*b; \rightarrow No ~~overflow~~ overflow
correct answer

String

getline function → `getline(cin, str);` → Takes input from entire line.

But there is a catch here:

`cin` → It skips all spaces (blanks) and new-line characters (`\n`) before taking input.

`getline` → It starts taking input from wherever the current position of pointer is.

Eg: `int n;`

`cin >> n;`

`while (n != -1)`

`string str;`

`getline(cin, str);`

`cout << str << endl;`

`}`

eg
ip → 3

(in)

abc def

ghi jkl mno

xyz

cdq p →

abci def

ghi jkl mno

Because, after taking 3 as

input, the `getline` takes `abc` as the first string.

To avoid this, we can use

after `cin >> n;` to ignore the `'\n'`

`cin.ignore()`

Adding a character at end of string

1. `s += 'char'` → O(s.size)

→ Copies string line

2. `s.push_back('char');` → O(1)

then adds a 'char' and then stores it.

Best approach → `s.push_back(char)`

Array size limit

locally $\rightarrow 10^5$

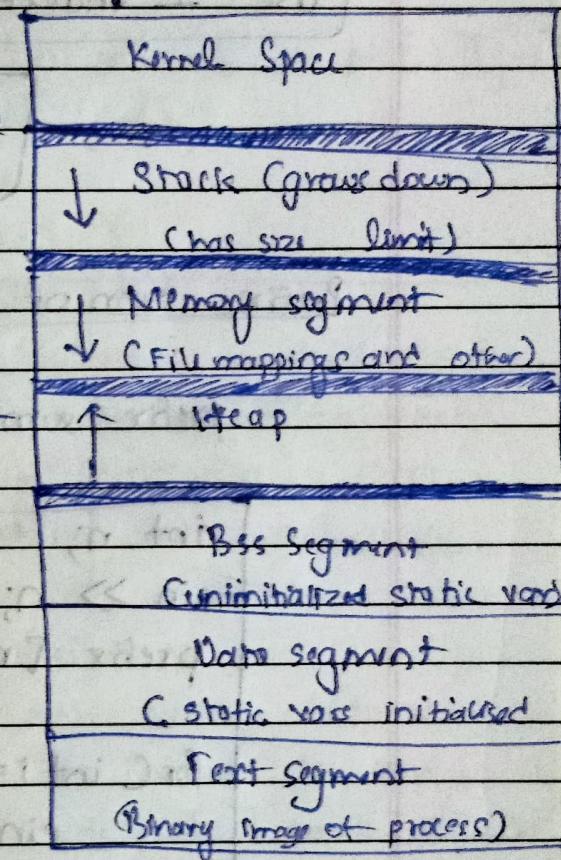
globally $\rightarrow 10^7$

While declaring array globally say arr[n], n should be constant i.e. const int n;

Why?

This is because, whenever, a variable is declared locally, it is stored in stack which has a memory limit.

But when it is declared globally, it is created in Data Segment which has no limit.



Modular Arithmetic

$$1. (a+b) \% M = (a \% M) + (b \% M) \% M$$

$$2. (a+b) \% M = ((a \% M) * (b \% M)) \% M$$

$$3. (a-b) \% M = (a \% M) - (b \% M) \% M$$

$$4. (a/b) \% M = (a \% M) * (b^{-1}) \% M \% M$$



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NO 17

Multiplicative Inverse.

Vectors

- * `vec.pop_back();` $\rightarrow O(1)$
- * `vec.push_back(val);` $\rightarrow O(1)$
- * `vec.size()` $\rightarrow O(1)$

You can simply copy vectors just like normal data types
`vector<int> v1 = v2;` $\rightarrow O(n)$

- * `vec.erase(val) $\rightarrow O(n)$`
- * `vec.clear() $\rightarrow O(n)$`

a loop to copy element by element

This is because, deleting one element requires moving other elements to fill up the gap

Iterators

They are pointer like objects used to point to some entity

Difference b/w `[it++]` and `[it = it + 1]`

`it++` \rightarrow Points to next iterator

`it = it + 1` \rightarrow Points to next location in memory

In vectors \rightarrow `it++` $\xleftarrow[\text{same}]{} it = it + 1$ because next iterator itself is the next location (as it has contiguous block of memory)

In maps and sets \rightarrow we must use `(it++)`

Red Black Trees → Self balancing binary tree which always maintains height logn

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maps

Maps key → value pair

map<key, value>

Value are stored in sorted order of keys

Internally implemented using RED BLACK TREES

Two ways to init m::map → ① m[key] = value
② m.insert({key, value})

m.insert({key, value})	→ O(log n) map
m.erase(key)	→ O(log n)
m[key] or m.find(key)	→ O(log n)
m.empty(), m.size()	→ O(1)
m.clear()	→ O(n)

m.insert({key, value}) → Not always $O(\log n)$.

When something is inserted into red black tree, the element is searched it is ~~inserted~~ and compared with already existing elements and then gets inserted at correct position.

$$\therefore T(\text{Insert}) = T(\text{Search}) + T(\text{Comparison})$$

~~and search & compare, value~~ → O(log n)

$$\therefore m.insert(S, k, v) = T(\text{Comparison}) \cdot (\log n)$$

↓
Negligible for small input

eg. map <string, string> mp;
 $mp["abc"] = "abc"; \rightarrow$ size small : $O(\log n)$
 $mp["abcdefghijklmnopqrstuvwxyz"] = "abc"$
 Here size is large.

$\therefore T(m.insert()) = T(\text{comparison}) \cdot \log n$
 $= \text{size} \cdot \log n$
 $= O(\text{size} \cdot \log n)$

Unordered maps

unordered_map <key, value> → values are stored in random order

Internally implemented using inbuilt HASH TABLES
(key is hashed)

`m.insert({key, value})` → O(1)

mis eraser key) $\rightarrow O(1)$

m. find (key) $\rightarrow O(1)$

But everything is same.

- Another big difference is you cannot create an ~~unordered~~ map of key ~~data~~ type such as $\text{map} < \text{pair} < \text{int}, \text{int} \rangle, \text{value} \rangle$ because there are no inbuilt hash function to hash the value of complex data type.
 - But it ~~won't~~ work in ^{normal} map ~~map~~ because the key is not hashable, it is just compared with others in tree i.e. it is comparison based insertion.

Valid key data-type → all basic data types (int, float, string...)

multimap

[multimap <key, value>] → Everything is same as of maps, but the only difference is you can insert multiple pair<key, value> for same key i.e. it allows duplicate values.

Sets

[set <key>] → set of values / elements,
→ Stores unique elements in sorted order

[Time complexity → Same as in map]

unordered set

[unordered set <key>] → Stores unique elements in random order

[Everything same as unordered map]

multiset

[multiset <key>] → Allows ~~multiple values~~ insertion of elements with same value i.e. allows duplicates.

s.find(key) → Returns iterator to first occurrence of key (if ~~multiple~~ duplicates exist)

s.erase(c iterator) → Deletes element pointed by iterator

s.erase(key) → Deletes all duplicates

all duplicates are not deleted.