More than 450,000 Programmers Have Learned C++ from Previous Editions



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Preface

C++ Primer, Fourth Edition, provides a comprehensive introduction to the C++ language. As a primer, it provides a clear tutorial approach to the language, enhanced by numerous examples and other learning aids. Unlike most primers, it also provides a detailed description of the language, with particular emphasis on current and effective programming techniques.

Countless programmers have used previous editions of C++ Primer to learn C++. In that time C++ has matured greatly. Over the years, the focus of the language—and of C++ programmers—has grown beyond a concentration on runtime efficiency to focus on ways of making *programmers* more efficient. With the widespread availability of the standard library, it is possible to use and learn C++ more effectively than in the past. This revision of the C++ Primer reflects these new possiblities.

Changes to the Fourth Edition

In this edition, we have completely reorganized and rewritten the *C*++ *Primer* to highlight modern styles of C++ programming. This edition gives center stage to using the standard library while deemphasizing techniques for low-level programming. We introduce the standard library much earlier in the text and have reformulated the examples to take advantage of library facilities. We have also streamlined and reordered the presentation of language topics.

In addition to restructuring the text, we have incorporated several new elements to enhance the reader's understanding. Each chapter concludes with a Chapter Summary and glossary of Defined Terms, which recap the chapter's most important points. Readers should use these sections as a personal checklist: If you do not understand a term, restudy the corresponding part of the chapter.

We've also incorporated a number of other learning aids in the body of the text:

- Important terms are indicated in **bold**; important terms that we assume are already familiar to the reader are indicated in *bold italics*. Each term appears in the chapter's Defined Terms section.
- Throughout the book, we highlight parts of the text to call attention to important aspects of the language, warn about common pitfalls, suggest good programming practices, and provide general usage tips. We hope that these notes will help readers more quickly digest important concepts and avoid common pitfalls.

- To make it easier to follow the relationships among features and concepts, we provide extensive forward and backward cross-references.
- We have provided sidebar discussions that focus on important concepts and supply additional explanations for topics that programmers new to C++ often find most difficult.
- Learning any programming language requires writing programs. To that end, the primer provides extensive examples throughout the text. Source code for the extended examples is available on the Web at the following URL:

```
http://www.awprofessional.com/cpp_primer
```

What hasn't changed from earlier versions is that the book remains a comprehensive tutorial introduction to C++. Our intent is to provide a clear, complete and correct guide to the language. We teach the language by presenting a series of examples, which, in addition to explaining language features, show how to make the best use of C++. Although knowledge of C (the language on which C++ was originally based) is not assumed, we do assume the reader has programmed in a modern block-structured language.

Structure of This Book

C++ *Primer* provides an introduction to the International Standard on C++, covering both the language proper and the extensive library that is part of that standard. Much of the power of C++ comes from its support for programming with abstractions. Learning to program effectively in C++ requires more than learning new syntax and semantics. Our focus is on how to use the features of C++ to write programs that are safe, that can be built quickly, and yet offer performance comparable to the sorts of low-level programs often written in C.

C++ is a large language and can be daunting to new users. Modern C++ can be thought of as comprising three parts:

- The low-level language, largely inherited from C
- More advanced language features that allow us to define our own data types and to organize large-scale programs and systems
- The standard library, which uses these advanced features to provide a set of useful data structures and algorithms

Most texts present C++ in this same order: They start by covering the low-level details and then introduce the the more advanced language features. They explain the standard library only after having covered the entire language. The result, all too often, is that readers get bogged down in issues of low-level programming or the complexities of writing type definitions and never really understand the power of programming in a more abstract way. Needless to say, readers also often do not learn enough to build their own abstractions.

In this edition we take a completely different tack. We start by covering the basics of the language and the library together. Doing so allows you, the reader, to

write significant programs. Only after a thorough grounding in using the library and writing the kinds of abstract programs that the libary allows—do we move on to those features of C++ that will enable you to write your own abstractions.

Parts I and II cover the basic language and library facilities. The focus of these parts is to learn how to write C++ programs and how to use the abstractions from the library. Most C++ programmers need to know essentially everything covered in this portion of the book.

In addition to teaching the basics of C++, the material in Parts I and II serves another important purpose. The library facilities are themselves abstract data types written in C++. The library can be defined using the same class-construction features that are available to any C++ programmer. Our experience in teaching C++ is that by first using well-designed abstract types, readers find it easier to understand how to build their own types.

Parts III through V focus on how we can write our own types. Part III introduces the heart of C++: its support for classes. The class mechanism provides the basis for writing our own abstractions. Classes are also the foundation for object-oriented and generic programming, which we cover in Part IV. The *Primer* concludes with Part V, which covers advanced features that are of most use in structuring large, complex systems.

Acknowledgments

As in previous editions of this *Primer*, we'd like to extend our thanks to Bjarne Stroustrup for his tireless work on C++ and for his friendship to these authors throughout most of that time. We'd also like to thank Alex Stepanov for his original insights that led to the containers and algorithms that form the core of the standard library. Finally, our thanks go to the C++ Standards committee members for their hard work in clarifying, refining, and improving C++ over many years.

We also extend our deep-felt thanks to our reviewers, whose helpful comments on multiple drafts led us to make improvements great and small throughout the book: Paul Abrahams, Michael Ball, Mary Dageforde, Paul DuBois, Matt Greenwood, Matthew P. Johnson, Andrew Koenig, Nevin Liber, Bill Locke, Robert Murray, Phil Romanik, Justin Shaw, Victor Shtern, Clovis Tondo, Daveed Vandevoorde, and Steve Vinoski.

This book was typeset using LATEX and the many packages that accompany the LATEX distribution. Our well-justified thanks go to the members of the LATEX community, who have made available such powerful typesetting tools.

The examples in this book have been compiled on the GNU and Microsoft compilers. Our thanks to their developers, and to those who have developed all the other C++ compilers, thereby making C++ a reality.

Finally, we thank the fine folks at Addison-Wesley who have shepherded this edition through the publishing process: Debbie Lafferty, our original editor, who initiated this edition and who had been with the *Primer* from its very first edition; Peter Gordon, our new editor, whose insistence on updating and streamlining the text have, we hope, greatly improved the presentation; Kim Boedigheimer, who keeps us all on schedule; and Tyrrell Albaugh, Jim Markham, Elizabeth Ryan, and John Fuller, who saw us through the design and production process.

CHAPTER L

GETTING STARTED

CONTENTS

Section 1.1	Writing a Simple C++ Program	2
Section 1.2	A First Look at Input/Output	5
Section 1.3	A Word About Comments	0
Section 1.4	Control Structures 1	1
Section 1.5	Introducing Classes	20
Section 1.6	The C++ Program	25
Chapter Sun	nmary	8
Defined Terr	ms2	8

This chapter introduces most of the basic elements of C++: built-in, library, and class types; variables; expressions; statements; and functions. Along the way, we'll briefly explain how to compile and execute a program.

Having read this chapter and worked through the exercises, the reader should be able to write, compile, and execute simple programs. Subsequent chapters will explain in more detail the topics introduced here. *Learning a new* programming language requires writing programs. In this chapter, we'll write a program to solve a simple problem that represents a common data-processing task: A bookstore keeps a file of transactions, each of which records the sale of a given book. Each transaction contains an ISBN (International Standard Book Number, a unique identifier assigned to most books published throughout the world), the number of copies sold, and the price at which each copy was sold. Each transaction looks like

0-201-70353-X 4 24.99

where the first element is the ISBN, the second is the number of books sold, and the last is the sales price. Periodically the bookstore owner reads this file and computes the number of copies of each title sold, the total revenue from that book, and the average sales price. We want to supply a program do these computations.

Before we can write this program we need to know some basic features of C++. At a minimum we'll need to know how to write, compile, and execute a simple program. What must this program do? Although we have not yet designed our solution, we know that the program must

- Define variables
- Do input and output
- Define a data structure to hold the data we're managing
- Test whether two records have the same ISBN
- Write a loop that will process every record in the transaction file

We'll start by reviewing these parts of C++ and then write a solution to our bookstore problem.

1.1 Writing a Simple C++ Program

Every C++ program contains one or more *functions*, one of which must be named **main**. A function consists of a sequence of *statements* that perform the work of the function. The operating system executes a program by calling the function named main. That function executes its constituent statements and returns a value to the operating system.

Here is a simple version of main does nothing but return a value:

```
int main()
{
    return 0;
}
```

The operating system uses the value returned by main to determine whether the program succeeded or failed. A return value of 0 indicates success.

The main function is special in various ways, the most important of which are that the function must exist in every C++ program and it is the (only) function that the operating system explicitly calls.

We define main the same way we define other functions. A function definition specifies four elements: the *return type*, the *function name*, a (possibly empty) *parameter list* enclosed in parentheses, and the *function body*. The main function may have only a restricted set of parameters. As defined here, the parameter list is empty; Section 7.2.6 (p. 243) will cover the other parameters that can be defined for main.

The main function is required to have a return type of int, which is the type that represents integers. The int type is a **built-in type**, which means that the type is defined by the language.

The final part of a function definition, the function body, is a *block* of statements starting with an open **curly brace** and ending with a close curly:

```
{
return 0;
}
```

The only statement in our program is a return, which is a statement that terminates a function.



Note the semicolon at the end of the return statement. Semicolons mark the end of most statements in C++. They are easy to overlook, but when forgotten can lead to mysterious compiler error messages.

When the return includes a value such as 0, that value is the return value of the function. The value returned must have the same type as the return type of the function or be a type that can be converted to that type. In the case of main the return type must be int, and the value 0 is an int.

On most systems, the return value from main is a status indicator. A return value of 0 indicates the successful completion of main. Any other return value has a meaning that is defined by the operating system. Usually a nonzero return indicates that an error occurred. Each operating system has its own way of telling the user what main returned.

1.1.1 Compiling and Executing Our Program

Having written the program, we need to compile it. How you compile a program depends on your operating system and compiler. For details on how your particular compiler works, you'll need to check the reference manual or ask a knowledgeable colleague.

Many PC-based compilers are run from an integrated development environment (IDE) that bundles the compiler with associated build and analysis tools. These environments can be a great asset in developing complex programs but require a fair bit of time to learn how to use effectively. Most of these environments include a point-and-click interface that allows the programmer to write a program and use various menus to compile and execute the program. Learning how to use such environments is well beyond the scope of this book.

Most compilers, including those that come with an IDE, provide a commandline interface. Unless you are already familiar with using your compiler's IDE, it can be easier to start by using the simpler, command-line interface. Using the command-line interface lets you avoid the overhead of learning the IDE before learning the language.

Program Source File Naming Convention

Whether we are using a command-line interface or an IDE, most compilers expect that the program we want to compile will be stored in a file. Program files are referred to as **source files**. On most systems, a source file has a name that consists of two parts: a file name—for example, prog1—and a file suffix. By convention, the suffix indicates that the file is a program. The suffix often also indicates what language the program is written in and selects which compiler to run. The system that we used to compile the examples in this book treats a file with a suffix of .cc as a C++ program and so we stored this program as

progl.cc

The suffix for C++ program files depends on which compiler you're running. Other conventions include

progl.cxx
progl.cpp
progl.cp
progl.C

INVOKING THE GNU OR MICROSOFT COMPILERS

The command used to invoke the C++ compiler varies across compilers and operating systems. The most common compilers are the GNU compiler and the Microsoft Visual Studio compilers. By default the command to invoke the GNU compiler is g++:

\$ g++ progl.cc -o progl

where \$ is the system prompt. This command generates an executable file named progl or progl.exe, depending on the operating system. On UNIX, executable files have no suffix; on Windows, the suffix is .exe. The -o progl is an argument to the compiler and names the file in which to put the executable file. If the -o progl is omitted, then the compiler generates an executable named a.out on UNIX systems and a.exe on Windows.

The Microsoft compilers are invoked using the command cl:

C:\directory> cl -GX prog1.cpp

where C:directory> is the system prompt and directory is the name of the current directory. The command to invoke the compiler is cl, and -GX is an option that is required for programs compiled using the command-line interface. The Microsoft compiler automatically generates an executable with a name that corresponds to the source file name. The executable has the suffix .exe and the same name as the source file name. In this case, the executable is named progl.exe.

For further information consult your compiler's user's guide.

Running the Compiler from the Command Line

If we are using a command-line interface, we will typically compile a program in a console window (such as a shell window on a UNIX system or a Command Prompt window on Windows). Assuming that our main program is in a file named progl.cc, we might compile it by using a command such as:

\$ CC progl.cc

where CC names the compiler and \$ represents the system prompt. The output of the compiler is an executable file that we invoke by naming it. On our system, the compiler generates the executable in a file named a.exe. UNIX compilers tend to put their executables in a file named a.out. To run an executable we supply that name at the command-line prompt:

\$ a.exe

executes the program we compiled. On UNIX systems you sometimes must also specify which directory the file is in, even if it is in the current directory. In such cases, we would write

\$./a.exe

The "." followed by a slash indicates that the file is in the current directory.

The value returned from main is accessed in a system-dependent manner. On both UNIX and Windows systems, after executing the program, you must issue an appropriate echo command. On UNIX systems, we obtain the status by writing

\$ echo \$?

To see the status on a Windows system, we write

```
C:\directory> echo %ERRORLEVEL%
```

EXERCISES SECTION 1.1.1

Exercise 1.1: Review the documentation for your compiler and determine what file naming convention it uses. Compile and run the main program from page 2.

Exercise 1.2: Change the program to return -1. A return value of -1 is often treated as an indicator that the program failed. However, systems vary as to how (or even whether) they report a failure from main. Recompile and rerun your program to see how your system treats a failure indicator from main.

1.2 A First Look at Input/Output

C++ does not directly define any statements to do input or output (IO). Instead, IO is provided by the **standard library**. The IO library provides an extensive set of

facilities. However, for many purposes, including the examples in this book, one needs to know only a few basic concepts and operations.

Most of the examples in this book use the **iostream library**, which handles formatted input and output. Fundamental to the iostream library are two types named **istream** and **ostream**, which represent input and output streams, respectively. A stream is a sequence of characters intended to be read from or written to an IO device of some kind. The term "stream" is intended to suggest that the characters are generated, or consumed, sequentially over time.

1.2.1 Standard Input and Output Objects

The library defines four IO objects. To handle input, we use an object of type istream named **cin** (pronounced "see-in"). This object is also referred to as the **standard input**. For output, we use an ostream object named **cout** (pronounced "see-out"). It is often referred to as the **standard output**. The library also defines two other ostream objects, named **cerr** and **clog** (pronounced "see-err" and "see-log," respectively). The cerr object, referred to as the **standard error**, is typically used to generate warning and error messages to users of our programs. The clog object is used for general information about the execution of the program.

Ordinarily, the system associates each of these objects with the window in which the program is executed. So, when we read from cin, data is read from the window in which the program is executing, and when we write to cout, cerr, or clog, the output is written to the same window. Most operating systems give us a way of redirecting the input or output streams when we run a program. Using redirection we can associate these streams with files of our choosing.

1.2.2 A Program that Uses the IO Library

So far, we have seen how to compile and execute a simple program, although that program did no work. In our overall problem, we'll have several records that refer to the same ISBN. We'll need to consolidate those records into a single total, implying that we'll need to know how to add the quantities of books sold.

To see how to solve part of that problem, let's start by looking at how we might add two numbers. Using the IO library, we can extend our main program to ask the user to give us two numbers and then print their sum:

This program starts by printing

Enter two numbers:

on the user's screen and then waits for input from the user. If the user enters

37

followed by a newline, then the program produces the following output:

The sum of 3 and 7 is 10

The first line of our program is a **preprocessor directive**:

#include <iostream>

which tells the compiler that we want to use the iostream library. The name inside angle brackets is a **header**. Every program that uses a library facility must include its associated header. The #include directive must be written on a single line—the name of the header and the #include must appear on the same line. In general, #include directives should appear outside any function. Typically, all the #include directives for a program appear at the beginning of the file.

Writing to a Stream

The first statement in the body of main executes an **expression**. In C++ an expression is composed of one or more operands and (usually) an operator. The expressions in this statement use the **output operator** (the << operator) to print the prompt on the standard output:

std::cout << "Enter two numbers:" << std::endl;</pre>

This statement uses the output operator twice. Each instance of the output operator takes two operands: The left-hand operand must be an ostream object; the right-hand operand is a value to print. The operator writes its right-hand operand to the ostream that is its left-hand operand.

In C++ every expression produces a result, which typically is the value generated by applying an operator to its operands. In the case of the output operator, the result is the value of its left-hand operand. That is, the value returned by an output operation is the output stream itself.

The fact that the operator returns its left-hand operand allows us to chain together output requests. The statement that prints our prompt is equivalent to

(std::cout << "Enter two numbers:") << std::endl;</pre>

Because (std::cout << "Enter two numbers:") returns its left operand, std::cout, this statement is equivalent to

std::cout << "Enter two numbers:"; std::cout << std::endl;</pre> endl is a special value, called a **manipulator**, that when written to an output stream has the effect of writing a newline to the output and flushing the *buffer* associated with that device. By flushing the buffer, we ensure that the user will see the output written to the stream immediately.



Programmers often insert print statements during debugging. Such statements should always flush the stream. Forgetting to do so may cause output to be left in the buffer if the program crashes, leading to incorrect inferences about where the program crashed.

Using Names from the Standard Library

Careful readers will note that this program uses std::cout and std::endl rather than just cout and endl. The prefix std:: indicates that the names cout and endl are defined inside the **namespace** named **std**. Namespaces allow programmers to avoid inadvertent collisions with the same names defined by a library. Because the names that the standard library defines are defined in a namespace, we can use the same names for our own purposes.

One side effect of the library's use of a namespace is that when we use a name from the library, we must say explicitly that we want to use the name from the std namespace. Writing std::cout uses the **scope operator** (the :: operator) to say that we want to use the name cout that is defined in the namespace std. We'll see in Section 3.1 (p. 78) a way that programs often use to avoid this verbose syntax.

Reading From a Stream

Having written our prompt, we next want to read what the user writes. We start by defining two *variables* named v1 and v2 to hold the input:

```
int v1, v2;
```

We define these variables as type int, which is the built-in type representing integral values. These variables are *uninitialized*, meaning that we gave them no initial value. Our first use of these variables will be to read a value into them, so the fact that they have no initial value is okay.

The next statement

std::cin >> v1 >> v2;

reads the input. The **input operator** (the >> operator) behaves analogously to the output operator. It takes an istream as its left-hand operand and an object as its right-hand operand. It reads from its istream operand and stores the value it read in its right-hand operand. Like the output operator, the input operator returns its left-hand operand as its result. Because the operator returns its left-hand operand, we can combine a sequence of input requests into a single statement. In other words, this input operation is equivalent to

std::cin >> v1; std::cin >> v2; The effect of our input operation is to read two values from the standard input, storing the first in v1 and the second in v2.

Completing the Program

What remains is to print our result:

This statement, although it is longer than the statement that printed the prompt, is conceptually no different. It prints each of its operands to the standard output. What is interesting is that the operands are not all the same kinds of values. Some operands are **string literals**, such as

"The sum of "

and others are various int values, such as v1, v2, and the result of evaluating the arithmetic expression:

v1 + v2

The iostream library defines versions of the input and output operators that accept all of the built-in types.



When writing a C++ program, in most places that a space appears we could instead use a newline. One exception to this rule is that spaces inside a string literal cannot be replaced by a newline. Another exception is that spaces are not allowed inside preprocessor directives.

KEY CONCEPT: INITIALIZED AND UNINITIALIZED VARIABLES

Initialization is an important concept in C++ and one to which we will return throughout this book.

Initialized variables are those that are given a value when they are defined. Uninitialized variables are not given an initial value:

```
int val1 = 0; // initialized
int val2; // uninitialized
```

It is almost always right to give a variable an initial value, but we are not required to do so. When we are certain that the first use of a variable gives it a new value, then there is no need to invent an initial value. For example, our first nontrivial program on page 6 defined uninitialized variables into which we immediately read values.

When we define a variable, we should give it an initial value unless we are *certain* that the initial value will be overwritten before the variable is used for any other purpose. If we cannot guarantee that the variable will be reset before being read, we should initialize it.

EXERCISES SECTION 1.2.2

Exercise 1.3: Write a program to print "Hello, World" on the standard output.

Exercise 1.4: Our program used the built-in addition operator, +, to generate the sum of two numbers. Write a program that uses the multiplication operator, *, to generate the product of two numbers.

Exercise 1.5: We wrote the output in one large statement. Rewrite the program to use a separate statement to print each operand.

Exercise 1.6: Explain what the following program fragment does:

Is this code legal? If so, why? If not, why not?

1.3 A Word About Comments

Before our programs get much more complicated, we should see how C++ handles *comments*. Comments help the human readers of our programs. They are typically used to summarize an algorithm, identify the purpose of a variable, or clarify an otherwise obscure segment of code. Comments do not increase the size of the executable program. The compiler ignores all comments.



In this book, we italicize comments to make them stand out from the normal program text. In actual programs, whether comment text is distinguished from the text used for program code depends on the sophistication of the programming environment.

There are two kinds of comments in C++: single-line and paired. A single-line comment starts with a double slash (//). Everything to the right of the slashes on the current line is a comment and ignored by the compiler.

The other delimiter, the comment pair (/**/), is inherited from the C language. Such comments begin with a /* and end with the next */. The compiler treats everything that falls between the /* and */ as part of the comment:

```
#include <iostream>
/* Simple main function: Read two numbers and write their sum */
int main()
{
    // prompt user to enter two numbers
    std::cout << "Enter two numbers:" << std::endl;
    int v1, v2; // uninitialized
    std::cin >> v1 >> v2; // read input
    return 0;
}
```

A comment pair can be placed anywhere a tab, space, or newline is permitted. Comment pairs can span multiple lines of a program but are not required to do so. When a comment pair does span multiple lines, it is often a good idea to indicate visually that the inner lines are part of a multi-line comment. Our style is to begin each line in the comment with an asterisk, thus indicating that the entire range is part of a multi-line comment.

Programs typically contain a mixture of both comment forms. Comment pairs generally are used for multi-line explanations, whereas double slash comments tend to be used for half-line and single-line remarks.

Too many comments intermixed with the program code can obscure the code. It is usually best to place a comment block above the code it explains.

Comments should be kept up to date as the code itself changes. Programmers expect comments to remain accurate and so believe them, even when other forms of system documentation are known to be out of date. An incorrect comment is worse than no comment at all because it may mislead a subsequent reader.

Comment Pairs Do Not Nest

A comment that begins with /* always ends with the next */. As a result, one comment pair cannot occur within another. The compiler error message(s) that result from this kind of program mistake can be mysterious and confusing. As an example, compile the following program on your system:

```
#include <iostream>
/*
 * comment pairs /* */ cannot nest.
 * ''cannot nest'' is considered source code,
 * as is the rest of the program
 */
int main()
{
 return 0;
}
```

When commenting out a large section of a program, it can seem easiest to put a comment pair around a region that you want to omit temporarily. The trouble is that if that code already has a comment pair, then the newly inserted comment will terminate prematurely. A better way to temporarily ignore a section of code is to use your editor to insert single-line comment at the beginning of each line of code you want to ignore. That way, you need not worry about whether the code you are commenting out already contains a comment pair.

1.4 Control Structures

Statements execute sequentially: The first statement in a function is executed first, followed by the second, and so on. Of course, few programs—including the one we'll need to write to solve our bookstore problem—can be written using only sequential execution. Instead, programming languages provide various control

EXERCISES SECTION 1.3

Exercise 1.7: Compile a program that has incorrectly nested comments.

Exercise 1.8: Indicate which, if any, of the following output statements, are legal.

```
std::cout << "/*";
std::cout << "*/";
std::cout << /* "*/" */;</pre>
```

After you've predicted what will happen, test your answer by compiling a program with these three statements. Correct any errors you encounter.

structures that allow for more complicated execution paths. This section will take a brief look at some of the control structures provided by C++. Chapter 6 covers statements in detail.

1.4.1 The while Statement

A **while statement** provides for iterative execution. We could use a while to write a program to sum the numbers from 1 through 10 inclusive as follows:

```
#include <iostream>
int main()
{
    int sum = 0, val = 1;
    // keep executing the while until val is greater than 10
    while (val <= 10) {
        sum += val; // assigns sum + val to sum
        ++val; // add 1 to val
    }
    std::cout << "Sum of 1 to 10 inclusive is "
            << sum << std::endl;
    return 0;
}</pre>
```

This program when compiled and executed will print:

Sum of 1 to 10 inclusive is 55

As before, we begin by including the iostream header and define a main function. Inside main we define two int variables: sum, which will hold our summation, and val, which will represent each of the values from 1 through 10. We give sum an initial value of zero and start val off with the value one.

The important part is the while statement. A while has the form

while (condition) while body statement;

A while executes by (repeatedly) testing the *condition* and executing the associated *while_body_statement* until the *condition* is false.

A **condition** is an expression that is evaluated so that its result can be tested. If the resulting value is nonzero, then the condition is true; if the value is zero then the condition is false.

If the *condition* is true (the expression evaluates to a value other than zero) then *while_body_statement* is executed. After executing *while_body_statement*, the *condition* is tested again. If *condition* remains true, then the *while_body_statement* is again executed. The while continues, alternatively testing the *condition* and executing *while_body_statement* until the *condition* is false.

In this program, the while statement is:

```
// keep executing the while until val is greater than 10
while (val <= 10) {
    sum += val; // assigns sum + val to sum
    ++val; // add 1 to val
}</pre>
```

The condition in the while uses the **less-than-or-equal operator** (the <= operator) to compare the current value of val and 10. As long as val is less than or equal to 10, we execute the body of the while. In this case, the body of the while is a **block** containing two statements:

```
{
    sum += val; // assigns sum + val to sum
    ++val; // add 1 to val
}
```

A block is a sequence of statements enclosed by curly braces. In C++, a block may be used wherever a statement is expected. The first statement in the block uses the **compound assignment operator**, (the += operator). This operator adds its righthand operand to its left-hand operand. It has the same effect as writing an addition and an **assignment**:

```
sum = sum + val; // assign sum + val to sum
```

Thus, the first statement adds the value of val to the current value of sum and stores the result back into sum.

The next statement

```
++val; // add 1 to val
```

uses the **prefix increment operator** (the ++ operator). The increment operator adds one to its operand. Writing ++ val is the same as writing val = val + 1.

After executing the while body we again execute the condition in the while. If the (now incremented) value of val is still less than or equal to 10, then the body of the while is executed again. The loop continues, testing the condition and executing the body, until val is no longer less than or equal to 10.

Once val is greater than 10, we fall out of the while loop and execute the statement following the while. In this case, that statement prints our output, followed by the return, which completes our main program.

KEY CONCEPT: INDENTATION AND FORMATTING OF C++ PROGRAMS

C++ programs are largely free-format, meaning that the positioning of curly braces, indentation, comments, and newlines usually has no effect on the meaning of our programs. For example, the curly brace that denotes the beginning of the body of main could be on the same line as main, positioned as we have done, at the beginning of the next line, or placed anywhere we'd like. The only requirement is that it be the first nonblank, noncomment character that the compiler sees after the close parenthesis that concludes main's parameter list.

Although we are largely free to format programs as we wish, the choices we make affect the readability of our programs. We could, for example, have written main on a single, long line. Such a definition, although legal, would be hard to read.

Endless debates occur as to the right way to format C or C++ programs. Our belief is that there is no single correct style but that there is value in consistency. We tend to put the curly braces that delimit functions on their own lines. We tend to indent compound input or output expressions so that the operators line up, as we did with the statement that wrote the output in the main function on page 6. Other indentation conventions will become clear as our programs become more complex.

The important thing to keep in mind is that other ways to format programs are possible. When choosing a formatting style, think about how it affects readability and comprehension. Once you've chosen a style, use it consistently.

1.4.2 The for Statement

In our while loop, we used the variable val to control how many times we iterated through the loop. On each pass through the while, the value of val was tested and then in the body the value of val was incremented.

The use of a variable like val to control a loop happens so often that the language defines a second control structure, called a **for statement**, that abbreviates the code that manages the loop variable. We could rewrite the program to sum the numbers from 1 through 10 using a for loop as follows:

Prior to the for loop, we define sum, which we set to zero. The variable val is used only inside the iteration and is defined as part of the for statement itself. The for statement

```
for (int val = 1; val <= 10; ++val)
    sum += val; // equivalent to sum = sum + val</pre>
```

has two parts: the for header and the for body. The header controls how often the body is executed. The header itself consists of three parts: an *init-statement*, a *condition*, and an *expression*. In this case, the *init-statement*

int val = 1;

defines an int object named val and gives it an initial value of one. The *init-statement* is performed only once, on entry to the for. The *condition*

val <= 10

which compares the current value in val to 10, is tested each time through the loop. As long as val is less than or equal to 10, we execute the for body. Only after executing the body is the *expression* executed. In this for, the expression uses the prefix increment operator, which as we know adds one to the value of val. After executing the *expression*, the for retests the *condition*. If the new value of val is still less than or equal to 10, then the for loop body is executed and val is incremented again. Execution continues until the *condition* fails.

In this loop, the for body performs the summation

sum += val; // equivalent to sum = sum + val

The body uses the compound assignment operator to add the current value of val to sum, storing the result back into sum.

To recap, the overall execution flow of this for is:

- 1. Create val and initialize it to 1.
- 2. Test whether val is less than or equal to 10.
- 3. If val is less than or equal to 10, execute the for body, which adds val to sum. If val is not less than or equal to 10, then break out of the loop and continue execution with the first statement following the for body.
- 4. Increment val.
- 5. Repeat the test in step 2, continuing with the remaining steps as long as the condition is true.



When we exit the for loop, the variable val is no longer accessible. It is not possible to use val after this loop terminates. However, not all compilers enforce this requirement.

In pre-Standard C++ names defined in a for header *were* accessible outside the for itself. This change in the language definition can surprise people accustomed to using an older compiler when they instead use a compiler that adheres to the standard.

COMPILATION REVISITED

Part of the compiler's job is to look for errors in the program text. A compiler cannot detect whether the meaning of a program is correct, but it can detect errors in the *form* of the program. The following are the most common kinds of errors a compiler will detect.

1. Syntax errors. The programmer has made a grammatical error in the C++ language. The following program illustrates common syntax errors; each comment describes the error on the following line:

- 2. Type errors. Each item of data in C++ has an associated type. The value 10, for example, is an integer. The word "hello" surrounded by double quotation marks is a string literal. One example of a type error is passing a string literal to a function that expects an integer argument.
- 3. Declaration errors. Every name used in a C++ program must be declared before it is used. Failure to declare a name usually results in an error message. The two most common declaration errors are to forget to use std:: when accessing a name from the library or to inadvertently misspell the name of an identifier:

```
#include <iostream>
int main()
{
    int v1, v2;
    std::cin >> v >> v2; // error:uses "v" not "v1"
    // cout not defined, should be std::cout
    cout << v1 + v2 << std::endl;
    return 0;
}</pre>
```

An error message contains a line number and a brief description of what the compiler believes we have done wrong. It is a good practice to correct errors in the sequence they are reported. Often a single error can have a cascading effect and cause a compiler to report more errors than actually are present. It is also a good idea to recompile the code after each fix—or after making at most a small number of obvious fixes. This cycle is known as *edit-compile-debug*.

EXERCISES SECTION 1.4.2

Exercise 1.9: What does the following for loop do? What is the final value of sum?

```
int sum = 0;
for (int i = -100; i <= 100; ++i)
    sum += i;
```

Exercise 1.10: Write a program that uses a for loop to sum the numbers from 50 to 100. Now rewrite the program using a while.

Exercise 1.11: Write a program using a while loop to print the numbers from 10 down to 0. Now rewrite the program using a for.

Exercise 1.12: Compare and contrast the loops you wrote in the previous two exercises. Are there advantages or disadvantages to using either form?

Exercise 1.13: Compilers vary as to how easy it is to understand their diagnostics. Write programs that contain the common errors discussed in the box on 16. Study the messages the compiler generates so that these messages will be familiar when you encounter them while compiling more complex programs.

1.4.3 The if Statement

A logical extension of summing the values between 1 and 10 is to sum the values between two numbers our user supplies. We might use the numbers directly in our for loop, using the first input as the lower bound for the range and the second as the upper bound. However, if the user gives us the higher number first, that strategy would fail: Our program would exit the for loop immediately. Instead, we should adjust the range so that the larger number is the upper bound and the smaller is the lower. To do so, we need a way to see which number is larger.

Like most languages, C++ provides an **if statement** that supports conditional execution. We can use an **if** to write our revised sum program:

```
#include <iostream>
int main()
{
    std::cout << "Enter two numbers:" << std::endl;</pre>
    int v1, v2;
    std::cin >> v1 >> v2; // read input
    // use smaller number as lower bound for summation
    // and larger number as upper bound
    int lower, upper;
    if (v1 <= v2) {
         lower = v1;
        upper = v2;
    } else {
         lower = v2;
         upper = v1;
    }
```

If we compile and execute this program and give it as input the numbers 7 and 3, then the output of our program will be

Sum of 3 to 7 inclusive is 25

Most of the code in this program should already be familiar from our earlier examples. The program starts by writing a prompt to the user and defines four int variables. It then reads from the standard input into v1 and v2. The only new code is the if statement

```
// use smaller number as lower bound for summation
// and larger number as upper bound
int lower, upper;
if (v1 <= v2) {
    lower = v1;
    upper = v2;
} else {
    lower = v2;
    upper = v1;
}</pre>
```

The effect of this code is to set upper and lower appropriately. The if condition tests whether v1 is less than or equal to v2. If so, we perform the block that immediately follows the condition. This block contains two statements, each of which does an assignment. The first statement assigns v1 to lower and the second assigns v2 to upper.

If the condition is false—that is, if v1 is larger than v2—then we execute the statement following the else. Again, this statement is a block consisting of two assignments. We assign v2 to lower and v1 to upper.

1.4.4 Reading an Unknown Number of Inputs

Another change we might make to our summation program on page 12 would be to allow the user to specify a set of numbers to sum. In this case we can't know how many numbers we'll be asked to add. Instead, we want to keep reading numbers until the program reaches the end of the input. When the input is finished, the program writes the total to the standard output:

EXERCISES SECTION 1.4.3

Exercise 1.14: What happens in the program presented in this section if the input values are equal?

Exercise 1.15: Compile and run the program from this section with two equal values as input. Compare the output to what you predicted in the previous exercise. Explain any discrepancy between what happened and what you predicted.

Exercise 1.16: Write a program to print the larger of two inputs supplied by the user.

Exercise 1.17: Write a program to ask the user to enter a series of numbers. Print a message saying how many of the numbers are negative numbers.

```
#include <iostream>
int main()
{
    int sum = 0, value;
    // read till end-of-file, calculating a running total of all values read
    while (std::cin >> value)
        sum += value; // equivalent to sum = sum + value
    std::cout << "Sum is: " << sum << std::endl;
    return 0;
}</pre>
```

If we give this program the input

3 4 5 6

then our output will be

Sum is: 18

As usual, we begin by including the necessary headers. The first line inside main defines two int variables, named sum and value. We'll use value to hold each number we read, which we do inside the condition in the while:

while (std::cin >> value)

What happens here is that to evaluate the condition, the input operation

std::cin >> value

is executed, which has the effect of reading the next number from the standard input, storing what was read in value. The input operator (Section 1.2.2, p. 8) returns its left operand. The condition tests that result, meaning it tests std::cin.

When we use an istream as a condition, the effect is to test the state of the stream. If the stream is valid—that is, if it is still possible to read another input—then the test succeeds. An istream becomes invalid when we hit *end-of-file* or encounter an invalid input, such as reading a value that is not an integer. An istream that is in an invalid state will cause the condition to fail.

Until we do encounter end-of-file (or some other input error), the test will succeed and we'll execute the body of the while. That body is a single statement that uses the compound assignment operator. This operator adds its right-hand operand into the left hand operand.

ENTERING AN END-OF-FILE FROM THE KEYBOARD

Operating systems use different values for end-of-file. On Windows systems we enter an end-of-file by typing a control-z—simultaneously type the "ctrl" key and a "z." On UNIX systems, including Mac OS-X machines, it is usually control-d.

Once the test fails, the while terminates and we fall through and execute the statement following the while. That statement prints sum followed by endl, which prints a newline and flushes the buffer associated with cout. Finally, we execute the return, which as usual returns zero to indicate success.

EXERCISES SECTION 1.4.4

Exercise 1.18: Write a program that prompts the user for two numbers and writes each number in the range specified by the two numbers to the standard output.

Exercise 1.19: What happens if you give the numbers 1000 and 2000 to the program written for the previous exercise? Revise the program so that it never prints more than 10 numbers per line.

Exercise 1.20: Write a program to sum the numbers in a user-specified range, omitting the *if* test that sets the upper and lower bounds. Predict what happens if the input is the numbers 7 and 3, in that order. Now run the program giving it the numbers 7 and 3, and see if the results match your expectation. If not, restudy the discussion on the for and while loop until you understand what happened.

1.5 Introducing Classes

The only remaining feature we need to understand before solving our bookstore problem is how to write a *data structure* to represent our transaction data. In C++ we define our own data structure by defining a **class**. The class mechanism is one of the most important features in C++. In fact, a primary focus of the design of C++ is to make it possible to define **class types** that behave as naturally as the built-in types themselves. The library types that we've seen already, such as istream and ostream, are all defined as classes—that is, they are not strictly speaking part of the language.

Complete understanding of the class mechanism requires mastering a lot of information. Fortunately, it is possible to use a class that someone else has written without knowing how to define a class ourselves. In this section, we'll describe a simple class that we can use in solving our bookstore problem. We'll implement this class in the subsequent chapters as we learn more about types, expressions, statements, and functions—all of which are used in defining classes.

To use a class we need to know three things:

- 1. What is its name?
- 2. Where is it defined?
- 3. What operations does it support?

For our bookstore problem, we'll assume that the class is named Sales_item and that it is defined in a header named Sales_item.h.

1.5.1 The Sales item Class

The purpose of the Sales_item class is to store an ISBN and keep track of the number of copies sold, the revenue, and average sales price for that book. How these data are stored or computed is not our concern. To use a class, we need not know anything about how it is implemented. Instead, what we need to know is what operations the class provides.

As we've seen, when we use library facilities such as IO, we must include the associated headers. Similarly, for our own classes, we must make the definitions associated with the class available to the compiler. We do so in much the same way. Typically, we put the class definition into a file. Any program that wants to use our class must include that file.

Conventionally, class types are stored in a file with a name that, like the name of a program source file, has two parts: a file name and a file suffix. Usually the file name is the same as the class defined in the header. The suffix usually is .h, but some programmers use .H, .hpp, or .hxx. Compilers usually aren't picky about header file names, but IDEs sometimes are. We'll assume that our class is defined in a file named Sales_item.h.

Operations on Sales_item Objects

Every class defines a type. The type name is the same as the name of the class. Hence, our Sales_item class defines a type named Sales_item. As with the built-in types, we can define a variable of a class type. When we write

Sales_item item;

we are saying that item is an object of type Sales_item. We often contract the phrase "an object of type Sales_item" to "a Sales_item object" or even more simply to "a Sales_item."

In addition to being able to define variables of type Sales_item, we can perform the following operations on Sales_item objects:

- Use the addition operator, +, to add two Sales_items
- Use the input operator, >>, to read a Sales_item object

- Use the output operator, <<, to write a Sales_item object
- Use the assignment operator, =, to assign one Sales_item object to another
- Call the same_isbn function to determine if two Sales_items refer to the same book

Reading and Writing Sales_items

Now that we know the operations that the class provides, we can write some simple programs to use this class. For example, the following program reads data from the standard input, uses that data to build a Sales_item object, and writes that Sales item object back onto the standard output:

```
#include <iostream>
#include "Sales_item.h"
int main()
{
    Sales_item book;
    // read ISBN, number of copies sold, and sales price
    std::cin >> book;
    // write ISBN, number of copies sold, total revenue, and average price
    std::cout << book << std::endl;
    return 0;
}</pre>
```

If the input to this program is

0-201-70353-X 4 24.99

then the output will be

0-201-70353-X 4 99.96 24.99

Our input said that we sold four copies of the book at \$24.99 each, and the output indicates that the total sold was four, the total revenue was \$99.96, and the average price per book was \$24.99.

This program starts with two #include directives, one of which uses a new form. The iostream header is defined by the standard library; the Sales_item header is not. Sales_item is a type that we ourselves have defined. When we use our own headers, we use quotation marks (" ") to surround the header name.



Headers for the standard library are enclosed in angle brackets (< >). Nonstandard headers are enclosed in double quotes (" ").

Inside main we start by defining an object, named book, which we'll use to hold the data that we read from the standard input. The next statement reads into that object, and the third statement prints it to the standard output followed as usual by printing endl to flush the buffer.

KEY CONCEPT: CLASSES DEFINE BEHAVIOR

As we go through these programs that use Sales_items, the important thing to keep in mind is that the author of the Sales_item class defined *all* the actions that can be performed by objects of this class. That is, the author of the Sales_item data structure defines what happens when a Sales_item object is created and what happens when the addition or the input and output operators are applied to Sales_item objects, and so on.

In general, only the operations defined by a class can be used on objects of the class type. For now, the only operations we know we can peeform on Sales_item objects are the ones listed on page 21.

We'll see how these operations are defined in Sections 7.7.3 and 14.2.

Adding Sales_items

A slightly more interesting example adds two Sales item objects:

```
#include <iostream>
#include "Sales_item.h"
int main()
{
    Sales_item item1, item2;
    std::cin >> item1 >> item2; // read a pair of transactions
    std::cout << item1 + item2 << std::end1; // print their sum
    return 0;
}</pre>
```

If we give this program the following input

```
0-201-78345-X 3 20.00
0-201-78345-X 2 25.00
```

our output is

0-201-78345-X 5 110 22

This program starts by including the Sales_item and iostream headers. Next we define two Sales_item objects to hold the two transactions that we wish to sum. The output expression does the addition and prints the result. We know from the list of operations on page 21 that adding two Sales_items together creates a new object whose ISBN is that of its operands and whose number sold and revenue reflect the sum of the corresponding values in its operands. We also know that the items we add must represent the same ISBN.

It's worth noting how similar this program looks to the one on page 6: We read two inputs and write their sum. What makes it interesting is that instead of reading and printing the sum of two integers, we're reading and printing the sum of two Sales_item objects. Moreover, the whole idea of "sum" is different. In the case of ints we are generating a conventional sum—the result of adding two numeric values. In the case of Sales_item objects we use a conceptually new meaning for sum—the result of adding the components of two Sales item objects.

EXERCISES SECTION 1.5.1

Exercise 1.21: The Web site (http://www.awprofessional.com/cpp_primer) contains a copy of Sales_item.h in the Chapter 1 code directory. Copy that file to your working directory. Write a program that loops through a set of book sales transactions, reading each transaction and writing that transaction to the standard output.

Exercise 1.22: Write a program that reads two Sales_item objects that have the same ISBN and produces their sum.

Exercise 1.23: Write a program that reads several transactions for the same ISBN. Write the sum of all the transactions that were read.

1.5.2 A First Look at Member Functions

Unfortunately, there is a problem with the program that adds Sales_items. What should happen if the input referred to two different ISBNs? It doesn't make sense to add the data for two different ISBNs together. To solve this problem, we'll first check whether the Sales_item operands refer to the same ISBNs:

The difference between this program and the previous one is the if test and its associated else branch. Before explaining the if condition, we know that what this program does depends on the condition in the if. If the test succeeds, then we write the same output as the previous program and return 0 indicating success. If the test fails, we execute the block following the else, which prints a message and returns an error indicator.

What Is a Member Function?

The if condition

- // first check that item1 and item2 represent the same book
- if (item1.same_isbn(item2)) {

calls a **member function** of the Sales_item object named item1. A member function is a function that is defined by a class. Member functions are sometimes referred to as the **methods** of the class.

Member functions are defined once for the class but are treated as members of each object. We refer to these operations as member functions because they (usually) operate on a specific object. In this sense, they are members of the object, even though a single definition is shared by all objects of the same type.

When we call a member function, we (usually) specify the object on which the function will operate. This syntax uses the **dot operator** (the "." operator):

```
item1.same_isbn
```

Note

means "the same_isbn member of the object named item1." The dot operator fetches its right-hand operand from its left. The dot operator applies only to objects of class type: The left-hand operand must be an object of class type; the right-hand operand must name a member of that type.

Unlike most other operators, the right operand of the dot (" . ") operator is not an object or value; it is the name of a member.

When we use a member function as the right-hand operand of the dot operator, we usually do so to call that function. We execute a member function in much the same way as we do any function: To call a function, we follow the function name by the **call operator** (the "()" operator). The call operator is a pair of parentheses that encloses a (possibly empty) list of *arguments* that we pass to the function.

The same_isbn function takes a single argument, and that argument is another Sales_item object. The call

```
item1.same_isbn(item2)
```

passes item2 as an argument to the function named same_isbn that is a member of the object named item1. This function compares the ISBN part of its argument, item2, to the ISBN in item1, the object on which same_isbn is called. Thus, the effect is to test whether the two objects refer to the same ISBN.

If the objects refer to the same ISBN, we execute the statement following the if, which prints the result of adding the two Sales_item objects together. Otherwise, if they refer to different ISBNs, we execute the else branch, which is a block of statements. The block prints an appropriate error message and exits the program, returning -1. Recall that the return from main is treated as a status indicator. In this case, we return a nonzero value to indicate that the program failed to produce the expected result.

1.6 The C++ Program

Now we are ready to solve our original bookstore problem: We need to read a file of sales transactions and produce a report that shows for each book the total revenue, average sales price, and the number of copies sold.

EXERCISES SECTION 1.5.2

Exercise 1.24: Write a program that reads several transactions. For each new transaction that you read, determine if it is the same ISBN as the previous transaction, keeping a count of how many transactions there are for each ISBN. Test the program by giving multiple transactions. These transactions should represent multiple ISBNs but the records for each ISBN should be grouped together.

We'll assume that all of the transactions for a given ISBN appear together. Our program will combine the data for each ISBN in a Sales_item object named total. Each transaction we read from the standard input will be stored in a second Sales_item object named trans. Each time we read a new transaction we'll compare it to the Sales_item object in total. If the objects refer to the same ISBN, we'll update total. Otherwise we'll print the value in total and reset it using the transaction we just read.

```
#include <iostream>
#include "Sales item.h"
int main()
    // declare variables to hold running sum and data for the next record
    Sales item total, trans;
     // is there data to process?
    if (std::cin >> total) {
         // if so, read the transaction records
         while (std::cin >> trans)
              if (total.same isbn(trans))
                   // match: update the running total
                   total = total + trans;
              else {
                   // no match: print & assign to total
                   std::cout << total << std::endl;</pre>
                   total = trans;
         // remember to print last record
         std::cout << total << std::endl;</pre>
     } else {
         // no input!, warn the user
         std::cout << "No data?!" << std::endl;</pre>
         return -1; // indicate failure
    return 0;
}
```

This program is the most complicated one we've seen so far, but it uses only facilities that we have already encountered. As usual, we begin by including the headers that we use: iostream from the library and Sales_item.h, which is our own header.

Inside main we define the objects we need: total, which we'll use to sum the data for a given ISBN, and trans, which will hold our transactions as we read them. We start by reading a transaction into total and testing whether the read was successful. If the read fails, then there are no records and we fall through to the outermost else branch, which prints a message to warn the user that there was no input.

Assuming we have successfully read a record, we execute the code in the if branch. The first statement is a while that will loop through all the remaining records. Just as we did in the program on page 18, our while condition reads a value from the standard input and then tests that valid data was actually read. In this case, we read a Sales_item object into trans. As long as the read succeeds, we execute the body of the while.

The body of the while is a single if statement. We test whether the ISBNs are equal, and if so we add the two objects and store the result in total. If the ISBNs are not equal, we print the value stored in total and reset total by assigning trans to it. After execution of the if, we return to the condition in the while, reading the next transaction and so on until we run out of records.

Once the while completes, we still must write the data associated with the last ISBN. When the while terminates, total contains the data for the last ISBN in the file, but we had no chance to print it. We do so in the last statement of the block that concludes the outermost if statement.

EXERCISES SECTION 1.6

Exercise 1.25: Using the Sales_item.h header from the Web site, compile and execute the bookstore program presented in this section.

Exercise 1.26: In the bookstore program we used the addition operator and not the compound assignment operator to add trans to total. Why didn't we use the compound assignment operator?

CHAPTER SUMMARY

This chapter introduced enough of C++ to let the reader compile and execute simple C++ programs. We saw how to define a main function, which is the function that is executed first in any C++ program. We also saw how to define variables, how to do input and output, and how to write if, for, and while statements. The chapter closed by introducing the most fundamental facility in C++: the class. In this chapter we saw how to create and use objects of a given class. Later chapters show how to define our own classes.

DEFINED TERMS

argument A value passed to a function when it is called.

block Sequence of statements enclosed in curly braces.

buffer A region of storage used to hold data. IO facilities often store input (or output) in a buffer and read or write the buffer independently of actions in the program. Output buffers usually must be explicitly flushed to force the buffer to be written. By default, reading cin flushes cout; cout is also flushed when the program ends normally.

built-in type A type, such as int, defined by the language.

cerr ostream object tied to the standard error, which is often the same stream as the standard output. By default, writes to cerr are not buffered. Usually used for error messages or other output that is not part of the normal logic of the program.

cin istream object used to read from the standard input.

class C++ mechanism for defining our own data structures. The class is one of the most fundamental features in C++. Library types, such as istream and ostream, are classes.

class type A type defined by a class. The name of the type is the class name.

clog ostream object tied to the standard error. By default, writes to clog are

buffered. Usually used to report information about program execution to a log file.

comments Program text that is ignored by the compiler. C++ has two kinds of comments: single-line and paired. Single-line comments start with a //. Everything from the // to the end of the line is a comment. Paired comments begin with a /* and include all text up to the next */.

condition An expression that is evaluated as true or false. An arithmetic expression that evaluates to zero is false; any other value yields true.

cout ostream object used to write to the standard output. Ordinarily used to write the output of a program.

curly brace Curly braces delimit blocks. An open curly ({) starts a block; a close curly (}) ends one.

data structure A logical grouping of data and operations on that data.

edit-compile-debug The process of getting a program to execute properly.

end-of-file System-specific marker in a file that indicates that there is no more input in the file.

expression The smallest unit of computation. An expression consists of one or more operands and usually an operator. Expressions are evaluated to produce a result. For example, assuming i and j are ints, then i + j is an arithmetic addition expression and yields the sum of the two int values. Expressions are covered in more detail in Chapter 5.

for statement Control statement that provides iterative execution. Often used to step through a data structure or to repeat a calculation a fixed number of times.

function A named unit of computation.

function body Statement block that defines the actions performed by a function.

function name Name by which a function is known and can be called.

header A mechanism whereby the definitions of a class or other names may be made available to multiple programs. A header is included in a program through a #include directive.

if statement Conditional execution based on the value of a specified condition. If the condition is true, the if body is executed. If not, control flows to the statement following the else if there is one or to the statement following the if if there is no else.

iostream library type providing streamoriented input and output.

istream Library type providing streamoriented input.

library type A type, such as istream, defined by the standard library.

main function Function called by the operating system when executing a C++ program. Each program must have one and only one function named main.

manipulator Object, such as std::endl, that when read or written "manipulates" the stream itself. Section A.3.1 (p. 825) covers manipulators in more detail.

member function Operation defined by a class. Member functions ordinarily are called to operate on a specific object.

method Synonym for member function.

namespace Mechanism for putting names defined by a library into a single place. Namespaces help avoid inadvertent name clashes. The names defined by the C++ library are in the namespace std.

ostream Library type providing streamoriented output.

parameter list Part of the definition of a function. Possibly empty list that specifies what arguments can be used to call the function.

preprocessor directive An instruction to the C++ preprocessor. #include is a preprocessor directive. Preprocessor directives must appear on a single line. We'll learn more about the preprocessor in Section 2.9.2.

return type Type of the value returned by a function.

source file Term used to describe a file that contains a C++ program.

standard error An output stream intended for use for error reporting. Ordinarily, on a windowing operating system, the standard output and the standard error are tied to the window in which the program is executed.

standard input The input stream that ordinarily is associated by the operating system with the window in which the program executes.

standard library Collection of types and functions that every C++ compiler must support. The library provides a rich set of capabilities including the types that support IO. C++ programmers tend to talk about "the library," meaning the entire standard library or about particular parts of the library by referring to a library type. For example, programmers also refer to the "iostream library," meaning the part of the standard library defined by the iostream classes. **standard output** The output stream that ordinarily is associated by the operating system with the window in which the program executes.

statement The smallest independent unit in a C++ program. It is analogous to a sentence in a natural language. Statements in C++ generally end in semicolons.

std Name of the namespace used by the standard library. std::cout indicates that we're using the name cout defined in the std namespace.

string literal Sequence of characters enclosed in double quotes.

uninitialized variable Variable that has no initial value specified. There are no uninitialized variables of class type. Variables of class type for which no initial value is specified are initialized as specified by the class definition. You must give a value to an uninitialized variable before attempting to use the variable's value. *Uninitialized variables can be a rich source of bugs*.

variable A named object.

while statement An iterative control statement that executes the statement that is the while body as long as a specified condition is true. The body is executed zero or more times, depending on the truth value of the condition.

() **operator** The call operator: A pair of parentheses "()" following a function name. The operator causes a function to be invoked. Arguments to the function may be passed inside the parentheses.

++ operator Increment operator. Adds one to the operand; **++**i is equivalent to i = i + 1.

+= operator A compound assignment operator. Adds right-hand operand to the left and stores the result back into the left-hand operand; a += b is equivalent to a = a + b.

. **operator** Dot operator. Takes two operands: the left-hand operand is an object and the right is the name of a member of that object. The operator fetches that member from the named object.

:: operator Scope operator. We'll see more about scope in Chapter 2. Among other uses, the scope operator is used to access names in a namespace. For example, std::cout says to use the name cout from the namespace std.

= operator Assigns the value of the righthand operand to the object denoted by the left-hand operand.

<< operator Output operator. Writes the right-hand operand to the output stream indicated by the left-hand operand: cout << "hi" writes hi to the standard output. Output operations can be chained together: cout << "hi << "bye" writes hibye.

>> **operator** Input operator. Reads from the input stream specified by the left-hand operand into the right-hand operand: cin >> i reads the next value on the standard input into i. Input operations can be chained together: cin >> i >> j reads first into i and then into j.

== operator The equality operator. Tests whether the left-hand operand is equal to the right-hand.

!= operator Assignment operator. Tests whether the left-hand operand is not equal to the right-hand.

<= **operator** The less-than-or-equal operator. Tests whether the left-hand operand is less than or equal to the right-hand.

< **operator** The less-than operator. Tests whether the left-hand operand is less than the right-hand.

>= **operator** Greater-than-or-equal operator. Tests whether the left-hand operand is greater than or equal to the right-hand.

> operator Greater-than operator. Tests whether the left-hand operand is greater than the right-hand.

Index

Bold face numbers refer to the page on which the term was first defined. Numbers in *italic* refer to the "Defined Terms" section in which the term is defined.

... (ellipsis parameter), 244 /* */ (block comment), 10, 28 // (single-line comment), 10, 28 ____DATE___, 221 __FILE__,221 __LINE__,221 __TIME__,221 cplusplus,803 $\0$ (null character), 40 \Xnnn (hexadecimal escape sequence), 40 n (newline character), 40 t (tab character), 40 { } (curly brace), **3**, 28 #define,71 #ifdef,71 #ifundef,71 #include,7 ~*classname*, see destructor L'c' (wchar t literal), 40 ctrl-d (Unix end-of-file), 20 ctrl-z (Windows end-of-file), 20 ; (semicolon), 3 class definition, 440 ++ (increment), 13, 30, 146, 190 and dereference, 163 iterator, 98, 108, 312 overloaded operator, 527 pointer, 114 prefix yields lvalue, 162 reverse iterator, 412 -- (decrement), 190 and dereference, 163 iterator, 312 overloaded operator, 527 prefix yields lvalue, 162 reverse iterator, 412 * (dereference), 98, 108, 146, 389 iterator, 98

on map yields pair, 362 overloaded operator, 524 pointer, 119 yields lvalue, 99, 120 & (address-of), 115, 146, 511 -> (arrow operator), 164 class member access, 445 overloaded operator, 525 ->* (pointer to member arrow), 783 [] (subscript), 87, 108, 146 bitset,105 deque, 325 map, 363 string,87 vector, 94, 325 and multi-dimensioned array, 142 and pointer, 124 array, 113 overloaded operator, 522 reference return, 522 valid subscript range, 88 yields lvalue, 88 () (call operator), **25**, 30, 226, 280 overloaded operator, 530 :: (scope operator), 8, 30, 78, 108 base class members, 569 class member, 85, 445 container defined type, 317 member function definition, 262 to override name lookup, 449 = (assignment), 13, 30, 159 and conversion, 179 and equality, 161 class assignment operator, 476 container, 328 overloaded operator, 483, 520 and copy constructor, 484 check for self-assignment, 490
Message, 490 multiple inheritance, 737 reference return, 483, 521 rule of three, 485 use counting, 495, 498 valuelike classes, 501 pointer, 120 string,86 to signed, 37 to unsigned, 37 vields lvalue, 160 += (compound assignment), **13**, 30, 161 string,86 iterator, 313 overloaded operator, 511 Sales item, 521 + (addition), 150 string,86 iterator, 101, 313 pointer, 123 Sales item, 517 - (subtraction), 150 iterator, 101, 313 pointer, 123 * (multiplication), 150 / (division), 150 % (modulus), 151 == (equality), 30, 154 string,85 algorithm, 421 container, 322 container adaptor, 350 iterator, 98, 312 string, 347 ! = (inequality), 30, 154 container, 322 container adaptor, 350 iterator, 98, 312 string, 347 < (less-than), 30, 153 overloaded and containers, 520 used by algorithm, 420 <= (less-than-or-equal), **13**, 30, 153 > (greater-than), 30, 153 >= (greater-than-or-equal), 30, 153 >> (input operator), **8**, 30 Sales item, 516 istream iterator, 408 string, 81, 108 overloaded operator, 515 must be nonmember, 514

precedence and associativity, 158 << (output operator), 7, 30 bitset,106 ostream iterator, 408 string, 81, 108 formatting, 514 overloaded operator, 513 must be nonmember, 514 precedence and associativity, 158 Sales item, 514 >> (right-shift), 155, 190 << (left-shift), 155, 190 && (logical AND), 152 operand order of evaluation, 172 overloaded operator, 511 | | (logical OR), 152 operand order of evaluation, 172 overloaded operator, 511 & (bitwise AND), 156, 189 Query, 610 ! (logical NOT), 153 (bitwise OR), 156, 190 example, 290 Query, 610 ^ (bitwise XOR), 156, 190 ~ (bitwise NOT), 155, 189 Query, 610 , (comma operator), 168, 189 example, 289 operand order of evaluation, 172 overloaded operator, 511 ?: (conditional operator), 165, 189 operand order of evaluation, 172 + (unary plus), 150 - (unary minus), 150 nnn (octal escape sequence), 40 ddd.dddL or ddd.dddl (long double literal), 39 numEnum or numenum (double literal), 39 numF or numf (float literal), 39 numL or numl (long literal), 39 numU or numu (unsigned literal), 39 class member : constant expression, see bitfield

A

abnormal termination, stream buffers, 292 abort, **692**, 748 absInt, 530

abstract base class, 596, 621 example, 609 abstract data type, 78, 429, 473 abstraction, data, 432, 474 access control, 65 in base and derived classes, 570 local class, 796 nested class, 787 using declarations to adjust, 573 access label, 65, 73, 432, 473 private, 65, 432 protected, 562, 622 public, 65, 432 Account, 468 accumulate, 396, 823 Action, 783 adaptor, 348, 353 container, 348 function, 533, 535, 553 iterator, 399 addition (+), 150 string,86 iterator, 101, 313 pointer, 123 Sales item, 517 address, 35, 73 address-of (&), 115, 146 overloaded operator, 511 adjacent difference,824 adjacent find,813 algorithm, 392, 424 _copy versions, 400, 421 if versions, 421 element type constraints, 394 independent of container, 393 iterator argument constraints, 397, 415 iterator category and, 416, 418 naming convention, 420-421 overloaded versions, 420 parameter pattern, 419–420 passing comparison function, 403 read-only, 396 structure, 419 that reorders elements, 421 that writes elements, 398 type independence, 394, 396 using function object as argument, 531 with two input ranges, 420 algorithm header, 395 alias, namespace, **720**, 750

allocator, 755, 755-759, 805 allocate,759 compared to operator new, 761 construct, 755, 758 compared to placement new, 762 deallocate,759 compared to operator delete, 761 destroy, 755, 759 compared to calling destructor, 763 operations, 756 alternative operator name, 46 ambiguous conversion, 541-544 multiple inheritance, 734 function call, 269, 272, 280 multiple base classes, 738 overloaded operator, 550 AndQuery, 609 definition, 618 eval function, 619 anonymous union, 795, 805 app (file mode), 296 append, string, 342 argc, 244 argument, 25, 28, 226, 227, 280 array type, 238 C-style string, 242 const reference type, 235 conversion, 229 with class type conversion, 541 copied, 230 uses copy constructor, 478 default, 253 iterator, 238, 242 multi-dimensioned array, 241 passing, 229 pointer to const, 231 pointer to nonconst, 231 reference parameter, 233 template, see template argument to main, 243 to member function, 260 nonconst reference parameter, 235 type checking, 229 ellipsis, 244 of array type, 239 of reference to array, 240 with class type conversion, 541 argument deduction, template, 637 argument list, 226

argv, 244 arithmetic iterator, 100, 107, 312, 313 pointer, 123, 146 arithmetic operator and compound assignment, 162 function object, 533 overloaded operator, 517 arithmetic type, 34, 73 conversion, 180, 188 from bool, 182 signed to unsigned, 36 conversion to bool, 182 array, 40, 73, 110-114 and pointer, 122 argument, 238 as initializer of vector, 140 assignment, 112 associative, 388 conversion to pointer, 122, 181 and template argument, 639 copy, 112 default initialization, 111 uses copy constructor, 478 uses default constructor, 460 definition, 110 elements and destructor, 485 function returning, 228 initialization, 111 multi-dimensioned, 141-144 and pointer, 143 definition, 142 initialization, 142 parameter, 241 subscript operator, 142 of char initialization, 112 parameter, 238–244 buffer overflow, 242 convention, 241-243 reference type, 240 size calculation, 309 and sizeof, 167 subscript operator, 113 arrow operator (->), 164 auto ptr,704 class member access, 445 generic handle, 670 overloaded operator, 525 assert preprocessor macro, 221, 223 assign container, 328

string, 340 assignment vs. initialization, 49 memberwise, 483, 503 assignment (=), 13, 30, 159, 502 and conversion, 179 and copy constructor, 484 check for self-assignment, 490 container, 328 for derived class, 586 Message, 490 multiple inheritance, 737 overloaded operator, 476, 483, 520 reference return, 483, 521 pointer, 120 rule of three, 485 exception for virtual destructors, 588 string,86 synthesized, 483, 503 to base from derived, 578 to signed, 37 to unsigned, 37 use counting, 495, 498 usually not virtual, 588 valuelike classes, 501 vields lvalue, 160 associative array, see map, 388 associative container, 356, 388 assignment (=), 328 begin, 369 clear, 359 constructors, 360 count, 377 element type constraints, 309, 323 empty, 359 equal range, 379 erase,359 find, 377 insert,364 key type constraints, 360 lower bound, 377 operations, 358 overriding the default comparison, 604 rbegin, 412 rend, 412 returning an, 381 reverse_iterator,412 size, 359 supports relational operators, 359

swap, 329 types defined by, 361 upper bound, 377 associativity, 149, 170, 188 overloaded operator, 507 at degue, 325 vector, 325 ate (file mode), 296 auto ptr, 702, 748 constructor, 703 copy and assignment, 704 default constructor, 705 get member, 705 operations, 703 pitfalls, 707 reset member, 706 self-assignment, 705 automatic object, 255, 280 see also local variable see also parameter and destructor, 485

B

back queue, 352 sequential container, 324 back inserter, 399, 406, 424 bad, 289 bad alloc, 175, 219 bad cast, 219, 774 bad typeid,776 badbit,289 base, 414 base class, 285, 302, 558, 621 see also virtual function abstract, 596, 621 example, 609 access control, 561, 571 assignment operator, usually not virtual, 588 can be a derived class, 566 constructor, 581 calls virtual function, 589 not virtual, 588 conversion from derived, 567 access control, 579 definition, 560 destructor calls virtual function, 589

usually virtual, 587 friendship not inherited, 575 handle class, 599 member operator delete, 764 member hidden by derived, 593 multiple, see multiple base class must be complete type, 566 no conversion to derived, 580 object initialized or assigned from derived, 578 scope, 590 static members, 576 user, 563 virtual, 751 see virtual base class Basket,605 total function, 606 Bear, 731 as virtual base, 741 begin, 353 map, 369 set, 372 vector,97 container, 317 best match, 269, 280 see also function matching bidirectional iterator, 417, 424 list,417 map, 417 set,417 binary (file mode), 296 binary function object, 533 binary operator, 148, 188 binary search,814 BinaryQuery, 609 definition, 617 bind1st,535 bind2nd, 535 binder, 535, 552 binding, dynamic, 559, 621 requirements for, 566 bit-field, 798, 805 access to, 798 bitset, 101, 101-106, 107 any, 104 count, 104 flip, 105 compared to bitwise NOT, 155 none, 104 reset, 105 set,105

size,104 test, 105 to ulong, 105 compared to bitwise operator, 156 constructor, 101-103 header, 101 output operator, 106 subscript operator, 105 bitwise AND (&), 156, 189 example, 610 bitwise exclusive or (^), 156, 190 bitwise NOT (~), 155, 189 example, 610 bitwise operator, 154–159 and compound assignment, 162 compared to bitset, 156 compound assignment, 157 example, 290 operand, 155 bitwise OR (|), 156, 190 example, 290, 610 block, 3, 13, 28, 193, 223 try, 216, 217, 224, 750 as target of if, 196 function, 227 block scope, 193 body, function, 3, 29, 226, 281 book finding program using equal_range, 379 using find, 377 using upper bound, 378 bookstore program, 26 exception classes, 698 bool,35 and equality operator, 154 conversion to arithmetic type, 182 literal, 39 boolalpha manipulator, 826 brace, curly, 3, 28 break statement, 212, 223 and switch, 201-203 buffer, 8, 28 flushing, 290 buffer overflow, 114 and C-style string, 132 array parameter, 242 built-in type, **3**, 28, 34–37 class member default initialization, 264 conversion, 179 initialization of, 51

Bulk_item
 class definition, 564
 constructor, 581
 constructor using default arguments,
 582
 derived fromDisc_item, 584
 interface, 558
 member functions, 559
byte, 35, 73

С

C++ calling C function from C++, 801 compiling C and C++, 803 using C linkage, 802 . C file, 4 .cc file, 4 .cpp file, 4 .cp file, 4 C library header, 90 C with classes, 430 C-style cast, 186 C-style string, 112, 130, 130-134, 145 and char*, 131 and string literal, 140 compared to string, 134, 138 definition, 130 dynamically allocated, 138 initialization, 130 parameter, 242 pitfalls with generic programs, 671 c str,140 example, 294 CachedObj add to freelist,771 operator delete, 770 operator new, 769 allocation explained, 769 definition, 767 definition of static members, 771 design, 766 illustration, 767 inheriting from, 768 call operator (()), 25, 30, 226, 280 execution flow, 226 overloaded operator, 530 calling C function from C++, 801 candidate function, 270, 280 and function templates, 679 namespaces, 728

overloaded operator, 549 capacity string, 336 vector, 331 case label, 201, 201-204, 223 default, 203 cassert header, 221 cast, 183, 188 checked, see dynamic cast old-style, 186 catch clause, 216, 217, 223, 693, 749 catch(...), 696, 748 example, 217 exception specifier, 693 matching, 693 ordering of, 694 parameter, 693 category, iterator, 425 cctype, 88-89, 107 header, 88 cerr, 6, 28 char,34 literal, 40 char string literal, see string literal character newline (\n) , 40 nonprintable, 40, 75 null (\0), 40 printable, 88 tab (\t), 40 checked cast, see dynamic cast CheckedPtr, 526 children's story program, 400 revisited, 531 cin, 6, 28 by default tied to cout, 292 cl,4 class, 20, 28, 63, 73, 473 static member, 474 abstract base, 621 example, 609 access labels, 65, 432 as friend, 465 base, 285, 302, see base class, 621 concrete, 433 conversion, 552 multiple conversions lead to ambiguities, 546 conversion constructor, 461 function matching, 547 with standard conversion, 540

data member, 64, 74 const vs. mutable, 443 const, initialization, 455 constraints on type, 438 definition, 435 initialization, 454 mutable, 443 reference, initialization, 455 static,469 data member definition, 65 default access label, 433 default inheritance access label, 574 definition, 64, 430-440 and header, 264, 437 derived, 285, 302, see derived class, 621 destructor definition, 486 direct base, see immediate base class, 621 explicit constructor, 462 forward declaration, 438 generic handle, 667, 683 handle, see handle class, 599, 622 immediate base, 566, 622 indirect base, 566, 622 local, see local class, 806 member, 64, 73, 430 member access, 445 member function, 25, 29, see member function member: constant expression, see bitfield multiple inheritance, see multiple base class nested, see nested class, 806 nonvirtual function, calls resolved at compile time, 569 operator delete, see member operator operator new, see member operator new pointer member copy control, 492–501 copy control strategies, 499 default copy behavior, 493 pointer to member, 780 definition, 781 pointer to member function, definition, 782 preventing copies, 481 private member, 431

inheritance, 561 private member, 75 protected member, 562 public member, 75, 431 inheritance, 561 static member, 467 as default argument, 471 data member as constant expression, 471 example, 468 inheritance, 576 template member, see member template type member, 435 undefined member, 482 user, 433, 563 virtual base, 751 virtual function, calls resolved at run time, 569 class, keyword, 64 compared to typename, 631 in template parameter, 630 in variable definition, 440 class keyword, 473 class declaration, 438, 473 of derived class, 566 class derivation list, 563, 621 access control, 570 default access label, 574 multiple base classes, 731 virtual base, 742 class scope, 65, 444, 473 friend declaration, 466 inheritance, 590-595 member definition, 445 name lookup, 447 static members, 470 virtual functions, 594 class template, 90, 107, 627, 683 see also template parameter see also template argument see also instantiation compiler error detection, 634 declaration, 629 definition, 627 error detection, 635 explicit template argument, 636 export,645 friend declaration dependencies, 658 explicit template instantiation, 657

nontemplate class or function, 656 template class or function, 656 member function, 653 defined outside class body, 651 instantiation, 653 member specialization, 677 member template, see member template nontype template parameter, 655 static member, 665 accessed through an instantiation, 666 definition, 666 type includes template argument(s), 628, 637 type-dependent code, 634 uses of template parameter, 649 class template specialization definition, 675 member, declaration, 677 member defined outside class body, 676 namespaces, 730 class type, 20, 28, 65 class member default initialization, 264 conversion, 183 initialization of, 52 object definition, 439 parameter and overloaded operator, 507variable vs. function declaration, 460 cleanup, object, see destructor clear, 289, 290 associative container, 359 example, 290, 295 sequential container, 327 clog, 6, 28 close, 294 comma operator (,), 168, 189 example, 289 operand order of evaluation, 172 overloaded operator, 511 comment, 10, 28 block (/* */), 10, 28 single-line (//), **10**, 28 compare plain function, 624 string, 347 template version, 625 instantiatied with pointer, 671

specialization, 672 compilation and header, 67 conditional, 220 inclusion model for templates, 644 needed when class changes, 434 needed when inline function changes, 258separate, 67, 76 of templates, 643 separate model for templates, 644 compiler extension, 112 flag for inclusion compilation model, 645 GNU,4 Microsoft, 4 template errors diagnosed at link time, 635 compiler extension, 145 compiling C and C++, 803 composition vs. inheritance, 573 compound assignment (e.g.,+=), **13**, 30, 161 string,86 bitwise operator, 157 iterator, 313 overloaded operator, 511, 518 Sales_item, 521 compound expression, 168, 188 compound statement, 193, 223 compound type, 58, 73, 145 compute, 542 overloaded version, 545 concatenation Screen operations, 441 string,86 string literal, 41 concrete class, 433 initialization, 464 condition, 13, 28 and conversion, 179 assignment in, 161 in do while statement, 211 in for statement, 15, 207 in if statement, 18, 195 in logical operator, 152 in while statement, 205 stream type as, 19, 183, 288 string input operation as, 82 condition state, 287, 302 conditional compilation, 220

conditional operator (?:), 165, 189 operand order of evaluation, 172 console window, 6 const,57 and dynamically allocated array, 136 conversion to, 182, 231 and template argument, 639 iterator vs. const iterator, 100 object scope, 57, 69 overloading and, 267, 275 parameter, 231 pointer, 128 reference, 59 initialization, 60 const object, constructor, 453 const data member static data member, 470 compared to mutable, 443 initialization, 455 const member function, 261, 262, 280, 431, 473 overloaded, 442 reference return, 442 static,469 const pointer, see also pointer to const conversion from nonconst, 182 const reference argument, 235 conversion from nonconst, 182 parameter, 235 overloading, 275 return type, 249 const void*, 127, 145 const cast, 183, 184 const iterator, 99, 415 compared to const iterator, 100 container, 316 const reference, 317 const reverse iterator,412 container, 316 constant expression, 62, 74 and header file, 69 array index, 110 bit-field, 798 enumerator, 62 nontype template parameter, 633 static data member, 471 construction, order of, 456, 749 derived objects, 581, 582 multiple base classes, 732 virtual base classes, 746

constructor, 49, 74, 262, 281, 431 const objects, 453 conversion, 461, 474 function matching, 547 with standard conversion, 540 copy, 476-482, 502 base from derived, 578 multiple inheritance, 737 default, 52, 74, 262, 281, 458-461, 474 default argument in, 458 derived class, 581 initializes immediate base class, 583 initializes virtual base, 744 execution flow, 454 explicit, 462, 474 copy-initialization, 477 for associative container, 360 for sequential container, 307–309 function try block, 696 in constructor initializer list, 457 inheritance, 581 initializer, 452 may not be virtual, 588 object creation, 452 order of construction, 456 derived objects, 581, 582 multiple base classes, 732 virtual base classes, 746 overloaded, 452 pair, 357 resource allocation, 700 synthesized copy, 479, 503 synthesized default, 264, 281, 459, 474 virtual inheritance, 744 constructor initializer list, 263, 281, 431, 453-458, 474 compared to assignment, 454 derived classes, 582 function try block, 696 initializers, 457 multiple base classes, 733 sometimes required, 455 virtual base class, 745 container, 90, 107, 306, 353 see also sequential container see also associative container and generic algorithms, 393 as element type, 311 assignment (=), 328 associative, 356, 388 begin, 317

clear, 327 const iterator,316 const reference, 317 const_reverse_iterator,316 element type constraints, 309, 323 elements and destructor, 485 elements are copies, 318 empty, 323 end, 317 erase, 402 has bidirectional iterator, 417 inheritance, 597 insert,319 iterator, 316 rbegin, 317, 412 reference, 317 rend, 317, 412 returning a, 381 reverse iterator, 316, 412 sequential, 306, 354 size, 323 size type, 316 supports relational operators, 321 swap, 329 types defined by, 316 continue statement, 214, 223 example, 290 control, flow of, 192, 224 conversion, 178, 188 ambiguous, 541-544 and assignment, 159 argument, 229 with class type conversion, 541 arithmetic type, 180, 188 array to pointer, 122, 238 and template argument, 639 class type, 183, 535, 552 design considerations, 544 example, 537 multiple conversions lead to ambiguities, 546 operator, 537, 537–540, 552 operator and function matching, 545 used implicitly, 538 with standard conversion, 539 constructor, 461 function matching, 547 with standard conversion, 540 derived to base, 567, 580 access control, 579

enumeration type to integer, 182 from istream, 183 function matching of template and nontemplate functions, 681 function to pointer, 277 and template argument, 639 implicit, 189 inheritance, 577 integral promotion, 180 multi-dimensioned array to pointer, 143 multiple inheritance, 734 nontemplate type argument, 640 of return value, 246 rank for function matching, 272 rank of class type conversions, 545 signed type, 180 signed to unsigned, 36 template argument, 638 to const pointer, 127 to const, 182 and template argument, 639 parameter matching, 231 virtual base, 743 conversion constructor, 474 copy, 815 copy constructor, **476**, 476–482, 502 and assignment operator, 484 argument passing, 478 base from derived, 578 for derived class, 586 initialization, 478 Message, 489 parameter, 480 pointer members, 480 rule of three, 485 exception for virtual destructors, 588 synthesized, 479, 503 use counting, 495, 497 valuelike classes, 500 copy control, 476, 502 handle class, 601 inheritance, 584-590 message handling example, 489 multiple inheritance, 737 of pointer members, 499 copy-initialization, 48 using constructor, 477 copy backward, 816 count, use, 495, 503

count, 812 book finding program, 377 map, 367 multimap, 377 multiset, 377 set, 372 count_if, 404, 812 with function object argument, 532 cout, 6, 28 by default tied to cin, 292 cstddef header, 104, 123 cstdlib header, 247 cstring header, 132 curly brace, 3, 28

D

dangling else, **198**, 223 dangling pointer, 176, 188 returning pointer to local variable, 249 synthesized copy control, 494 data abstraction, 432, 474 advantages, 434 data hiding, 434 data structure, 20, 28 data type, abstract, 473 dec manipulator, 827 decimal literal, 38 declaration, 52, 74 class, 438, 473 class template member specialization, 677 dependencies and template friends, 658 derived class, 566 export,645 forward, 438, 474 function, 251 exception specification, 708 function template specialization, 672, 673 member template, 661 template, 629 using, 78, 108, 720, 750 access control, 573 class member access, 574 overloaded inherited functions, 593 declaration statement, 193, 224 decrement (--), 190 iterator, 312

overloaded operator, 526 prefix yields lvalue, 162 reverse iterator, 412 deduction, template argument, 637 default argument, 253 and header file, 254 function matching, 270 in constructor, 458 initializer, 254 overloaded function, 267 virtual functions, 570 default case label, 203, 224 default constructor, 52, 74, 262, 281, 458-461, 474 Sales item, 263 string, 52, 81 default argument, 458 synthesized, 264, 281, 459, 474 used implicitly, 459 variable definition, 460 definition, 52, 74 array, 110 base class, 560 C-style string, 130 class, 64, 430-440 class data member, 65, 435 class static member, 469 class template, 627 static member, 666 class template specialization, 675 member defined outside class body, 676 class type object, 439 derived class, 563 destructor, 486 dynamically allocated array, 135 dynamically allocated object, 174 function, 3 inside an if condition, 196 inside a switch expression, 203 inside a while condition, 205 map, 360, 373 multi-dimensioned array, 142 namespace, 712 can be discontiguous, 714 member, 716 of variable after case label, 204 overloaded operator, 482 pair, 356 pointer, 115 pointer to function, 276

static data member, 470 variable, 48 delete, 145, 176, 188, 806 compared to operator delete, 760 const object, 178 execution flow, 760 member operator, 806 member operator and inheritance, 764 interface, 764 memory leak, 177, 485 null pointer, 176 runs destructor, 485 delete [],135 and dynamically allocated array, 137 deque, 353 as element type, 311 assign, 328 assignment (=), 328 at,325 back, 324 begin, 317 clear, 327 const iterator, 316 const_reference,317 const reverse iterator,316 constructor from element count, uses copy constructor, 478 constructors, 307-309 difference_type,316 element type constraints, 309, 323 empty, 323 end, 317 erase, 326 invalidates iterator, 326 front, 324 insert,319 invalidates iterator, 320 iterator, 316 iterator supports arithmetic, 312 performance characteristics, 334 pop back, 326 pop front, 326 push back, 318 invalidates iterator, 321 push front, 318 invalidates iterator, 321 random-access iterator, 417 rbegin, 317, 412 reference, 317 relational operators, 321

rend, 317, 412 resize, 323 reverse iterator, 316, 412 size, 323 size type, 316 subscript ([]), 325 supports relational operators, 313 swap, 329 types defined by, 316 value type, 317 dereference (*), 98, 108, 146, 389 and increment, 163 auto ptr,704 iterator, 98 on map iterator yields pair, 362 overloaded operator, 524 pointer, 119 vields lvalue, 99, 120 derivation list, class, 563, 621 access control, 570 default access label, 574 derived class, 285, 302, 558, 621 see also virtual function access control, 561, 572 as base class, 566 assgined or copied to base object, 578 assignment (=), 586 constructor, 581 calls virtual function, 589 for remote virtual base, 744 initializes immediate base class, 583 constructor initializer list, 582 conversion to base, 567 access control, 579 copy constructor, 586 default derivation label, 574 definition, 563 destructor, 587 calls virtual function, 589 friendship not inherited, 576 handle class, 599 member operator delete, 764 member hides member in base, 593 multiple base classes, 731 no conversion from base, 580 scope, 590 scope (::) to access base class member. 569 static members, 576 using declaration inherited functions, 593

member access, 574 with remote virtual base, 742 derived object contains base part, 565 multiple base classes, contains base part for each, 732 design CachedObj,766 class member access control, 563 class type conversions, 544 consistent definitions of equality and relational operators, 520 is-a relationship, 573 Message class, 486 namespace, 714 of handle classes, 599 of header files, 67 export,646 inclusion compilation model, 644 separate compilation model, 645 optimizing new and delete, 764 using freelist, 766 overloaded operator, 510-513 overview of use counting, 495 Query classes, 609-611 Oueue, 647 resource allocation is initialization, 700-701 Sales item handle class, 599 TextQuery class, 380 vector memory allocation strategy, 756 writing generic code, 634 pointer template argument, 671 destruction, order of, 749 derived objects, 587 multiple base classes, 733 virtual base classes, 747 destructor, 476, 484, 502 called during exception handling, 691 container elements, 485 definition, 486 derived class, 587 explicit call to, 762 implicitly called, 484 library classes, 709 Message, 491 multiple inheritance, 737 order of destruction, 485 derived objects, 587 multiple base classes, 733

virtual base classes, 747 resource deallocation, 700 rule of three, 485 exception for virtual destructors, 588 should not throw exception, 692 synthesized, 485, 486 use counting, 495, 497 valuelike classes, 500 virtual, multiple inheritance, 736 virtual in base class, 587 development environment, integrated, 3 difference type, **101**, 107, 316 dimension, 110, 145 direct base class, see immediate base class, 621 direct-initialization, 48 using constructor, 477 directive, using, 721, 751 pitfalls, 724 Disc item, 583 class definition, 583 discriminant, 794, 806 divides<T>,534 division (/), 150 do while statement, 210 condition in, 211 domain_error, 219 dot operator (.), 25, 30 class member access, 445 double, 37 literal (*numEnum* or *numenum*), 39 long double, 37 notation outptu format control, 830 output format control, 828 duplicate word program, 400–404 revisited, 531 dynamic binding, 559, 621 in C++, 569 requirements for, 566 dynamic type, **568**, 622 dynamic cast, 183, 773, 806 example, 773 throws bad cast, 774 to pointer, 773 to reference, 774 dynamically allocated, 145 const object, 177 array, 134, 134-139 delete,137 definition, 135

initialization, 136 of const, 136 C-style string, 138 memory and object construction, 754 object, 174 auto_ptr, 702 constructor, 453 destructor, 485 exception, 700

E

edit-compile-debug, 16, 28 errors at link time, 635 else, see if statement dangling, 198, 223 empty string, 83, 107 vector, 93, 107 associative container, 359 container, 323 priority queue, 352 queue, 352 stack, 351 encapsulation, 432, 474 advantages, 434 end, 353 map, 369 set,372 vector,97 container, 317 end-of-file, 19, 28, 835 entering from keyboard, 20 Endangered, 731 endl,8 manipulator flushes the buffer, 291 ends, manipulator flushes the buffer, 291 enum keyword, 62 enumeration, 62, 74 conversion to integer, 182 function matching, 274 enumerator, 62, 74 conversion to integer, 182 environment, integrated development, 3 eof, 289 eofbit, 289 equal, 814 equal member function, 778 equal_range,814 associative container, 379 book finding program, 379

equal to<T>, 534 equality (==), 30, 154 string,85 algorithm, 421 and assignment, 161 container, 322 container adaptor, 350 iterator, 98, 312 overloaded operator, 512, 518 consistent with equality, 520 string, 347 erase associative container, 359 container, 402 invalidates iterator, 326 map, 368 multimap, 376 multiset,376 sequential container, 326 set,372 string, 340 error, standard, 6 escape sequence, 40, 74 hexadecimal (\Xnnn), 40 octal (\nnn), 40 evaluation order of, 149, 189 short-circuit, 152 exception, raise, see throw exception class, 216, 224 class hierarchy, 698 constructor, 220 extending the hierarchy, 697 header, 219 what member, 218, 697 exception handling, 215–220, 749 see also throw see also catch clause and terminate, 219 compared to assert, 221 exception in destrutor, 692 finding a catch clause, 693 function try block, 696, 749 handler, see catch clause library class destructors, 709 local objects destroyed, 691 specifier, 217, 224, 693, 749 nonreference, 693 reference, 694 types related by inheritance, 694

stack unwinding, 691 uncaught exception, 692 unhandled exception, 219 exception object, 690, 749 array or function, 689 initializes catch parameter, 693 must be copyable, 689 pointer to local object, 690 rethrow, 695 exception safety, 700, 749 exception specification, 706, 749 throw(),708 function pointers, 711 unexpected, 708 violation, 708 virtual functions, 710 executable file, 4 EXIT FAILURE, 247 EXIT SUCCESS, 247 explicit constructor, 462, 474 copy-initialization, 477 export, 645 and header design, 646 keyword, 645, 683 exporting C++ to C, 802 expression, 7, 28, 148, 189 and operand conversion, 179 compound, 168, 188 constant, 62, 74 throw, 689, 750 expression statement, 192, 224 extended compute, 542 extension, compiler, 145 extern, 53 extern 'C', see linkage directive extern const,57

F

factorial program, 250 fail, 289 failbit, 289 file executable, 4 object, 68 source, 4, 29 file mode, **296**, 302 combinations, 298 example, 299 file static, **719**, 749 fill, 816 fill n,815 find, 392, 812 book finding program, 377 map, 368 multimap, 377 multiset,377 set,372 string, 344 find last word program, 414 find first of,812 find first not of, string, 346 find end, 812 find first of, 396, 812 string, 345 find if, 421, 812 find last not of, string, 346 find last of, string, 346 find val program, 234 fixed manipulator, 830 float,37 literal (numF or numf), 39 floating point notation output format control, 830 output format control, 828 floating point literal, see double literal flow of control, 192, 224 flush, manipulator flushes the buffer, 291 Folder, see Message for statement, 29, 207 condition in, 207 execution flow, 208 expression, 207 for header, 207 initialization statement, 207 scope, 15 for statementfor statement, 14 for each, 813 format state, 825 forward declaration of class type, 438 forward iterator, 417, 424 fp compute, 542 free store, 135, 145 freelist, 766, 806 friend, 465, 474 class, 465 class template explicit template instantiation, 657 nontemplate class or function, 656 template class or function, 656 function template, example, 659 inheritance, 575

member function, 466 overloaded function, 467 overloaded operator, 509 scope considerations, 466 namespaces, 727 template example, 658 friend keyword, 465 front queue, 352 sequential container, 324 front inserter, 406, 424 compared to inserter, 406 fstream, 285, 293-299, 302 see also istream see also ostream close, 294 constructor, 293 file marker, 838 file mode, 296 combinations, 298 example, 299 file random access, 838 header, 285, 293 off type,839 open, 293 pos type,839 random IO sample program, 840 seek and tell members, 838-842 function, 2, 29, 225, 281 equal member, 778 inline, 257, 281 candidate, 270, 280 conversion to pointer, 277 and template argument, 639 function returning, 228 inline and header, 257 member, 25, 29, see member function, 474 nonvirtual, calls resolved at compile time, 569 overloaded, 265, 281 compared to redeclaration, 266 friend declaration, 467 scope, 268 virtual, 593 pure virtual, 596, 622 example, 609 recursive, 249, 281 viable, 270, 282 virtual, 559, 566-570, 622 assignment operator, 588

calls resolved at run time, 568 compared to run-time type identification, 777 default argument, 570 derived classes, 564 destructor, 587 destructor and multiple inheritance, 736 exception specifications, 710 in constructors, 589 in destructor, 589 introduction, 561 multiple inheritance, 735 no virtual constructor, 588 overloaded, 593 overloaded operator, 615 overriding run-time binding, 570 return type, 564 run-time type identification, 772 scope, 594 to copy unknown type, 602 type-sensitive equality, 778 function adaptor, 533, 535, 553 bind1st,535 bind2nd,535 binder, 535 negator, 535 not1,535 not2,535 function body, 3, 29, 226, 281 function call ambiguous, 269, 272 execution flow, 226 overhead, 257 through pointer to function, 278 through pointer to member, 784 to overloaded operator, 509 to overloaded postfix operator, 529 using default argument, 253 function declaration, 251 and header file, 252 exception specification, 708 function definition, 3 function matching, 269, 281 and overloaded function templates, 679-682 examples, 680 argument conversion, 269 conversion operator, 545 conversion rank, 272 class type conversions, 545

enumeration parameter, 274 integral promotion, 273 multiple parameters, 272 namespaces, 727 of member functions, 436 overloaded operator, 547-551 function name, 3, 29 function object, **531**, 553 algorithms, 531 example, 534 binary, 533 library defined, 533 unary, 533 function pointer, 276-279 and template argument deduction, 640 definition, 276 exception specifications, 711 function returning, 228 initialization, 277 overloaded functions, 279 parameter, 278 return type, 278 typedef, 276 function prototype, 251, 281 function return type, 226, 227, 281 const reference, 249 no implicit return type, 228 nonreference, 247 uses copy constructor, 478 reference, 248 reference vields lvalue, 249 void, 245 function scope, 227 function table, 785 pointer to member, 785 function template, 625, 683 see also template parameter see also template argument see also instantiation as friend, 659 compiler error detection, 634 declaration, 629 error detection, 635 explicit template argument, 642 and function pointer, 643 specifying, 642 export,645 inline,626 instantiation, 637 template argument deduction, 637

type-dependent code, 634 function template specialization compared to overloaded function, 673 declaration, 672, 673 example, 672 namespaces, 730 scope, 674 function try block, **696**, 749

G

q++,4 gcd program, 226 generate, 816 generate n,815 generic algorithm, see algorithm generic handle class, 667, 683 generic memory management, see CachedObj generic programming, 95, 624 and pointer template argument, 671 type-independent code, 634 getline, 82, 107 example, 300, 386 global namespace, 716, 750 global scope, 54, 74 global variable, lifetime, 254 GNU compiler, 4 good, 289 goto statement, 214, 224 greater-than (>), 30, 153 greater-than-or-equal (>=), 30, 153 greater<T>,534 greater equal<T>,534 GT6 program, 403 GT cls, 532 guard header, 71, 74

Η

. h file, 21
Handle, 667
int instantiation, 668
operations, 668
Sales_item instantiation, 669
handle class, 599, 622
copy control, 601
copying unknown type, 602
design, 599
generic, 667, 683
that hides inheritance hierarchy, 610
using a, 603

handler. see catch clause has-a relationship, 573 HasPtr as a smart pointer, 495 using synthesized copy control, 493 with value semantics, 499 header, 7, 29, 67, 74 bitset,101 cctype, 88, 107 cstddef,104 iomanip, 829 string,80 vector,90 algorithm, 395 and constant expression, 69 and library names, 810 C library, 90 cassert,221 class definition, 264, 437 cstddef, 123 cstdlib,247 cstring, 132 default argument, 254 deque, 307 design, 67 export,646 inclusion compilation model, 644 namespace members, 714 separate compilation model, 645 exception, 219 fstream, 285, 293 function declaration, 252 inline function, 257 inline member function definition, 437 iostream, 285 iterator, 399 list,307 map, 360, 375 new, 219 numeric, 395 programmer-defined, 67–72 queue, 349 Sales_item, 21, 67, 264 set, 373, 375 sstream, 285, 300 stack, 349 stdexcept, 217, 219 type_info,219 using declaration, 80 utility, 356

vector, 307 header file, naming convention, 264 header guard, **71**, 74 heap, **135**, 145 hex manipulator, 827 hexadecimal, literal (0X*num* or 0x*num*), 38 hexadecimal escape sequence (\X*nnn*), 40 hides, names in base hidden by names in derived, 592 hierarchy, inheritance, **558**, 566, 622 high-order bits, **102**, 107

I

IDE, 3 identification, run-time type, 772-780, 807 identifier, 46, 74 naming convention, 47 reserved, 47 if statement, else branch, 224 if statement, 17, 29, 195, 224 compared to switch, 199 dangling else, 198 else branch, 18, 197 ifstream, 285, 293-299 see also istream close, 294 constructor, 293 file marker, 838 file mode, 296 combinations, 298 example, 299 file random access, 838 off type, 839 open, 293 pos type, 839 random IO sample program, 840 seek and tell members, 838-842 immediate base class, 566, 622 implementation, **63**, 74, 432 implementation inheritance, 573 implicit this pointer, overloaded operator, 508 implicit conversion, see conversion, 189 implicit return, 245 from main allowed, 247 implicit this pointer, 260, 281, 431, 440 in and overloaded operator, 483 static member functions, 469 in (file mode), 296

include, see #include includes,822 inclusion compilation model, 644, 683 incomplete type, 438, 474 restriction on use, 438, 566, 693 increment (++), 13, 30, 146, 190 reverse iterator, 412 and dereference, 163 iterator, 98, 108, 312 overloaded operator, 526 pointer, 114 prefix yields lvalue, 162 indentation, 14, 197 index, 87, 107 indirect base class, 566, 622 inequality (!=), 30, 154 iterator, 98 container, 322 container adaptor, 350 iterator, 312 overloaded operator, 512, 519 string, 347 inheritance, 284, 302 containers, 597 conversions, 577 default access label, 574 friends, 575 handle class, 599 implementation, 573 interface, 573 iostream diagram, 285 multiple, see multiple base class, 731 private, 622 static members, 576 virtual, 741, 751 inheritance hierarchy, 558, 566, 622 inheritance vs. composition, 573 initialization, 9 vs. assignment, 49 array, 111 array of char, 112 built-in type, 51 C-style string, 130 class data member, 454 class member of built-in type, 264 class member of class type, 264 class type, 52, 452 const static data member, 470 dynamically allocated array, 136 dynamically allocated object, 174 map, 373

memberwise, 479, 503 multi-dimensioned array, 142 objects of concrete class type, 464 pair, 356 parameter, 229 pointer, 117-119 pointer to function, 277 return value, 247 value, 92, 108 variable, 48, 50, 76 initialization vs. assignment, 456 initialized, 48, 75 initializer list, constructor, 263, 281, 431, 453-458, 474 inline function, 257, 281 and header, 257 function template, 626 member function, 437 and header, 437 inner product,823 inplace merge, 816 input, standard, 6 input (>>), 8, 30 Sales item, 516 istream_iterator,408 string, 81, 108 overloaded operator, 515 error handling, 516–517 must be nonmember, 514 precedence and associativity, 158 input iterator, 416, 424 insert inserter,406 invalidates iterator, 320 map, 364 multimap, 376 multiset,376 return type from set::insert, 373 sequential container, 319 set,373 string, 340 insert iterator, 399, 405, 425 inserter, 406 inserter, 425 compared to front inserter, 406 instantiation, 625, 684 class template, 628, 636, 654 member function, 653 nontype parameter, 655 type, 637 error detection, 635

function template, 637 from function pointer, 640 nontemplate argument conversion, 640 nontype template parameter, 633 template argument conversion, 638 member template, 663 nested class template, 788, 791 on use, 636 static class member, 665 int,34 literal, 38 Integral, 539 integral promotion, 180, 189 function matching, 273 integral type, 34, 75 integrated development environment, 3 interface, 63, 75, 432 interface inheritance, 573 internal manipulator, 832 interval, left-inclusive, 314, 354 invalid argument, 219 invalidated iterator, 315, 353 IO stream, see stream iomanip header, 829 iostate,289 iostream, 6, 29, 285 see also istream see also ostream header, 285 inheritance hierarchy, 740 seek and tell members, 838 is-a relationship, 573 isalnum,88 isalpha,88 ISBN, 2 isbn mismatch, 699 destructor explained, 709 iscntrl,88 isdigit,88 isgraph,88 islower,88 isprint,88 ispunct,88 isShorter program, 235, 403 isspace,88 istream, 6, 29, 285 see also manipulator condition state, 287 flushing input buffer, 290 format state, 825

gcount, 837 get, 834 multi-byte version, 836 returns int, 835, 836 getline, 82, 836 getline, example, 300 ignore,837 inheritance hierarchy, 740 input (>>), 8 precedence and associativity, 158 no containers of, 310 no copy or assign, 287 peek, 834 put, 834 putback,835 read, 837 seek and tell members, 838 unformatted operation, 834 multi-byte, 837 single-byte, 834 unget,835 write,837 istream iterator, 407, 425 and class type, 410 constructors, 408 input iterator, 417 input operator (>>), 408 limitations, 411 operations, 409 used with algorithms, 411 istringstream, 285, 299-301 see also istream word per line processing, 300, 370 str,301 word per line processing, 386 isupper,88 isxdigit,88 Item base class definition, 560 constructor, 580 interface, 558 member functions, 559 iter swap,816 iterator, 95, 95-101, 107, 311-316, 354 argument, 238 arrow (->), 164 bidirectional, 417, 424 compared to reverse iterator, 413, 414 destination, 399, 419 equality, 98, 312 forward, **417**, 424

generic algorithms, 394 inequality, 98, 312 input, 416, 424 insert, 399, 405, 425 invalidated, 315, 353 invalidated by assign, 328 erase,326 insert, 321 push back, 321 push front, 321 resize, 324 off-the-end, 97, 394, 425 operations, 311 output, 416, 425 parameter, 238, 242 random-access, 417, 425 relational operators, 313 reverse, 405, 412-415, 425 stream, 425 iterator, 362, 374 container, 316 iterator header, 399 iterator arithmetic, 100, 107, 312, 313 relational operators, 313 iterator category, 416–418, 425 algorithm and, 416, 418 bidirectional iterator, 417 forward iterator, 417 hierarchy, 417 input iterator, **416** output iterator, 416 random-access iterator, 417 iterator range, 314, 314–316, 354 algorithms constraints on, 397, 415 erase,327 generic algorithms, 394 insert, 320

K

key_type, 388 associative containers, 362 keyword enum, 62 friend, 465 namespace, 712 protected, 562 template, 625 try, 217 union, 793 virtual,559 export,645 keyword table,46 Koenig lookup,726

L

label case, 201, 201-204, 223 access, 65, 73, 432, 473 statement, 214 labeled statement, 214, 224 left manipulator, 832 left-inclusive interval, 314, 354 left-shift (<<), 155, 190 length error, 219 less-than (<), 30, 153 overloaded and containers, 520 used by algorithm, 420 less-than-or-equal (<=), 13, 30, 153 less<T>, 534 less equal<T>,534 lexicographical compare,823 library, standard, 5, 29 library names to header table, 810 library type, 29 lifetime, object, 254, 281 link time errors from template, 635 linkage directive, 801, 806 C++ to C, 802 compound, 802 overloaded function, 803 parameter or return type, 804 pointer to function, 803 single, 801 linking, 68, 75 list,354 as element type, 311 assign, 328 assignment (=), 328 back, 324 begin, 317 bidirectional iterator, 417 clear, 327 const iterator, 316 const reference, 317 const reverse iterator, 316 constructor from element count, uses copy constructor, 478 constructors, 307-309 element type constraints, 309, 323

empty, 323 end, 317 erase, 326 front, 324 insert.319 iterator,316 merge, 423 performance characteristics, 334 pop back, 326 pop front, 326 push back, 318 push front, 318 rbegin, 317, 412 reference, 317 relational operators, 321 remove, 423 remove if, 423 rend, 317, 412 resize, 323 reverse, 423 reverse iterator, 316, 412 size, 323 size type, 316 specific algorithms, 421 splice, 423 swap, 329 types defined by, 316 unique, 423 value type, 317 literal, 37, 37-42, 75 bool, 39 char,40 decimal, 38 double (numEnum or numenum), 39 float (numF or numf), 39 hexadecimal (0Xnum or 0xnum), 38 int,38 long (numL or numl), 38 long double (*ddd.ddd*L or *ddd.ddd*1), 39 multi-line, 42 octal (0*num*), 38 string, 9, 30, 40 unsigned (numU or numu), 39 wchar t, 40local class, 796, 806 access control, 796 name lookup, 797 nested class in, 797 restrictions on, 796 local scope, **54**, 75

local static object, 255, 281 local variable, 227, 281 destructor, 485 lifetime, 254 reference return type, 248 logic_error, 219 logical AND (&&), 152 operand order of evaluation, 172 overloaded operator, 511 logical NOT (!), 153 logical operator, 152 function object, 533 logical OR (||), 152 operand order of evaluation, 172 overloaded operator, 511 logical and<T>,534 logical not<T>,534 logical or<T>,534 long, 34 literal (numL or numl), 38 long double, 37 long double, literal (ddd.dddL or ddd.dddl), 39 lookup, name, 447, 474 and templates, 647 before type checking, 269, 593 multiple inheritance, 738 class member declaration, 447 class member definition, 448, 450 class member definition, examples, 449 collisions under inheritance, 591 depends on static type, 590 multiple inheritance, 735 inheritance, 590, 595 local class, 797 multiple inheritance, 737 ambiguous names, 738 namespace names, 724 argument-dependent lookup, 726 nested class, 791 overloaded virtual functions, 593 virtual inheritance, 743 low-order bits, 102, 107 lower bound, 814 associative container, 377 book finding program, 378 lvalue, 45, 75 assignment, 160 dereference, 99 function reference return type, 249

prefix decrement, 162 prefix increment, 162 subscript, 88

Μ

machine-dependent bitfield layout, 798 char representation, 36 division and modulus result, 151 end-of-file character, 20 iostate type, 288 linkage directive language, 802 nonzero return from main, 247 pre-compiled headers, 67 random file access, 837 reinterpret cast, 185 representation of enum type, 274 return from exception what operation, 220 signed and out-of-range value, 37 signed types and bitwise operators, 155 size of arithmetic types, 34 template compilation optimization, 645 terminate function, 219 type info members, 779 vector memory allocation size, 331 volatile implementation, 799 magic number, 56, 75 main, 2, 29 arguments to, 243 not recursive, 251 return type, 3 return value, 2–5, 247 returns 0 by default, 247 make pair, 358 make plural program, 248 manip, 542 manipulator, 8, 29, 825 boolalpha,826 dec,827 fixed,830 hex, 827 internal,832 left,832 noboolalpha,827 noshowbase, 828 noshowpoint,832 noskipws,833

nouppercase, 828 oct,827 right,832 scientific,830 setfill,832 setprecision,829 setw, 832 showbase, 827 showpoint,831 skipws,833 uppercase, 828 boolalpha,826 change format state, 825 dec,827 endl flushes the buffer, 291 ends flushes the buffer, 291 fixed,830 flush flushes the buffer, 291 hex, 827 internal,832 left,832 noboolalpha,827 noshowbase, 828 noshowpoint,832 noskipws,833 nouppercase, 828 oct,827 right,832 scientific,830 setfill,832 setprecision, 829 setw, 832 showbase, 827 showpoint,831 skipws,833 unitbuf flushes the buffer, 291 uppercase, 828 map, 356, 388 as element type, 311 assignment (=), 328 begin, 369 bidirectional iterator, 417 clear,359 constructors, 360 count, 367 definition, 360 dereference yields pair, 362 element type constraints, 309 empty, 359 end, 369 equal range, 379

erase, 359, 368 find, 368 header, 360 insert,364 iterator, 362 key type constraints, 360 key type, 362 lower bound, 377 mapped type, 362, 388 operations, 358 overriding the default comparison, 604 rbegin, 412 rend, 412 return type from insert, 365 reverse iterator, 412 size,359 subscript operator, 363 supports relational operators, 359 swap, 329 upper bound, 377 value type, 361 mapped type, map, multimap, 362 match, best, 269, 280 max, 822 max element, 822 member, see also class member mutable data, 474 pointer to, 780, 807 member function, 25, 29, 431, 474 const, 280 equal, 778 as friend, 466 base member hidden by derived, 593 class template, 653 defined outside class body, 651 instantiation, 653 const, 261, 262 defined outside class body, 261, 431 definition, 258-262 in class scope, 445 name lookup, 448 name lookup, examples, 449 function template, see member template implicitly inline, 259 inline,437 and header, 437 overloaded, 436 overloaded on const, 442 overloaded operator, 483, 508

pointer to, definition, 782 returning *this, 442 static,467 this pointer, 469 undefined, 482 member operator delete, 764, 806 and inheritance, 764 example, 769 CachedObj,770 interface, 764 member operator delete [], 765 member operator new, 764, 806 example, 769 CachedObj,769 interface, 764 memberoperatornew [],765 member template, 660, 684 declaration, 661 defined outside class body, 662 examples, 660 instantiation, 663 template parameters, 663 memberwise assignment, 483, 503 memberwise initialization, 479, 503 memory exhaustion, 175 memory leak, 177, 485 after exception, 700 memory management, generic, see CachedObj merge, 816 list,423 Message, 486-491 assignment operator, 490 class definition, 488 copy constructor, 489 design, 486 destructor, 491 put Msg in Folder, 489 remove Msg from Folder, 491 method, see member function, 29 Microsoft compiler, 4 min, 822 min element, 822 minus<T>,534 mismatch, 814 mode, file, 296, 302 modulus (%), 151 modulus<T>,534 multi-dimensioned array, 141–144 and pointer, 143 conversion to pointer, 143 definition, 142

initialization, 142 parameter, 241 subscript operator, 142 multi-line literal, 42 multimap, 375, 388 assignment (=), 328 begin, 369 clear, 359 constructors, 360 count, 377 dereference yields pair, 362 element type constraints, 309 empty, 359 equal range, 379 erase, 359, 376 find, 377 has no subscript operator, 376 insert,376 iterator, 362, 376 key type constraints, 360 key type, 362 lower bound, 377 mapped type, 362 operations, 358, 376 overriding the default comparison, 604 rbegin, 412 rend, 412 return type from insert, 365 reverse iterator, 412 size, 359 supports relational operators, 359 swap, 329 upper bound, 377 value type, 361 multiple base class, 750 see also virtual base class ambiguities, 738 ambiguous conversion, 734 avoiding potential name ambiguities, 738 conversions, 734 definition, 731 destructor usually virtual, 736 name lookup, 737 object composition, 732 order of construction, 732 scope, 737 virtual functions, 735 multiple inheritance, see multiple base class, 731

multiplication (*), 150 multiplies<T>,534 multiset, 375, 388 assignment (=), 328 begin, 372 clear,359 constructors, 372 count, 377 element type constraints, 309 end, 372 equal range, 379 erase, 359, 376 find, 377 insert,376 iterator, 376 key type constraints, 360 lower bound, 377 Sales item, 605 operations, 358, 376 overriding the default comparison, 604 rbegin, 412 rend, 412 return type from insert, 373 reverse_iterator,412 supports relational operators, 359 swap, 329 upper_bound,377 example, 607 value type, 372 mutable data member, 443, 474

Ν

n (newline character), 40 name lookup, 447, 474 and templates, 647 before type checking, 269, 593 multiple inheritance, 738 class member declaration, 447 class member definition, 448, 450 class member definition, examples, 449 collisions under inheritance, 591 depends on static type, 590 multiple inheritance, 735 inheritance, 590, 595 local class, 797 multiple inheritance, 737 ambiguous names, 738 namespace names, 724

argument-dependent lookup, 726 nested class, 791 overloaded virtual functions, 593 virtual inheritance, 743 name resolution, see name lookup namespace, 8, 29, 712, 750 class friend declaration scope, 727 cplusplus primer,714 definition, 712 design, 714 discontiguous definition, 714 function matching, 727 global, 716 member, 713 member definition, 716 outside namespace, 716 restrictions, 716 nested, 717 scope, 713-717 unnamed, 718 local to file, 718 replace file static, 719 namespace keyword, 712 namespace alias, 720, 750 namespace pollution, 712, 750 naming convention header file, 264 source file, 264 NDEBUG, 220 negate<T>,534 negator, 535, 553 nested class, 786, 806 access control, 787 class defined outside enclosing class, 789 in class template, 788 in local class, 797 member defined outside class body, 788 name lookup, 791 QueueItem example, 787 relationship to enclosing class, 787, 790 scope, 786 static members, 790 union, 794 nested namespace, 717 nested type, see nsted class786 new, 145, 174, 189, 806 compared to operator new, 760 execution flow, 760

header, 219 member operator, 806 member operator, interface, 764 placement, 761, 807 compared to construct, 762 new [],135 new failure, 175 next permutation, 821 noboolalpha manipulator, 827 NoDefault, 459 nonconst reference, 60 parameter, 232 limitations, 235 nonportable, 42 nonprintable character, 40, 75 nonreference parameter, 230 uses copy constructor, 478 return type, 247 uses copy constructor, 478 nontype template parameter, 625, 628, 632, 684 see also template parameter class template, 655 must be constant expression, 633 nonvirtual function, calls resolved at compile time, 569 noshowbase manipulator, 828 noshowpoint manipulator, 832 noskipws manipulator, 833 not equal, see inequality not1,535 not2,535 not equal to<T>,534 NotQuery, 609 definition, 616 eval function, 620 nouppercase manipulator, 828 nth element, 818 NULL, 118 null pointer, 118 delete of, 176 null statement, 192, 224 null-terminated array, see C-style string number, magic, 56, 75 numeric header, 395 numeric literal float (numF or numf), 39 long (numL or numl), 39 long double (*ddd.ddd*L or *ddd.ddd*l), 39

unsigned (numU or numu), 39

0

object, 46, 75 automatic, 255, 280 function, 553 is not polymorphic, 569 local static, 255, 281 temporary, 247 object cleanup, see destructor object creation constructor, 452 order of construction, 456 derived objects, 581, 582 multiple base classes, 732 virtual base classes, 745 order of destruction, 485 derived objects, 587 multiple base classes, 733 virtual base classes, 747 object file, 68 object lifetime, 254, 281 and destructor, 485 compared to scope, 254 object-oriented programming, 285, 302, 622 key ideas in, 558–560 oct manipulator, 827 octal, literal (0num), 38 octal escape sequence (\nnn) , 40 off-the-end iterator, 97, 394, 425 istream iterator, 408 off-the-end pointer, 125 ofstream, 285, 293-299 see also ostream close, 294 constructor, 293 file marker, 838 file mode, 296 combinations, 298 example, 299 file random access, 838 off type, 839 open, 293 pos type,839 random IO sample program, 840 seek and tell members, 838-842 open, 293 open_file, example of, 370, 383 open file program, 299 operand, **148**, 189

order of evaluation comma operator, 172 conditional operator, 172 logical operator, 172 operator, 148, 189 sizeof, 167 typeid, 775, 807 addition (+), 150 string,86 iterator, 101, 313 pointer, 123 address-of (&), 115 arrow (->), 164 class member access, 445 assignment (=), 13, 30, 159 and conversion, 179 and equality, 161 container, 328 multiple inheritance, 737 pointer, 120 string,86 to signed, 37 to unsigned, 37 yields lvalue, 160 binary, 148, 188 bitwise AND (&), 156 bitwise exclusive or (^), 156 bitwise not (~), 155 bitwise OR (|), 156 bitwise OR (|), example, 290 call (()), 30, 226 comma (,), **168** operand order of evaluation, 172 comma (,), example, 289 compound assginment (e.g.,+=), iterator, 313 compound assignment (e.g.,+=), 13, 30, 161 string,86 arithmetic, 162 bitwise, 162 conditional (?:), 165 operand order of evaluation, 172 decrement (--) iterator, 312 prefix yields lvalue, 162 reverse iterator, 412 dereference (*), 98 and increment, 163 iterator, 98 on map yields pair, 362

pointer, 119 vields lvalue, 99, 120 division (/), 150 dot(.), 25, 30 class member access, 445 equality (==), 30, 154 string,85 algorithm, 421 container, 322 container adaptor, 350 iterator, 98, 312 string, 347 greater-than (>), 30, 153 greater-than-or-equal (>=), 30, 153 increment (++), 13, 30 and dereference, 163 iterator, 98, 312 pointer, 114 prefix yields lvalue, 162 reverse iterator, 412 inequality (!=), 30, 154 container, 322 container adaptor, 350 iterator, 98, 312 string, 347 input (>>), 8, 30 Sales item, 516 istream iterator, 408 string,81 precedence and associativity, 158 left-shift (<<), 155, 190 less-than (<), 30, 153 used by algorithm, 420 less-than-or-equal (<=), 13, 30, 153 logical AND (&&), 152 operand order of evaluation, 172 logical NOT (!), 153 logical OR (||), 152 operand order of evaluation, 172 modulus (%), 151 multiplication (*), 150 output (<<), 7, 30 bitset,106 ostream_iterator, 408 string,81 precedence and associativity, 158 overloaded, 189, 482, 503 pointer to member arrow (->*), 783 dot(.*),783 right-shift (>>), 155, 190

scope (::), 8, 30, 78 class member, 85, 445 container defined type, 317 member function definition, 262 to override name lookup, 449 shift, 155, 190 sizeof,167 subscript ([]) bitset,105 deque, 325 map, 363 string,87 vector, 94, 325 and multi-dimensioned array, 142 and pointer, 124 array, 113 valid subscript range, 88 vields lvalue, 88 subtraction (-), 150 iterator, 101, 313 pointer, 123 unary, 148, 189 unary minus (-), 150 unary plus (+), 150 operator alternative name, 46 operator delete function, 760, 806 compared to deallocate, 761 compared to delete expression, 760 operator delete member, 764 and inheritance, 764 example, 769 CachedObj,770 interface, 764 operator delete [] member, 765 operator new function, 760, 806 compared to allocate, 761 compared to new expression, 760 operator new member, 764 example, 769 CachedObj, 769 interface, 764 operator new [] member, 765 operator overloading, see overloaded operator options to main, 243 order of construction, 456, 749 derived objects, 581, 582 multiple base classes, 732 virtual base classes, 746 order of destruction, 485, 749 derived objects, 587

multiple base classes, 733 virtual base classes, 747 order of evaluation, 149, 189 comma operator, 172 conditional operator, 172 logical operator, 172 ordering, strict weak, 360, 389 OrQuery, 609 definition, 618 eval function, 619 ostream, 6, 29, 285 see also manipulator condition state, 287 floatfield member, 831 flushing output buffer, 290 format state, 825 inheritance hierarchy, 740 no containers of, 310 no copy or assign, 287 not flushed if program crashes, 292 output (<<), 7 precedence and associativity, 158 precision member, 829 seek and tell members, 838 tie member, 292 unsetf member, 831 ostream iterator, 407, 425 and class type, 410 constructors, 408 limitations, 411 operations, 410 output iterator, 417 output operator (<<), 408 used with algorithms, 411 ostringstream, 285, 299-301 see also ostream str,301 out (file mode), 296 out of range, 219, 325 out of stock, 699 output, standard, 6 output (<<), 7, 30 bitset,106 ostream_iterator,408 string, 81, 108 overloaded operator, 513 formatting, 514 must be nonmember, 514 precedence and associativity, 158 Sales item, 514 output iterator, **416**, 425

overflow, 150 overflow error, 219 overload resolution, see function matching overloaded function, 265, 281 using declarations, 728 using directive, 729 compared to redeclaration, 266 compared to template specialization, 673 friend declaration, 467 linkage directive, 803 namespaces, 727 scope, 268 virtual, 593 overloaded member function, 436 on const, 442 overloaded operator, 189, 482, 503 << (output operator), 513 * (dereference), 524 & (address-of), 511 -> (arrow operator), 525 [] (subscript), 522 reference return, 522 () (call operator), 530 = (assignment), 476, 483, 520 and copy constructor, 484 check for self-assignment, 490 Message, 490 reference return, 483, 521 rule of three, 485 use counting, 495, 498 valuelike classes, 501 >> (input operator), 515 error handling, 516–517 must be nonmember, 514 << (output operator) formatting, 514 must be nonmember, 514 Sales item, 514 && (logical AND), 511 | | (logical OR), 511 , (comma operator), 511 addition (+), Sales_item, 517 ambiguous, 550 arithmetic operators, 517 as virtual function, 615 binary operator, 508 candidate functions, 549 compound assignment (e.g.,+=), 511 Sales item, 521

consistency between relational and equality operators, 520 definition, 482, 506 design, 510–513 equality operators, 512, 518 explicit call to, 509 explicit call to postfix operators, 529 function matching, 547–551 member and this pointer, 483 member vs. nonmember function, 508.512 postfix increment (++) and decrement (--) operators, 528 precedence and associativity, 507 prefix increment (++) and decrement (--) operators, 527 relational operators, 511, 520 require class-type parameter, 507 unary operator, 508 overloading, see overloaded function operator, see overloaded operator

Р

pair, 356, 388 as return type from map:::insert, 365 as return type from set::insert, 373 default constructor, 357 definition, 356 initialization, 356 make pair, 358 operations, 357 public data members, 357 Panda, 731 virtual inheritance, 741 parameter, 226, 227, 281 array and buffer overflow, 242 array type, 238–244 C-style string, 242 const, 231 const reference, 235 overloading, 275 ellipsis, 244 function pointer, 278 linkage directive, 804 initialization of, 229 iterator, 238, 242 library container, 237 lifetime, 255

local copy, 230 matching, 229 ellipsis, 244 template specialization, 673 with class type conversion, 541 multi-dimensioned array, 241 nonconst reference, 232 nonreference type, 230 uses copy constructor, 478 of member function, 260 vector type, 237 passing, 229 pointer to const, 231 overloading, 275 pointer to function, 278 linkage directive, 804 pointer to nonconst, 231 pointer type, 231, 239 reference to array type, 240 to pointer, 236 template, see template parameter and main, 243 type checking and template argument, 638 of reference to array, 240 parameter list, 3, 29, 226, 228 member function definition, 446 parentheses, override precedence, 169 partial specialization, 678, 684 partial sort,818 partial sort copy, 818 partial_sum,824 partition,817 placement new, 761, 807 compared to construct, 762 plus<T>, 534 pointer, 114, 114-126, 146 array, 122 arrow (->), 164 as initializer of vector, 140 as parameter, 231 assignment, 120 char*, see C-style string class member copy control, 492–501 copy constructor, 480 destructor, 485 strategies, 499 compared to iterator, 114 compared to reference, 121 const, 128

const pointer to const, 129 container constructor from, 308 conversion from derived to base, 567 conversion from derived to multiple base, 734 conversion to bool, 182 conversion to void, 181 dangling, 176, 188 synthesized copy control, 494 declaration style, 116-117 definition, 115 delete, 176 dynamic cast, example, 773 function returning, 228 implicit this, 260, 281 initialization, 117–119 is polymorphic, 569 multi-dimensioned array, 143 new, 174 null, 118 off-the-end, 125 pitfalls with generic programs, 671 reference parameter, 236 relational operator, 132 return type and local variable, 249 smart, 495, 503, 553 handle class, 599 overloaded -> (arrow operator) and * (dereference), 524 overloaded (++) and (*), 526 subscript operator, 124 to pointer, 122 typedef, 129 typeid operator, 776 uninitialized, 117 volatile,800 pointer arithmetic, 123, 146 pointer to const, 127 argument, 231 conversion from nonconst, 127 parameter, 231 overloading, 275 pointer to function, 276–279 definition, 276 exception specifications, 711 function returning, 228 initialization, 277 linkage directive, 803 overloaded functions, 279 parameter, 278 return type, 278

typedef, 276 pointer to member, 780, 807 and typedef, 783 arrow (->*), 783 definition, 781 dot(.*),783 function pointer, 782 function table, 785 pointer to nonconst argument, 231 parameter, 231 polymorphism, 558, 622 compile time polymorphism via templates, 624 run time polymorphism in C++, 569 pop priority queue, 352 queue, 352 stack, 351 pop back, sequential container, 326 pop_front, sequential container, 326 portable, 797 postfix decrement (--) overloaded operator, 528 yields rvalue, 163 postfix increment (++) and dereference, 163 overloaded operator, 528 precedence, 124, 146, 149, 168, 189 of assignment, 160 of conditional, 166 of dot and derefernece, 164 of increment and dereference, 163 of IO operator, 158 of pointer to member and call operator, 782 overloaded operator, 507 pointer parameter declaration, 241 precedence table, 170 predicate, 402, 425 prefix decrement (--), 163 overloaded operator, 527 yields lvalue, 162 prefix increment (++) and dereference, 163 overloaded operator, 527 yields lvalue, 162 preprocessor, 70, 75 directive, 7, 29 macro, 221, 224 variable, 71

prev_permutation,821 preventing copies of class objects, 481 print total, 559 explained, 568 printable character, 88 printValues program, 240, 242, 243 priority queue, 348, 354 constructors, 349 relational operator, 350 private class, 496 copy constructor, 481 inheritance, 571 member, 75, 474 private access label, 65, 432 inheritance, 561 private inheritance, 622 program factorial, 250 find val, 234 gcd, 226 isShorter,235 make plural, 248 open file, 299 printValues, 240, 242, 243 ptr swap,237 rgcd, 250 swap, 233, 245 vector capacity, 331 book finding using equal range, 379 using find, 377 using upper bound, 378 bookstore, 26 bookstore exception classes, 698 CachedObj,766 duplicate words, 400-404 revisited, 531 find last word, 414 GT6,403 Handle class, 667 int instantiation, 668 operations, 668 Sales_item instantiation, 669 isShorter,403 message handling classes, 486 Query design, 609–611 interface, 610 operations, 607 Queue, 648

copy elems member, 652 destroy member, 651 pop member, 651 push member, 652 random IO example, 840 restricted word count, 374 Sales item handle class, 599 Screen class template, 655 TextOuery, 383 class definition, 382 design, 380 interface, 381 vector, capacity, 331 vowel counting, 200 word count, 363 word transformation, 370 ZooAnimal class hierarchy, 731 programmer-defined header, 67-72 programming generic, 95, 624 object-oriented, 285, 302, 622 promotion, integral, 180, 189 protected, inheritance, 571, 622 protected access label, 562, 622 protected keyword, 562 prototype, function, 251, 281 ptr swap program, 237 ptrdiff t, 123, 146 public inheritance, 571, 622 member, 75, 474 public access label, 65, 432 inheritance, 561 pure virtual function, 596, 622 example, 609 push priority queue, 352 queue, 352 stack, 351 push back, 94, 108 vector,94 back inserter, 399 sequential container, 318 push front front inserter, 406 sequential container, 318 put Msg in Folder, 489

Q

Query, 610

& (bitwise AND), 610 definition, 614 ~ (bitwise NOT), 610 definition, 614 (bitwise OR), 610 definition, 614 << (output operator), 615 definition, 613 design, 609-611 interface, 610 operations, 607 Query base, 609 definition, 612 member functions, 609 Oueue << (output operator), 659 assign, 662 copy elems member, 652, 662 definition, 648 design, 647 destroy member, 651 final class definition, 664 interface, 627 member template declarations, 661 operations, 627 pop member, 651 push, specialized, 677 push member, 652 template version, char*, 675 queue, 348, 354 constructors, 349 relational operator, 350 OueueItem, 648 as nested class, 787 constructor, 789 definition, 788 friendship, 658 CachedObj,768 allocation explained, 769

R

Raccoon as virtual base, 741 RAII, *see* resource allocation is initialization raise, 750 raise exception, *see* throw random file IO, 838 random-access iterator, **417**, 425 deque, 417 string, 417

vector, 417 random shuffle,820 range iterator, 314, 314-316, 354 left-inclusive, 314 range error, 219 rbegin, container, 317, 412 rdstate,290 recursive function, 249, 281 refactoring, 583, 622 referece, 317 reference, 58, 75 and pointer, 121 const reference, 59 initialization, 60 conversion from derived to base, 567 conversion from derived to multiple base, 734 dynamic cast operator, example, 774 is polymorphic, 569 nonconst reference, 60 parameter, 232–237 pointer parameter, 236 return type, is lvalue, 249 return type and class object, 440 return type and local variable, 249 return value, 248 to array parameter, 240 reference count, see use count reference data member, initialization, 455 reference to const, see const reference reinterpret_cast, 183, 185 relational operator, 153 string,85 associative container, 359 container, 321 container adaptor, 350 function object, 533 overloaded operator, 511, 520 consistent with equality, 520 pointer, 132 remove, 819 list,423 remove copy, 820 remove copy if,820 remove if, 819 list,423 remove_Msg_from_Folder,491 rend, container, 317, 412 replace, 400, 816

string, 342 replace copy, 400, 815 replace copy if,815 replace if,816 reserve string, 336 vector, 331 reserved identifier, 47 resize, sequential container, 323 Resource, 700 resource allocation is initialization, 700-701 auto ptr,702 restricted word count program, 374 result, 148, 189 rethrow, 695, 750 return, container, 381 return statement, 245-251 from main, 247 implicit, 245 local variable, 247, 249 return type, 3, 29, 226, 227 const reference, 249 function, 281 function pointer, 278 linkage directive, 804 member function definition, 446 no implicit return type, 228 nonreference, 247 uses copy constructor, 478 of virtual function, 564 pointer to function, 278 reference, 248 reference yields lvalue, 249 void, 245 return value conversion, 246 copied, 247 reverse, 819 list,423 reverse iterator, 405, 412–415, 425 -- (decrement), 412 ++ (increment), 412 base, 414 compared to iterator, 413, 414 example, 414 requires -- (decrement), 413 reverse copy, 819 reverse_iterator, 412 container, 316 rfind, string, 346

rgcd program, 250 right manipulator, 832 right-shift (>>), 155, 190 rotate,819 rotate copy, 820 rule of three, 485, 503 exception for virtual destructors, 588 run time, 75 error, 38 run-time type identification, 772-780, 807 classes with virtual functions, 772 compared to virtual functions, 777 dynamic cast,773 example, 773 throws bad cast, 774 to poiner, 773 to reference, 774 type-sensitive equality, 778 typeid,775 and virtual functions, 775 example, 776 returns type info, 776 runtime error, 217, 219 constructor from string, 218 rvalue, 45, 75

S

safety, exception, 700 Sales item, 21 addition (+), 23, 517 throws exception, 217, 699 class definition, 64, 258–265 compare function, 604 compound assignment (e.g.,+=), 521 conversion, 461 default constructor, 263 equality operators (==), (!=), 519explicit constructor, 462 handle class, 599 clone function, 602 constructor, 601, 602 definition, 600 design, 599 multiset of, 605 using generic Handle, 669 header, 21, 67, 264 input (>>), 516 istream constructor, 452 no relational operators, 520 operations, 21

output (<<), 514 avg price definition, 261 same isbn, 24, 258 string constructor, 452 scientific manipulator, 830 scope, 54, 75 const object, 57, 69 block, 193 class, 65, 444, 473 compared to object lifetime, 254 for statement, 15 friend declaration, 466 function, 227 function template specialization, 674 global, 54, 74 local, 54, 75 multiple inheritance, 737 namespace, 713-717 statement, 194 template parameter, 629 using declaration, 720 using directive, 721 example, 722 name collisions, 723 scope (::) base class members, 569 namespace member, 750 scope operator (::), 8, 30, 78, 108 class member, 85, 445 container defined type, 317 member function definition, 262 namespace member, 713 to override class-specific memory allocation, 765 to override name lookup, 449 Screen, 435 class template, 655 concatenating operations, 441 display, 442 do display, 442 friends, 465 get definition, 446 get members, 436 get cursor definition, 446 CachedObj,768 Menu function table, 785 move members, 441 set members, 441 simplified, 781 size type, 435 ScreenPtr, 523

arrow operator (->), 525 dereference (*), 524 use counted, 523 ScrPtr, 523 search, 813 search n,813 self-assignment auto_ptr,705 check, 490 use counting, 498 semantics, value, 499, 503 semicolon (;), 3 semicolon (;), class definition, 440 sentinel, 97, 108 separate compilation, 67, 76 inclusion model for templates, 644 of templates, 643 separate compilation model for templates, 645, 684 sequence, escape, 74 sequence (\Xnnn), hexadecimal escape, 40 sequential container, 306, 354 assign, 328 assignment (=), 328 back, 324 clear, 327 const iterator, 316 const_reverse_iterator,316 constructor from element count uses copy constructor, 478 uses element default constructor, 460 constructors, 307-309 deque, 306 element type constraints, 309, 323 empty, 323 erase, 326 front, 324 insert,319 iterator, 316 list,306 operations, 316-330 performance characteristics, 333 pop_back, 326 pop front, 326 priority queue, 348 push back, 318 push front, 318 queue, 348 rbegin, 412 rend, 412

resize, 323 returning a, 381 reverse iterator, 316, 412 size, 323 size type, 316 stack, 348 supports relational operators, 321 swap, 329 types defined by, 316 value type,317 vector, 306 set, 356, 388 as element type, 311 assignment (=), 328 begin, 372 bidirectional iterator, 417 clear,359 constructors, 372 count, 372 element type constraints, 309 empty, 359 end, 372 equal range, 379 erase, 359, 372 find, 372 insert,373 iterator, 374 key type constraints, 360 lower_bound, 377 operations, 358 overriding the default comparison, 604 rbegin, 412 rend, 412 return alternatives, 381 return type from insert, 373 reverse_iterator,412 size,359 supports relational operators, 359 swap, 329 upper bound, 377 value type, 372 set difference, 822 set_intersection, 619, 822 set symmetric difference, 822 set union,822 setfill manipulator, 832 setprecision manipulator, 829 setstate, 289, 290 setw manipulator, 832 shift operator, 155, 190

short,34 short-circuit evaluation, 152 overloaded operator, 508 shorterString,248 showbase manipulator, 827 showpoint manipulator, 831 signed, 35, 76 conversion to unsigned, 36, 180 size, 108 string,83 vector,93 associative container, 359 priority queue, 352 queue, 352 sequential container, 323 stack, 351 size_t, 104, 108, 146 and array, 113 size type, 84, 108 string,84 vector,93 container, 316 sizeof operator, 167 skipws manipulator, 833 sliced, 579, 622 SmallInt, 536, 550 conversion operator, 537 smart pointer, 495, 503, 553 handle class, 599 overloaded -> (arrow operator) and * (dereference), 524 overloaded (++) and (*), 526 sort, 401, 817 source file, 4, 29 naming convention, 264 specialization class template definition, 675 member defined outside class body, 676 partial, 678 partial specialization, 684 class template member, 677 declaration, 677 function template compared to overloaded function, 673 declaration, 672, 673 example, 672 scope, 674 template, namespaces, 730

specifier, type, 48, 76 splice, list, 423 sstream header, 285, 300 str.301 stable partition,817 stable sort, 403, 817 stack, 348, 354 constructors, 349 relational operator, 350 stack unwinding, 691, 750 standard error, 6, 29 standard input, 6, 29 standard library, 5, 29 standard output, 6, 30 state, condition, 302 statement, 2, 30 break, 212, 223 continue, 214, 223 do while, 210 for, 29, 207 goto, 214, 224 if, 17, 29, 195, 224 return, 245-251 switch, 199, 224 while, 12, 30, 204, 224 compound, 193, 223 declaration, 193, 224 expression, 192, 224 for statementfor, 14 labeled, 214, 224 null, **192**, 224 return, local variable, 247, 249 statement block, see block statement label, 214 statement scope, 194 statementfor statement, for, 14 static (file static), 719 static class member, 467, 474 as default argument, 471 class template, 665 accessed through an instantiation, 666 definition, 666 const data member, initialization, 470 const member function, 469 data member, 469 as constant expression, 471 inheritance, 576 member function, 467
this pointer, 469 static object, local, 255, 281 static type, 568, 622 determines name lookup, 590 multiple inheritance, 735 static type checking, 44, 76 argument, 229 function return value, 246 static cast, 183, 185 std, 8, 30 stdexcept header, 217, 219 store, free, 135, 145 str,301 strcat, 133 strcmp, 133 strcpy, 133 stream istream iterator, 407 ostream iterator,407 flushing buffer, 290 iterator, 405, 407-412 and class type, 410 limitations, 411 used with algorithms, 411 not flushed if program crashes, 292 type as condition, 19 stream iterator, 425 strict weak ordering, 360, 389 string, C-style, see C-style string string, 80-89 addition, 86 addition to string literal, 87 and string literal, 81, 140 append, 342 are case sensitive, 344 as sequential container, 335 assign, 340 assignment (=), 86 c str,140 c str, example, 294 capacity, 336 compare, 347 compared to C-style string, 134 compound assignment, 86 concatenation, 86 constructor, 80, 338-339 default constructor, 52 empty,83 equality (==), 85 equality operator, 347 erase,340

find, 344 find first not of, 346 find first of,345 find last not of, 346 find last of, 346 getline,82 getline, example, 300 header, 80 input operation as condition, 82 input operator, 81 insert,340 output operator, 81 random-access iterator, 417 relational operator, 85, 347 replace, 342 reserve, 336 rfind,346 size,83 size type,84 subscript operator, 87 substr, 342 string literal, 9, 30, 40 addition to string, 87 and string library type, 81, 140 and C-style string, 140 concatenation, 41 stringstream, 285, 299-301, 302 see also istream see also ostream str,301 strlen,133 strncat, 133 strncpy, 133 struct, see also class default access label, 433 default inheritance access label, 574 struct, keyword, 66, 76, 474 in variable definition, 440 structure, data, 20, 28 Studio, Visual, 4 subscript ([]), 87, 108, 146, 389 bitset,105 deque, 325 map, 363 string,87 vector, 94, 325 and multi-dimensioned array, 142 and pointer, 124 array, 113 overloaded operator, 522 reference return, 522

valid subscript range, 88 yields lvalue, 88 subscript range string,88 vector,96 array, 114 substr, string, 342 subtraction (-), 150 iterator, 101, 313 pointer, 123 swap, 329, 816 container, 329 swap program, 233, 245 swap ranges, 816 switch statement, 199, 224 default label, 203 and break, 201-203 case label, 201 compared to if, 199 execution flow, 201 expression, 203 variable definition, 204 synthesized assignment (=), 483, 503 multiple inheritance, 737 pointer members, 493 synthesized copy constructor, 479, 503 multiple inheritance, 737 pointer members, 493 virtual base class, 747 synthesized copy control, volatile, 800 synthesized default constructor, 264, 281, 459, 474 inheritance, 581 synthesized destructor, 485, 486 multiple inheritance, 737 pointer members, 493

T

\t (tab character), 40
table of library name and header, 810
template
 see also class template
 see also function template
 see also instantiation
 class, 90, 107
 class member, see member template
 link time errors, 635
 overview, 624
template keyword, 625
template argument, 625, 684

and function argument type checking, 638 class template, 628 conversion, 638 deduction. 684 from function pointer, 640 deduction for class template member function, 653 deduction for function template, 637 explicit and class template, 636 explicit and function template, 642 and function pointer, 643 specifying, 642 pointer, 671 template argument deduction, 637 template class, see class template template function, see function template template parameter, 625, 628–633, 684 and member templates, 663 name, 628 restrictions on use, 629 nontype parameter, 625, 628, 632, 684 class template, 655 must be constant expression, 633 scope, 629 type parameter, 625, 628, 630, 684 uses of inside class definition, 649 template parameter list, 625, 684 template specialization, 672, 684 class member declaration, 677 compared to overloaded function, 673 definition, 675 example, 672 function declaration, 672, 673 member defined outside class body, 676 member of class template, 677 parameter matching, 673 partial specialization, 678, 684 scope, 674 template<>, see template specialization temporary object, 247 terminate, 219, 219, 224, 692, 750 TextQuery class definition, 382 main program using, 383 program design, 380 program interface, 381 revisited, 609 this pointer implicit, 260, 281

implicit parameter, 431, 440 in overloaded operator, 483 overloaded operator, 508 static member functions, 469 three, rule of, 485, 503 throw, 216, 216, 224, 689, 750 example, 217, 290 execution flow, 218, 691 pointer to local object, 690 rethrow, 695 tolower,88 top priority queue, 352 stack, 351 toupper,88 transform, 815 transformation program, word, 370 translation unit, see source file trunc (file mode), 296 try block, 216, 217, 224, 750 try keyword, 217 type abstract data, 78, 473 arithmetic, 34, 73 built-in, 3, 28, 34-37 class, 20, 28, 65 compound, 58, 73, 145 dynamic, 568, 622 function return, 281 incomplete, 438, 474 integral, 34, 75 library, 29 nested, see nsted class786 return, 3, 29, 226, 227 static, 568, 622 determines name lookup, 590 name lookup and multiple inheritance, 735 type checking, 44 argument, 229 with class type conversion, 541 ellipsis parameter, 244 name lookup, 269 reference to array argument, 240 type identification, run-time, 772–780, 807 type specifier, 48, 76 type template parameter, 628, 630, 684 see also template parameter type_info,807 header, 219 name member, 780

no copy or assign, 780 operations, 779 returned from typeid, 776 typedef and pointer, 129 and pointer to member, 783 pointer to function, 276 typedef, 61, 76 typeid operator, 775, 807 and virtual functions, 775 example, 776 returns type info, 776 typename, keyword compared to class, 631 in template parameter, 630 inside template definition, 632

U

U Ptr,496 unary function object, 533 unary minus (-), 150 unary operator, 148, 189 unary plus (+), 150 uncaught exception, 692 undefined behavior, 41, 76 dangling pointer, 176 synthesized copy control, 494 invalidated iterator, 315 uninitialized class data member, 459 uninitialized pointer, 117 uninitialized variable, 51 underflow error, 219 unexpected, 708, 750 uninitialized, 8, 30, 51, 76 uninitialized pointer, 117 uninitialized copy, 755, 759 uninitialized fill,755 union, **792**, 807 anonymous, **795**, 805 as nested type, 794 example, 794 limitations on, 793 union keyword, 793 unique, 402, 819 list,423 unique copy, 412, 820 unitbuf, manipulator flushes the buffer, 291 unnamed namespace, 718, 750 local to file, 718

replace file static, 719 unsigned, 35, 76 conversion to signed, 36, 180 literal (numU or numu), 39 unsigned char, 36 unwinding, stack, 691, 750 upper bound, 814 associative container, 377 book finding program, 378 example, 607 uppercase manipulator, 828 use count, 495, 503 design overview, 495 generic class, 667 held in companion class, 496 pointer to, 600 self-assignment check, 498 user, 433, 563 using declaration, 78, 108, 720, 750 access control, 573 class member access, 574 in header, 80 overloaded function, 728 overloaded inherited functions, 593 scope, 720 using directive, 721, 751 overloaded function, 729 pitfalls, 724 scope, 721 example, 722 name collisions, 723 utility header, 356

V

value initialization, 92, 108 map subscript operator, 363 vector,92 and dynamically allocated array, 136 dequedeque, 309 listlist, 309 of dynamically allocated object, 175 and resize, 324 sequential container, 309 vectorvector, 309 value semantics, 499, 503 value type, 389 map, multimap, 361 sequential container, 317 set, multiset, 372 varargs, 244

variable, 8, 30, 43-55 define before use, 44 defined after case label, 204 definition, 48 definitions and goto, 215 initialization, 48, 50, 76 constructor, 452 local, 227, 281 scope, 55 Vector,757 capacity,757 memory allocation strategy, 757 push back, 758 reallocate,758 size,757 using operator new and delete, 761 using explicit destructor call, 763 using placement new, 762 vector, 90-95, 354 argument, 237 as element type, 311 assign, 328 assignment (=), 328 at,325 back, 324 begin, 97, 317 capacity, 331 clear, 327 const iterator, 99, 316 const reference, 317 const reverse iterator, 316 constructor from element count, uses copy constructor, 478 constructor taking iterators, 140 constructors, 91-92, 307-309 difference type, 316 element type constraints, 309, 323 empty, 93, 323 end, 97, 317 erase, 326, 402 invalidates iterator, 326 front, 324 header, 90 initialization from pointer, 140 insert, 319 invalidates iterator, 320 iterator, 97, 316 iterator supports arithmetic, 312 memory allocation strategy, 756 memory management strategy, 330

parameter, 237 performance characteristics, 334 pop back, 326 push back, 94, 318 invalidates iterator, 321 random-access iterator, 417 rbegin, 317, 412 reference, 317 relational operators, 321 rend, 317, 412 reserve, 331 resize, 323 reverse iterator, 316, 412 size, 93, 323 size type, 93, 316 subscript ([]), 325 subscript operator, 94 supports relational operators, 313 swap, 329 type, 91 types defined by, 316 value type, 317 vector capacity program, 331 viable function, 270, 282 with class type conversion, 545 virtual base class, **741**, 751 ambiguities, 743 conversion, 743 defining base as, 742 derived class constructor, 744 name lookup, 743 order of construction, 746 stream types, 741 virtual function, 559, 566-570, 622 assignment operator, 588 calls resolved at run time, 568 compared to run-time type identification, 777 default argument, 570 derived classes, 564 destructor, 587 multiple inheritance, 736 exception specifications, 710 in constructors, 589 in destructor, 589 introduction, 561 multiple inheritance, 735 no virtual constructor, 588 overloaded, 593 overloaded operator, 615 overriding run-time binding, 570

pure, 596, 622 example, 609 return type, 564 run-time type identification, 772 scope, 594 static,469 to copy unknown type, 602 type-sensitive equality, 778 virtual inheritance, 741, 751 virtual keyword, 559 Visual Studio, 4 void, 34, 76 return type, 245 void*, 119, 146 const void*, 127, 145 volatile, 800, 807 pointer, 800 synthesized copy control, 800 vowel counting program, 200

W

wcerr, 286 wchar t,34 literal, 40 wchar t streams, 286 wcin, 286 wcout, 286 weak ordering, strict, 360, 389 wfstream, 286 what, see exception while statement, 12, 30, 204, 224 condition in, 205 whitespace, 81 wide character streams, 286 wifstream, 286 window, console, 6 Window Mgr, 465 wiostream, 286 wistream, 286 wistringstream, 286 wofstream, 286 word, 35, 76 word count program, 363 restricted, 374 word per line processing istringstream, 386 istringstreamistringstream, 370 istringstream, 300 word transformation program, 370 WordQuery, 609

definition, 616 wostream, 286 wostringstream, 286 wrap around, 38 wstringstream, 286

X

\Xnnn (hexadecimal escape sequence), 40

Ζ

ZooAnimal, using virtual inheritance, 741 ZooAnimal class hierarchy, 731