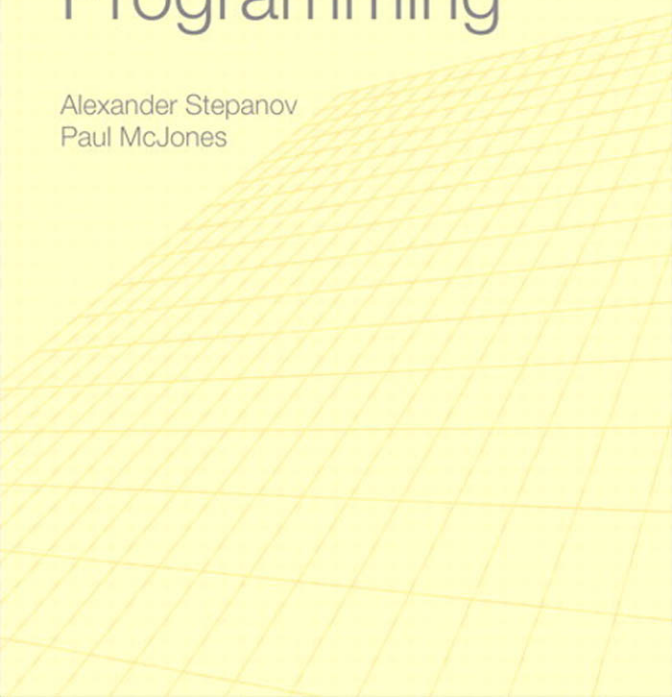




Elements of Programming

Alexander Stepanov
Paul McJones



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Alexander Stepanov
Paul McJones

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Contents

Preface *ix*

About the Authors *xiii*

1 Foundations 1

- 1.1 Categories of Ideas: Entity, Species, Genus 1
- 1.2 Values 2
- 1.3 Objects 4
- 1.4 Procedures 6
- 1.5 Regular Types 6
- 1.6 Regular Procedures 8
- 1.7 Concepts 10
- 1.8 Conclusions 14

2 Transformations and Their Orbits 15

- 2.1 Transformations 15
- 2.2 Orbits 18
- 2.3 Collision Point 21
- 2.4 Measuring Orbit Sizes 27
- 2.5 Actions 28
- 2.6 Conclusions 29

3 Associative Operations 31

- 3.1 Associativity 31
- 3.2 Computing Powers 33

3.3	Program Transformations	35
3.4	Special-Case Procedures	39
3.5	Parameterizing Algorithms	42
3.6	Linear Recurrences	43
3.7	Accumulation Procedures	46
3.8	Conclusions	47
4	Linear Orderings	49
4.1	Classification of Relations	49
4.2	Total and Weak Orderings	51
4.3	Order Selection	52
4.4	Natural Total Ordering	61
4.5	Clusters of Derived Procedures	62
4.6	Extending Order-Selection Procedures	63
4.7	Conclusions	63
5	Ordered Algebraic Structures	65
5.1	Basic Algebraic Structures	65
5.2	Ordered Algebraic Structures	70
5.3	Remainder	71
5.4	Greatest Common Divisor	76
5.5	Generalizing gcd	79
5.6	Stein gcd	81
5.7	Quotient	81
5.8	Quotient and Remainder for Negative Quantities	83
5.9	Concepts and Their Models	85
5.10	Computer Integer Types	87
5.11	Conclusions	88
6	Iterators	89
6.1	Readability	89
6.2	Iterators	90
6.3	Ranges	92
6.4	Readable Ranges	95

6.5	Increasing Ranges	103
6.6	Forward Iterators	106
6.7	Indexed Iterators	110
6.8	Bidirectional Iterators	111
6.9	Random-Access Iterators	113
6.10	Conclusions	114
7	Coordinate Structures	115
7.1	Bifurcate Coordinates	115
7.2	Bidirectional Bifurcate Coordinates	119
7.3	Coordinate Structures	124
7.4	Isomorphism, Equivalence, and Ordering	124
7.5	Conclusions	131
8	Coordinates with Mutable Successors	133
8.1	Linked Iterators	133
8.2	Link Rearrangements	134
8.3	Applications of Link Rearrangements	140
8.4	Linked Bifurcate Coordinates	143
8.5	Conclusions	148
9	Copying	149
9.1	Writability	149
9.2	Position-Based Copying	151
9.3	Predicate-Based Copying	157
9.4	Swapping Ranges	164
9.5	Conclusions	168
10	Rearrangements	169
10.1	Permutations	169
10.2	Rearrangements	172
10.3	Reverse Algorithms	174
10.4	Rotate Algorithms	178
10.5	Algorithm Selection	186
10.6	Conclusions	189

11 Partition and Merging	191
11.1 Partition	191
11.2 Balanced Reduction	198
11.3 Merging	202
11.4 Conclusions	208
12 Composite Objects	209
12.1 Simple Composite Objects	209
12.2 Dynamic Sequences	216
12.3 Underlying Type	222
12.4 Conclusions	225
Afterword	227
Appendix A Mathematical Notation	231
Appendix B Programming Language	233
B.1 Language Definition	233
B.2 Macros and Trait Structures	240
<i>Bibliography</i>	243
<i>Index</i>	247

Preface

This book applies the deductive method to programming by affiliating programs with the abstract mathematical theories that enable them to work. Specification of these theories, algorithms written in terms of these theories, and theorems and lemmas describing their properties are presented together. The implementation of the algorithms in a real programming language is central to the book. While the specifications, which are addressed to human beings, should, and even must, combine rigor with appropriate informality, the code, which is addressed to the computer, must be absolutely precise even while being general.

As with other areas of science and engineering, the appropriate foundation of programming is the deductive method. It facilitates the decomposition of complex systems into components with mathematically specified behavior. That, in turn, is a necessary precondition for designing efficient, reliable, secure, and economical software.

The book is addressed to those who want a deeper understanding of programming, whether they are full-time software developers, or scientists and engineers for whom programming is an important part of their professional activity.

The book is intended to be read from beginning to end. Only by reading the code, proving the lemmas, and doing the exercises can readers gain understanding of the material. In addition, we suggest several projects, some open-ended. While the book is terse, a careful reader will eventually see the connections between its parts and the reasons for our choice of material. Discovering the architectural principles of the book should be the reader's goal.

We assume an ability to do elementary algebraic manipulations.¹ We also assume familiarity with the basic vocabulary of logic and set theory at the level of undergraduate courses on discrete mathematics; Appendix A summarizes the notation that we use. We provide definitions of a few concepts of abstract algebra when they are

1. For a refresher on elementary algebra, we recommend Chrystal [1904].

needed to specify algorithms. We assume programming maturity and understanding of computer architecture² and fundamental algorithms and data structures.³

We chose C++ because it combines powerful abstraction facilities with faithful representation of the underlying machine.⁴ We use a small subset of the language and write requirements as structured comments. We hope that readers not already familiar with C++ are able to follow the book. Appendix B specifies the subset of the language used in the book.⁵ Wherever there is a difference between mathematical notation and C++, the typesetting and the context determine whether the mathematical or C++ meaning applies. While many concepts and programs in the book have parallels in STL (the C++ Standard Template Library), the book departs from some of the STL design decisions. The book also ignores issues that a real library, such as STL, has to address: namespaces, visibility, inline directives, and so on.

Chapter 1 describes values, objects, types, procedures, and concepts. Chapters 2–5 describe algorithms on algebraic structures, such as semigroups and totally ordered sets. Chapters 6–11 describe algorithms on abstractions of memory. Chapter 12 describes objects containing other objects. The Afterword presents our reflections on the approach presented by the book.

Acknowledgments

We are grateful to Adobe Systems and its management for supporting the Foundations of Programming course and this book, which grew out of it. In particular, Greg Gilley initiated the course and suggested writing the book; Dave Story and then Bill Hensler provided unwavering support. Finally, the book would not have been possible without Sean Parent's enlightened management and continuous scrutiny of the code and the text. The ideas in the book stem from our close collaboration, spanning almost three decades, with Dave Musser. Bjarne Stroustrup deliberately evolved C++ to support these ideas. Both Dave and Bjarne were kind enough to come to San Jose and carefully review the preliminary draft. Sean Parent and Bjarne Stroustrup wrote the appendix defining the C++ subset used in the book. Jon Brandt reviewed multiple drafts of the book. John Wilkinson carefully read the final manuscript, providing innumerable valuable suggestions.

2. We recommend Patterson and Hennessy [2007].

3. For a selective but incisive introduction to algorithms and data structures, we recommend Tarjan [1983].

4. The standard reference is Stroustrup [2000].

5. The code in the book compiles and runs under Microsoft Visual C++ 9 and g++ 4. This code, together with a few trivial macros that enable it to compile, as well as unit tests, can be downloaded from www.elementsofprogramming.com.

The book has benefited significantly from the contributions of our editor, Peter Gordon, our project editor, Elizabeth Ryan, our copy editor, Evelyn Pyle, and the editorial reviewers: Matt Austern, Andrew Koenig, David Musser, Arch Robison, Jerry Schwarz, Jeremy Siek, and John Wilkinson.

We thank all the students who took the course at Adobe and an earlier course at SGI for their suggestions. We hope we succeeded in weaving the material from these courses into a coherent whole. We are grateful for comments from Dave Abrahams, Andrei Alexandrescu, Konstantine Arkoudas, John Banning, Hans Boehm, Angelo Borsotti, Jim Dehnert, John DeTreville, Boris Fomitchev, Kevlin Henney, Jussi Ketonen, Karl Malbrain, Mat Marcus, Larry Masinter, Dave Parent, Dmitry Polukhin, Jon Reid, Mark Ruzon, Geoff Scott, David Simons, Anna Stepanov, Tony Van Eerd, Walter Vannini, Tim Winkler, and Oleg Zabljuda. We thank John Banning, Bob English, Steven Gratton, Max Hailperin, Eugene Kirpichov, Alexei Nekrassov, Mark Ruzon, and Hao Song for finding errors in the first printing. We thank Foster Brereton, Gabriel Dos Reis, Ryan Ernst, Abraham Sebastian, Mike Spertus, Henning Thielemann, and Carla Villoria Burgazzi for finding errors in the second printing.⁶

Finally, we are grateful to all the people who taught us through their writings or in person, and to the institutions that allowed us to deepen our understanding of programming.

6. See www.elementsofprogramming.com for the up-to-date errata.

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About the Authors

Alexander Stepanov studied mathematics at Moscow State University from 1967 to 1972. He has been programming since 1972: first in the Soviet Union and, after emigrating in 1977, in the United States. He has programmed operating systems, programming tools, compilers, and libraries. His work on foundations of programming has been supported by GE, Brooklyn Polytechnic, AT&T, HP, SGI, and Adobe. In 1995 he received the *Dr. Dobb's Journal* Excellence in Programming Award for the design of the C++ Standard Template Library.

Paul McJones studied engineering mathematics at the University of California, Berkeley, from 1967 to 1971. He has been programming since 1967 in the areas of operating systems, programming environments, transaction processing systems, and enterprise and consumer applications. He has been employed by the University of California, IBM, Xerox, Tandem, DEC, and Adobe. In 1982 he and his coauthors received the ACM Programming Systems and Languages Paper Award for their paper “The Recovery Manager of the System R Database Manager.”

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Transformations and Their Orbits

This chapter defines a transformation as a unary regular function from a type to itself. Successive applications of a transformation starting from an initial value determine an orbit of this value. Depending only on the regularity of the transformation and the finiteness of the orbit, we implement an algorithm for determining orbit structures that can be used in different domains. For example, it could be used to detect a cycle in a linked list or to analyze a pseudorandom number generator. We derive an interface to the algorithm as a set of related procedures and definitions for their arguments and results. This analysis of an orbit-structure algorithm allows us to introduce our approach to programming in the simplest possible setting.

2.1 Transformations

While there are functions from any sequence of types to any type, particular classes of signatures commonly occur. In this book we frequently use two such classes: *homogeneous predicates* and *operations*. Homogeneous predicates are of the form $T \times \dots \times T \rightarrow \text{bool}$; operations are functions of the form $T \times \dots \times T \rightarrow T$. While there are n -ary predicates and n -ary operations, we encounter mostly unary and binary homogeneous predicates and unary and binary operations.

A *predicate* is a functional procedure returning a truth value:

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Predicate}(P) &\triangleq \\ &\quad \text{FunctionalProcedure}(P) \\ &\quad \wedge \text{Codomain}(P) = \text{bool} \end{aligned}$$

A homogeneous predicate is one that is also a homogeneous function:

$$\begin{aligned} \text{HomogeneousPredicate}(\mathbf{P}) &\triangleq \\ &\text{Predicate}(\mathbf{P}) \\ &\wedge \text{HomogeneousFunction}(\mathbf{P}) \end{aligned}$$

A *unary predicate* is a predicate taking one parameter:

$$\begin{aligned} \text{UnaryPredicate}(\mathbf{P}) &\triangleq \\ &\text{Predicate}(\mathbf{P}) \\ &\wedge \text{UnaryFunction}(\mathbf{P}) \end{aligned}$$

An *operation* is a homogeneous function whose codomain is equal to its domain:

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Operation}(\text{Op}) &\triangleq \\ &\text{HomogeneousFunction}(\text{Op}) \\ &\wedge \text{Codomain}(\text{Op}) = \text{Domain}(\text{Op}) \end{aligned}$$

Examples of operations:

```
int abs(int x) {
    if (x < 0) return -x; else return x;
} // unary operation
```

```
double euclidean_norm(double x, double y) {
    return sqrt(x * x + y * y);
} // binary operation
```

```
double euclidean_norm(double x, double y, double z) {
    return sqrt(x * x + y * y + z * z);
} // ternary operation
```

Lemma 2.1 $\text{euclidean_norm}(x, y, z) = \text{euclidean_norm}(\text{euclidean_norm}(x, y), z)$

This lemma shows that the ternary version can be obtained from the binary version. For reasons of efficiency, expressiveness, and, possibly, accuracy, the ternary version is part of the computational basis for programs dealing with three-dimensional space.

A procedure is *partial* if its definition space is a subset of the direct product of the types of its inputs; it is *total* if its definition space is equal to the direct product. We follow standard mathematical usage, where partial function includes total function. We call partial procedures that are not total *nontotal*. Implementations of some total functions are nontotal on the computer because of the finiteness of the representation. For example, addition on signed 32-bit integers is nontotal.

A nontotal procedure is accompanied by a precondition specifying its definition space. To verify the correctness of a call of that procedure, we must determine that the arguments satisfy the precondition. Sometimes, a partial procedure is passed as a parameter to an algorithm that needs to determine at runtime the definition space of the procedural parameter. To deal with such cases, we define a *definition-space predicate* with the same inputs as the procedure; the predicate returns true if and only if the inputs are within the definition space of the procedure. Before a nontotal procedure is called, either its precondition must be satisfied, or the call must be guarded by a call of its definition-space predicate.

Exercise 2.1 Implement a definition-space predicate for addition on 32-bit signed integers.

This chapter deals with unary operations, which we call *transformations*:

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Transformation}(\mathbf{F}) &\triangleq \\ &\text{Operation}(\mathbf{F}) \\ &\wedge \text{UnaryFunction}(\mathbf{F}) \\ &\wedge \text{DistanceType} : \text{Transformation} \rightarrow \text{Integer} \end{aligned}$$

We discuss `DistanceType` in the next section.

Transformations are self-composable: $f(x)$, $f(f(x))$, $f(f(f(x)))$, and so on. The definition space of $f(f(x))$ is the intersection of the definition space and result space of f . This ability to self-compose, together with the ability to test for equality, allows us to define interesting algorithms.

When f is a transformation, we define its powers as follows:

$$f^n(x) = \begin{cases} x & \text{if } n = 0, \\ f^{n-1}(f(x)) & \text{if } n > 0 \end{cases}$$

To implement an algorithm to compute $f^n(x)$, we need to specify the requirement for an integer type. We study various concepts describing integers in Chapter 5. For now we rely on the intuitive understanding of integers. Their models include signed and unsigned integral types, as well as arbitrary-precision integers, with these operations and literals:

	Specifications	C++
Sum	+	+
Difference	−	−
Product	⋅	*
Quotient	/	/
Remainder	mod	%
Zero	0	I (0)
One	1	I (1)
Two	2	I (2)

where I is an integer type.

That leads to the following algorithm:

```
template<typename F, typename N>
    requires(Transformation(F) && Integer(N))
Domain(F) power_unary(Domain(F) x, N n, F f)
{
    // Precondition:  $n \geq 0 \wedge (\forall i \in \mathbb{N}) 0 < i \leq n \Rightarrow f^i(x)$  is defined
    while (n != N(0)) {
        n = n - N(1);
        x = f(x);
    }
    return x;
}
```

2.2 Orbits

To understand the global behavior of a transformation, we examine the structure of its *orbits*: elements reachable from a starting element by repeated applications of the transformation. y is *reachable* from x under a transformation f if for some $n \geq 0$, $y = f^n(x)$. x is *cyclic* under f if for some $n \geq 1$, $x = f^n(x)$. x is *terminal* under f if and only if x is not in the definition space of f . The *orbit* of x under a transformation f is the set of all elements reachable from x under f .

Lemma 2.2 An orbit does not contain both a cyclic and a terminal element.

Lemma 2.3 An orbit contains at most one terminal element.

If y is reachable from x under f , the *distance* from x to y is the least number of transformation steps from x to y . Obviously, distance is not always defined.

Given a transformation type F , $\text{DistanceType}(F)$ is an integer type large enough to encode the maximum number of steps by any transformation $f \in F$ from one element of $T = \text{Domain}(F)$ to another. If type T occupies k bits, there can be as many as 2^k values but only $2^k - 1$ steps between distinct values. Thus if T is a fixed-size type, an integral type of the same size is a valid distance type for any transformation on T . (Instead of using the distance type, we allow the use of any integer type in `power_unary`, since the extra generality does not appear to hurt there.) It is often the case that all transformation types over a domain have the same distance type. In this case the type function DistanceType is defined for the domain type and defines the corresponding type function for the transformation types.

The existence of DistanceType leads to the following procedure:

```
template<typename F>
    requires(Transformation(F))
DistanceType(F) distance(Domain(F) x, Domain(F) y, F f)
{
    // Precondition: y is reachable from x under f
    typedef DistanceType(F) N;
    N n(0);
    while (x != y) {
        x = f(x);
        n = n + N(1);
    }
    return n;
}
```

Orbits have different shapes. An orbit of x under a transformation is

<i>infinite</i>	if it has no cyclic or terminal elements
<i>terminating</i>	if it has a terminal element
<i>circular</i>	if x is cyclic
<i>ρ-shaped</i>	if x is not cyclic, but its orbit contains a cyclic element

An orbit of x is *finite* if it is not infinite. Figure 2.1 illustrates the various cases.

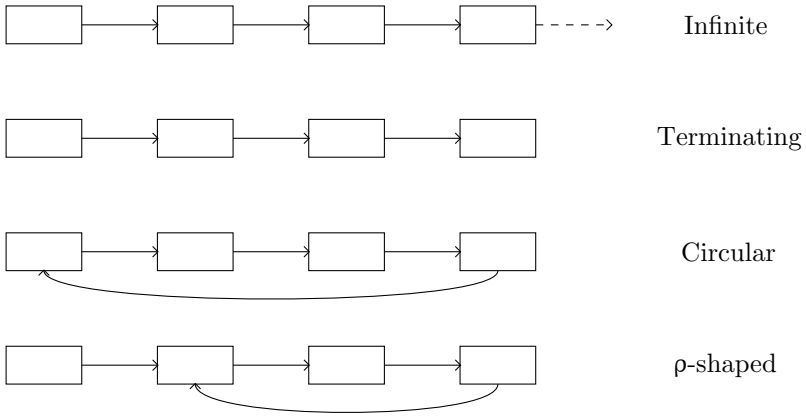


Figure 2.1 Orbit Shapes.

The *orbit cycle* is the set of cyclic elements in the orbit and is empty for infinite and terminating orbits. The *orbit handle*, the complement of the orbit cycle with respect to the orbit, is empty for a circular orbit. The *connection point* is the first cyclic element, and is the first element of a circular orbit and the first element after the handle for a ρ -shaped orbit. The *orbit size* o of an orbit is the number of distinct elements in it. The *handle size* h of an orbit is the number of elements in the orbit handle. The *cycle size* c of an orbit is the number of elements in the orbit cycle.

Lemma 2.4 $o = h + c$

Lemma 2.5 The distance from any point in an orbit to a point in a cycle of that orbit is always defined.

Lemma 2.6 If x and y are distinct points in a cycle of size c ,

$$c = \text{distance}(x, y, f) + \text{distance}(y, x, f)$$

Lemma 2.7 If x and y are points in a cycle of size c , the distance from x to y satisfies

$$0 \leq \text{distance}(x, y, f) < c$$

2.3 Collision Point

If we observe the behavior of a transformation, without access to its definition, we cannot determine whether a particular orbit is infinite: It might terminate or cycle back at any point. If we know that an orbit is finite, we can use an algorithm to determine the shape of the orbit. Therefore there is an implicit precondition of orbit finiteness for all the algorithms in this chapter.

There is, of course, a naive algorithm that stores every element visited and checks at every step whether the new element has been previously encountered. Even if we could use hashing to speed up the search, such an algorithm still would require linear storage and would not be practical in many applications. However, there is an algorithm that requires only a constant amount of storage.

The following analogy helps to understand the algorithm. If a fast car and a slow one start along a path, the fast one will catch up with the slow one if and only if there is a cycle. If there is no cycle, the fast one will reach the end of the path before the slow one. If there is a cycle, by the time the slow one enters the cycle, the fast one will already be there and will catch up eventually. Carrying our intuition from the continuous domain to the discrete domain requires care to avoid the fast one skipping past the slow one.¹

The discrete version of the algorithm is based on looking for a point where fast meets slow. The *collision point* of a transformation f and a starting point x is the unique y such that

$$y = f^n(x) = f^{2n+1}(x)$$

and $n \geq 0$ is the smallest integer satisfying this condition. This definition leads to an algorithm for determining the orbit structure that needs one comparison of fast and slow per iteration. To handle partial transformations, we pass a definition-space predicate to the algorithm:

```
template<typename F, typename P>
    requires(Transformation(F) && UnaryPredicate(P) &&
             Domain(F) == Domain(P))
Domain(F) collision_point(const Domain(F)& x, F f, P p)
{
    // Precondition: p(x) ⇔ f(x) is defined
    if (!p(x)) return x;
```

1. Knuth [1997, page 7] attributes this algorithm to Robert W. Floyd.

```

Domain(F) slow = x;           // slow =  $f^0(x)$ 
Domain(F) fast = f(x);        // fast =  $f^1(x)$ 
                               //  $n \leftarrow 0$  (completed iterations)
while (fast != slow) {        // slow =  $f^n(x) \wedge$  fast =  $f^{2n+1}(x)$ 
    slow = f(slow);           // slow =  $f^{n+1}(x) \wedge$  fast =  $f^{2n+1}(x)$ 
    if (!p(fast)) return fast;
    fast = f(fast);           // slow =  $f^{n+1}(x) \wedge$  fast =  $f^{2n+2}(x)$ 
    if (!p(fast)) return fast;
    fast = f(fast);           // slow =  $f^{n+1}(x) \wedge$  fast =  $f^{2n+3}(x)$ 
                               //  $n \leftarrow n + 1$ 
}
return fast;                  // slow =  $f^n(x) \wedge$  fast =  $f^{2n+1}(x)$ 
// Postcondition: return value is terminal point or collision point
}

```

We establish the correctness of `collision_point` in three stages: (1) verifying that it never applies f to an argument outside the definition space; (2) verifying that if it terminates, the postcondition is satisfied; and (3) verifying that it always terminates.

While f is a partial function, its use by the procedure is well defined, since the movement of `fast` is guarded by a call of p . The movement of `slow` is unguarded, because by the regularity of f , `slow` traverses the same orbit as `fast`, so f is always defined when applied to `slow`.

The annotations show that if, after $n \geq 0$ iterations, `fast` becomes equal to `slow`, then $\text{fast} = f^{2n+1}(x)$ and $\text{slow} = f^n(x)$. Moreover, n is the smallest such integer, since we checked the condition for every $i < n$.

If there is no cycle, p will eventually return false because of finiteness. If there is a cycle, `slow` will eventually reach the connection point (the first element in the cycle). Consider the distance d from `fast` to `slow` at the top of the loop when `slow` first enters the cycle: $0 \leq d < c$. If $d = 0$, the procedure terminates. Otherwise the distance from `fast` to `slow` decreases by 1 on each iteration. Therefore the procedure always terminates; when it terminates, `slow` has moved a total of $h + d$ steps.

The following procedure determines whether an orbit is terminating:

```

template<typename F, typename P>
requires(Transformation(F) && UnaryPredicate(P) &&
        Domain(F) == Domain(P))
bool terminating(const Domain(F)& x, F f, P p)

```

```

{
    // Precondition:  $p(x) \Leftrightarrow f(x)$  is defined
    return !p(collision_point(x, f, p));
}

```

Sometimes we know either that the transformation is total or that the orbit is nonterminating for a particular starting element. For these situations it is useful to have a specialized version of `collision_point`:

```

template<typename F>
    requires(Transformation(F))
Domain(F)
collision_point_nonterminating_orbit(const Domain(F)& x, F f)
{
    Domain(F) slow = x;           // slow =  $f^0(x)$ 
    Domain(F) fast = f(x);        // fast =  $f^1(x)$ 
                                   //  $n \leftarrow 0$  (completed iterations)
    while (fast != slow) {        // slow =  $f^n(x) \wedge$  fast =  $f^{2n+1}(x)$ 
        slow = f(slow);          // slow =  $f^{n+1}(x) \wedge$  fast =  $f^{2n+1}(x)$ 
        fast = f(fast);          // slow =  $f^{n+1}(x) \wedge$  fast =  $f^{2n+2}(x)$ 
        fast = f(fast);          // slow =  $f^{n+1}(x) \wedge$  fast =  $f^{2n+3}(x)$ 
                                   //  $n \leftarrow n + 1$ 
    }
    return fast;                  // slow =  $f^n(x) \wedge$  fast =  $f^{2n+1}(x)$ 
    // Postcondition: return value is collision point
}

```

In order to determine the cycle structure—handle size, connection point, and cycle size—we need to analyze the position of the collision point.

When the procedure returns the collision point

$$f^n(x) = f^{2n+1}(x)$$

n is the number of steps taken by `slow`, and $2n + 1$ is the number of steps taken by `fast`.

$$n = h + d$$

where h is the handle size and $0 \leq d < c$ is the number of steps taken by slow inside the cycle. The number of steps taken by fast is

$$2n + 1 = h + d + qc$$

where $q > 0$ is the number of full cycles completed by fast when it collides with slow. Since $n = h + d$,

$$2(h + d) + 1 = h + d + qc$$

Simplifying gives

$$qc = h + d + 1$$

Let us represent h modulo c :

$$h = mc + r$$

with $0 \leq r < c$. Substitution gives

$$qc = mc + r + d + 1$$

or

$$d = (q - m)c - r - 1$$

$0 \leq d < c$ implies

$$q - m = 1$$

so

$$d = c - r - 1$$

and $r + 1$ steps are needed to complete the cycle.

Therefore the distance from the collision point to the connection point is

$$e = r + 1$$

In the case of a circular orbit $h = 0$, $r = 0$, and the distance from the collision point to the beginning of the orbit is

$$e = 1$$

Circularity, therefore, can be checked with the following procedures:

```
template<typename F>
    requires(Transformation(F))
bool circular_nonterminating_orbit(const Domain(F)& x, F f)
{
    return x == f(collision_point_nonterminating_orbit(x, f));
}

template<typename F, typename P>
    requires(Transformation(F) && UnaryPredicate(P) &&
             Domain(F) == Domain(P))
bool circular(const Domain(F)& x, F f, P p)
{
    // Precondition:  $p(x) \Leftrightarrow f(x)$  is defined
    Domain(F) y = collision_point(x, f, p);
    return p(y) && x == f(y);
}
```

We still don't know the handle size h and the cycle size c . Determining the latter is simple once the collision point is known: Traverse the cycle and count the steps.

To see how to determine h , let us look at the position of the collision point:

$$f^{h+d}(x) = f^{h+c-r-1}(x) = f^{mc+r+c-r-1}(x) = f^{(m+1)c-1}(x)$$

Taking $h + 1$ steps from the collision point gets us to the point $f^{(m+1)c+h}(x)$, which equals $f^h(x)$, since $(m + 1)c$ corresponds to going around the cycle $m + 1$ times. If we simultaneously take h steps from x and $h + 1$ steps from the collision point, we meet at the connection point. In other words, the orbits of x and 1 step past the collision point converge in exactly h steps, which leads to the following sequence of algorithms:

```
template<typename F>
    requires(Transformation(F))
Domain(F) convergent_point(Domain(F) x0, Domain(F) x1, F f)
{
    // Precondition:  $(\exists n \in \text{DistanceType}(F)) n \geq 0 \wedge f^n(x0) = f^n(x1)$ 
    while (x0 != x1) {
```

```

        x0 = f(x0);
        x1 = f(x1);
    }
    return x0;
}

template<typename F>
    requires(Transformation(F))
Domain(F)
connection_point_nonterminating_orbit(const Domain(F)& x, F f)
{
    return convergent_point(
        x,
        f(collision_point_nonterminating_orbit(x, f)),
        f);
}

template<typename F, typename P>
    requires(Transformation(F) && UnaryPredicate(P) &&
        Domain(F) == Domain(P))
Domain(F) connection_point(const Domain(F)& x, F f, P p)
{
    // Precondition:  $p(x) \Leftrightarrow f(x)$  is defined
    Domain(F) y = collision_point(x, f, p);
    if (!p(y)) return y;
    return convergent_point(x, f(y), f);
}

```

Lemma 2.8 If the orbits of two elements intersect, they have the same cyclic elements.

Exercise 2.2 Design an algorithm that determines, given a transformation and its definition-space predicate, whether the orbits of two elements intersect.

Exercise 2.3 The precondition of `convergent_point` ensures termination. Implement an algorithm `convergent_point_guarded` for use when that precondition is not known to hold, but there is an element in common to the orbits of both `x0` and `x1`.

2.4 Measuring Orbit Sizes

The natural type to use for the sizes o , h , and c of an orbit on type T would be an integer count type large enough to count all the distinct values of type T . If a type T occupies k bits, there can be as many as 2^k values, so a count type occupying k bits could not represent all the counts from 0 to 2^k . There is a way to represent these sizes by using distance type.

An orbit could potentially contain all values of a type, in which case o might not fit in the distance type. Depending on the shape of such an orbit, h and c would not fit either. However, for a ρ -shaped orbit, both h and c fit. In all cases each of these fits: $o - 1$ (the maximum distance in the orbit), $h - 1$ (the maximum distance in the handle), and $c - 1$ (the maximum distance in the cycle). That allows us to implement procedures returning a triple representing the complete structure of an orbit, where the members of the triple are as follows:

Case	m0	m1	m2
Terminating	$h - 1$	0	terminal element
Circular	0	$c - 1$	x
ρ -shaped	h	$c - 1$	connection point

```
template<typename F>
    requires(Transformation(F))
triple<DistanceType(F), DistanceType(F), Domain(F)>
orbit_structure_nonterminating_orbit(const Domain(F)& x, F f)
{
    typedef DistanceType(F) N;
    Domain(F) y = connection_point_nonterminating_orbit(x, f);
    return triple<N, N, Domain(F)>(distance(x, y, f),
                                   distance(f(y), y, f),
                                   y);
}

template<typename F, typename P>
    requires(Transformation(F) &&
             UnaryPredicate(P) && Domain(F) == Domain(P))
triple<DistanceType(F), DistanceType(F), Domain(F)>
orbit_structure(const Domain(F)& x, F f, P p)
{
    // Precondition:  $p(x) \Leftrightarrow f(x)$  is defined
```

```

typedef DistanceType(F) N;
Domain(F) y = connection_point(x, f, p);
N m = distance(x, y, f);
N n(0);
if (p(y)) n = distance(f(y), y, f);
// Terminating:  $m = h - 1 \wedge n = 0$ 
// Otherwise:  $m = h \wedge n = c - 1$ 
return triple<N, N, Domain(F)>(m, n, y);
}

```

Exercise 2.4 Derive formulas for the count of different operations (f , p , equality) for the algorithms in this chapter.

Exercise 2.5 Use `orbit_structure_nonterminating_orbit` to determine the average handle size and cycle size of the pseudorandom number generators on your platform for various seeds.

2.5 Actions

Algorithms often use a transformation f in a statement like

```
x = f(x);
```

Changing the state of an object by applying a transformation to it defines an *action* on the object. There is a duality between transformations and the corresponding actions: An action is definable in terms of a transformation, and vice versa:

```
void a(T& x) { x = f(x); } // action from transformation
```

and

```
T f(T x) { a(x); return x; } // transformation from action
```

Despite this duality, independent implementations are sometimes more efficient, in which case both action and transformation need to be provided. For example, if a transformation is defined on a large object and modifies only part of its overall state, the action could be considerably faster.

Exercise 2.6 Rewrite all the algorithms in this chapter in terms of actions.

Project 2.1 Another way to detect a cycle is to repeatedly test a single advancing element for equality with a stored element while replacing the stored element at ever-increasing intervals. This and other ideas are described in Sedgewick, et al. [1979], Brent [1980], and Levy [1982]. Implement other algorithms for orbit analysis, compare their performance for different applications, and develop a set of recommendations for selecting the appropriate algorithm.

2.6 Conclusions

Abstraction allowed us to define abstract procedures that can be used in different domains. Regularity of types and functions is essential to make the algorithms work: fast and slow follow the same orbit because of regularity. Developing nomenclature is essential (e.g., orbit kinds and sizes). Affiliated types, such as distance type, need to be precisely defined.

Index

\rightarrow (function), 231
 $-$ (additive inverse), in additive group, 67
 \wedge (and), 231
 $-$ (difference)
 in additive group, 67
 in cancellable monoid, 72
 of integers, 18
 of iterator and integer, 111
 of iterators, 93
 \times (direct product), 231
 \in (element), 231
 $=$ (equality), 7
 for `array_k`, 212
 for `pair`, 210
 \triangleq (equals by definition), 12, 231
 \Leftrightarrow (equivalent), 231
 \exists (exists), 231
 \forall (for all), 231
 $>$ (greater), 62
 \geq (greater or equal), 62
 \Rightarrow (implies), 231
 $[]$ (index)
 for `array_k`, 211
 for `bounded_range`, 214
 \neq (inequality), 7, 62
 \cap (intersection), 231
 $<$ (less), 62
 for `array_k`, 212
 natural total ordering, 61
 for `pair`, 210
 \leq (less or equal), 62
 \mapsto (maps to), 231
 \neg (not), 231
 \vee (or), 231
 α^n (power of associative operation), 32
 f^n (power of transformation), 17
 $<$ (precedes), 95

\preceq (precedes or equal), 95
 \cdot (product)
 of integers, 18
 in multiplicative semigroup, 66
 in semimodule, 69
 $/$ (quotient), of integers, 18
 $[f, l]$ (range, closed bounded), 94
 $\llbracket f, n \rrbracket$ (range, closed weak or counted), 94
 $[f, l)$ (range, half-open bounded), 94
 $\llbracket f, n \rrbracket$ (range, half-open weak or counted), 94
 \subset (subset), 231
 $+$ (sum)
 in additive semigroup, 66
 of integers, 18
 of iterator and integer, 92
 \cup (union), 231

A

`abs` algorithm, 16, 71
 absolute value, properties, 71
 abstract entity, 1
 abstract genus, 2
 abstract procedure, 13
 overloading, 43
 abstract species, 2
 accumulation procedure, 46
 accumulation variable
 elimination, 39
 introduction, 35
 action, 28
 acyclic descendants of bifurcate coordinate,
 116
 additive inverse ($-$), in additive group, 67
AdditiveGroup concept, 67
AdditiveMonoid concept, 67
AdditiveSemigroup concept, 66

- address, 4
 - abstracted by iterator, 89
- add_to_counter algorithm, 199
- advance_tail machine, 135
- algorithm. *See* machine
 - abs, 16, 71
 - add_to_counter, 199
 - all, 97
 - bifurcate_compare, 131
 - bifurcate_compare_nonempty, 130
 - bifurcate_equivalent, 129
 - bifurcate_equivalent_nonempty, 128
 - bifurcate_isomorphic, 126
 - bifurcate_isomorphic_nonempty, 125
 - circular, 25
 - circular_nonterminating_orbit, 25
 - collision_point, 22
 - collision_point_nonterminating_orbit, 23
 - combine_copy, 160
 - combine_copy_backward, 162
 - combine_linked_nonempty, 138
 - combine_ranges, 196
 - compare_strict_or_reflexive, 57–58
 - complement, 50
 - complement_of_converse, 50
 - connection_point, 26
 - connection_point_nonterminating_orbit, 26
 - convergent_point, 26
 - converse, 50
 - copy, 152
 - copy_backward, 155
 - copy_bounded, 153
 - copy_if, 158
 - copy_n, 154
 - copy_select, 158
 - count_if, 97, 98
 - cycle_from, 173
 - cycle_to, 173
 - distance, 19
 - euclidean_norm, 16
 - exchange_values, 164
 - fast_subtractive_gcd, 78
 - fibonacci, 46
 - find, 96
 - find_adjacent_mismatch, 103
 - find_adjacent_mismatch_forward, 106, 135
 - find_backward_if, 112
 - find_if, 97
 - find_if_not_unguarded, 102
 - find_if_unguarded, 101
 - find_last, 136
 - find_mismatch, 102
 - find_n, 101
 - find_not, 97
 - for_each, 96
 - for_each_n, 101
 - gcd, 80
 - height, 122
 - height_recursive, 118
 - increment, 91
 - is_left_successor, 119
 - is_right_successor, 120
 - k_rotate_from_permutation_indexed, 180
 - k_rotate_from_permutation_random_
 - access, 180
 - largest_doubling, 75
 - lexicographical_compare, 129
 - lexicographical_equal, 127
 - lexicographical_equivalent, 127
 - lexicographical_less, 130
 - lower_bound_n, 109
 - lower_bound_predicate, 108
 - median_5, 61
 - memory_adaptive, 177
 - merge_copy, 163
 - merge_copy_backward, 163
 - merge_linked_nonempty, 141
 - merge_n_adaptive, 206
 - merge_n_with_buffer, 202
 - none, 97
 - not_all, 97
 - orbit_structure, 28
 - orbit_structure_nonterminating_orbit, 27
 - partitioned_at_point, 191
 - partition_bidirectional, 194
 - partition_copy, 160
 - partition_copy_n, 160
 - partition_linked, 140
 - partition_point, 107
 - partition_point_n, 107
 - partition_semistable, 192
 - partition_single_cycle, 194
 - partition_stable_iterative, 201
 - partition_stable_n, 197
 - partition_stable_n_adaptive, 197
 - partition_stable_n_nonempty, 197

- algorithm. *See* machine (*cont.*)
 - partition_stable_singleton, 196
 - partition_stable_with_buffer, 195
 - partition_trivial, 198
 - phased_applicator, 147
 - potential_partition_point, 191
 - power, 42
 - power_accumulate, 41
 - power_accumulate_positive, 41
 - power_left_associated *vs.* power_0, 34
 - power_right_associated, 33
 - power_unary, 18
 - predicate_source, 140
 - quotient_remainder, 85
 - quotient_remainder_nonnegative, 82
 - quotient_remainder_nonnegative_iterative, 83
 - reachable, 121
 - reduce, 99
 - reduce_balanced, 200
 - reduce_nonempty, 99
 - reduce_nonzeroes, 100
 - relation_source, 141
 - remainder, 84
 - remainder_nonnegative, 74
 - remainder_nonnegative_iterative, 75
 - reverse_append, 139, 140
 - reverse_bidirectional, 175
 - reverse_copy, 156
 - reverse_copy_backward, 156
 - reverse_indexed, 186
 - reverse_n_adaptive, 178
 - reverse_n_bidirectional, 175
 - reverse_n_forward, 177
 - reverse_n_indexed, 175
 - reverse_n_with_buffer, 176
 - reverse_swap_ranges, 167
 - reverse_swap_ranges_bounded, 167
 - reverse_swap_ranges_n, 168
 - reverse_with_temporary_buffer, 187, 225
 - rotate, 187
 - rotate_bidirectional_nontrivial, 182
 - rotate_cycles, 181
 - rotate_forward_annotated, 183
 - rotate_forward_nontrivial, 184
 - rotate_forward_step, 184
 - rotate_indexed_nontrivial, 181
 - rotate_nontrivial, 188
 - rotate_partial_nontrivial, 185
 - rotate_random_access_nontrivial, 181
 - rotate_with_buffer_backward_nontrivial, 186
 - rotate_with_buffer_nontrivial, 185
 - select_0_2, 53, 63
 - select_0_3, 54
 - select_1_2, 54
 - select_1_3, 55
 - select_1_3_ab, 55
 - select_1_4, 56, 59
 - select_1_4_ab, 56, 59
 - select_1_4_ab_cd, 56, 58
 - select_2_3, 54
 - select_2_5, 60
 - select_2_5_ab, 60
 - select_2_5_ab_cd, 59
 - slow_quotient, 73
 - slow_remainder, 72
 - some, 97
 - sort_linked_nonempty_n, 142
 - sort_n, 207
 - sort_n_adaptive, 207
 - sort_n_with_buffer, 203
 - split_copy, 158
 - split_linked, 137
 - subtractive_gcd, 78
 - subtractive_gcd_nonzero, 77
 - swap, 224
 - swap_basic, 223
 - swap_ranges, 165
 - swap_ranges_bounded, 166
 - swap_ranges_n, 166
 - terminating, 23
 - transpose_operation, 201
 - traverse, 123
 - traverse_nonempty, 118
 - traverse_phased_rotating, 148
 - traverse_rotating, 146
 - underlying_ref, 224
 - upper_bound_n, 109
 - upper_bound_predicate, 109
 - weight, 122
 - weight_recursive, 117
 - weight_rotating, 147
- aliased property, 150
- aliased write-read, 150
- aliased write-write, 159

all algorithm, 97
 ambiguous value type, 3
 amortized complexity, 219
 and (\wedge), 231
 annihilation property, 68
 annotation variable, 183
ArchimedeanGroup concept, 83
ArchimedeanMonoid concept, 72
 area of object, 227
 Aristotle, 77
 Arity type attribute, 11
 array, varieties, 220–221
 array_k type, 210
 Artin, Emil, 13
 assignment, 7
 for array_k, 211
 for pair, 210
 associative operation, 31, 98
 power of (a^n), 32
 associative property, 31
 exploited by power, 33
 partially_associative, 98
 of permutation composition, 170
 asymmetric property, 50
 attribute, 1
 auxiliary computation during recursion, 176
 Axiom of Archimedes, 72, 73

B

backward movement in range, 112
BackwardLinker concept, 134
 backward_offset property, 161
 basic singly linked list, 218
 begin
 for array_k, 211
 for bounded_range, 214
 for *Linearizable*, 213
 behavioral equality, 3, 228
BidirectionalBifurcateCoordinate concept,
 119–120
BidirectionalIterator concept, 111
BidirectionalLinker concept, 134
BifurcateCoordinate concept, 115
 bifurcate_compare algorithm, 131
 bifurcate_compare_nonempty algorithm, 130
 bifurcate_equivalent algorithm, 129
 bifurcate_equivalent_nonempty algorithm,
 128

bifurcate_isomorphic algorithm, 126
 bifurcate_isomorphic_nonempty algorithm,
 125
BinaryOperation concept, 31
 binary_scale_down_nonnegative, 40
 binary_scale_up_nonnegative, 40
 bisection technique, 107
 Bolzano, Bernard, 107
 bounded integer type, 87
 bounded range, 93
 bounded_range property, 93
 bounded_range type, 214
 Brandt, Jon, 193

C

CancellableMonoid concept, 72
 cancellation in monoid, 72
 categories of ideas, 1
 Cauchy, Augustin Louis, 107
 circular algorithm, 25
 circular array, 220
 circular doubly linked list, 218
 circular singly linked list, 218
 circular_nonterminating_orbit algorithm, 25
 closed bounded range ($[f, l]$), 94
 closed interval, 231
 closed weak or counted range ($[f, n]$), 94
 clusters of derived procedures, 62
 codomain, 10
 Codomain type function, 11
 Collins, George, 13
 collision point of orbit, 21
 collision_point algorithm, 22
 collision_point_nonterminating_orbit
 algorithm, 23
 combine_copy algorithm, 160
 combine_copy_backward algorithm, 162
 combine_linked_nonempty algorithm, 138
 combine_ranges algorithm, 196
 common-subexpression elimination, 35
 commutative property, 66
CommutativeRing concept, 69
CommutativeSemiring concept, 68
 compare_strict_or_reflexive algorithm,
 57–58
 complement algorithm, 50
 complement of converse of relation, 50
 complement of relation, 50

- complement_of_converse algorithm, 50
- complement_of_converse property, 104
- complexity
 - amortized, 219
 - of *empty*, 213
 - of indexing of a sequence, 213
 - of regular operations, 227
 - of source, 90
 - of successor, 92
- composite object, 215
- composition
 - of permutations, 170
 - of transformations, 17, 32
- computational basis, 6
- concept, 11
 - AdditiveGroup*, 67
 - AdditiveMonoid*, 67
 - AdditiveSemigroup*, 66
 - ArchimedeanGroup*, 83
 - ArchimedeanMonoid*, 72
 - BackwardLinker*, 134
 - BidirectionalBifurcateCoordinate*, 119–120
 - BidirectionalIterator*, 111
 - BidirectionalLinker*, 134
 - BifurcateCoordinate*, 115
 - BinaryOperation*, 31
 - CancellableMonoid*, 72
 - CommutativeRing*, 69
 - CommutativeSemiring*, 68
 - consistent, 87
 - DiscreteArchimedeanRing*, 86
 - DiscreteArchimedeanSemiring*, 85
 - EmptyLinkedBifurcateCoordinate*, 144
 - EuclideanMonoid*, 77
 - EuclideanSemimodule*, 80
 - EuclideanSemiring*, 79
 - examples from C++ and STL, 11
 - ForwardIterator*, 106
 - ForwardLinker*, 133
 - FunctionalProcedure*, 11
 - HalvableMonoid*, 74
 - HomogeneousFunction*, 12
 - HomogeneousPredicate*, 16
 - IndexedIterator*, 110
 - Integer*, 18, 40
 - Iterator*, 91
 - Linearizable*, 213
 - LinkedBifurcateCoordinate*, 144
 - modeled by type, 11
 - Module*, 70
 - MultiplicativeGroup*, 68
 - MultiplicativeMonoid*, 67
 - MultiplicativeSemigroup*, 66
 - NonnegativeDiscreteArchimedeanSemiring*, 86
 - Operation*, 16
 - OrderedAdditiveGroup*, 70
 - OrderedAdditiveMonoid*, 70
 - OrderedAdditiveSemigroup*, 70
 - Predicate*, 15
 - RandomAccessIterator*, 113
 - refinement, 11
 - Regular*, 11
 - Relation*, 49
 - relational concept, 69
 - Ring*, 69
 - Semimodule*, 69
 - Semiring*, 68
 - Sequence*, 216
 - TotallyOrdered*, 62
 - Transformation*, 17
 - type concept, 11
 - UnaryFunction*, 12
 - UnaryPredicate*, 16
 - univalent, 86
 - useful, 87
 - weakening, 11
- concept dispatch, 106, 187
- concept schema
 - composite object, 216
 - coordinate structure, 124
- concept tag type, 187
- concrete entity, 1
- concrete genus, 2
- concrete species, 2
- connectedness of composite object, 215
- connection point of orbit, 20
- connection_point algorithm, 26
- connection_point_nonterminating_orbit algorithm, 26
- connectors, 229
- consistency of concept's axioms, 87
- constant-size sequence, 216
- constructor, 7
- container, 213
- convergent_point algorithm, 26

- converse algorithm, 50
- converse of relation, 50
- coordinate structure
 - bifurcate coordinate, 115
 - of composite object, 215
 - concept schema, 124
 - iterator, 89
- copy algorithm, 152
- copy constructor, 8
 - for `array_k`, 211
 - for `pair`, 210
- copy of object, 5
- copying rearrangement, 172
- `copy_backward` algorithm, 155
- `copy_backward_step` machine, 154
- `copy_bounded` algorithm, 153
- `copy_if` algorithm, 158
- `copy_n` algorithm, 154
- `copy_select` algorithm, 158
- `copy_step` machine, 152
- `counted_range` property, 93
- `counter_machine` type, 200
- `count_down` machine, 153
- `count_if` algorithm, 97, 98
- cycle detection intuition, 21
- cycle in a permutation, 171
- cycle of orbit, 20
- cycle size, 20
- `cycle_from` algorithm, 173
- `cycle_to` algorithm, 173
- cyclic element under transformation, 18
- cyclic permutation, 171

D

- DAG (directed acyclic graph), 116
- datum, 2
- de Bruijn, N. G., 74
- default constructor, 8
 - for `array_k`, 211
 - for `pair`, 209
- default ordering, 62
- default total ordering, 62
 - importance of, 228
- definition space, 9
- definition-space predicate, 17
- dependence of axiom, 86
- deref, 150
- derived relation, 50

- descendant of bifurcate
 - coordinate, 116
- destructor, 7
 - for `pair`, 210
- difference (—)
 - in additive group, 67
 - in cancellable monoid, 72
 - of integers, 18
 - of iterator and integer, 111
 - of iterators, 93
- `DifferenceType` type function, 113
- direct product (\times), 231
- directed acyclic graph, 116
- DiscreteArchimedeanRing* concept, 86
- DiscreteArchimedeanSemiring* concept, 85
- discreteness property, 85
- disjoint property, 134
- disjointness of composite object, 216
- distance algorithm, 19
- distance in orbit, 19
- `DistanceType` type function, 17, 91
- distributive property, holds for semiring, 68
- divisibility on an Archimedean monoid, 76
- division, 68
- domain, 10
- `Domain` type function, 12
- double-ended array, 220
- doubly linked list, 218–219
- Dudziński, Krzysztof, 206
- dummy node doubly linked list, 218
- Dydek, Andrzej, 206
- dynamic-size sequence, 216

E

- efficient computational basis, 6
- element (ϵ), 231
- eliminating common subexpression, 35
- `empty`
 - for `array_k`, 212
 - for `bounded_range`, 214
 - for *Linearizable*, 213
- empty coordinate, 144
- empty range, 95
- EmptyLinkedBifurcateCoordinate*
 - concept, 144
- end

- for array_k, 211
- for bounded_range, 214
- for *Linearizable*, 213
- entity, 1
- equality
 - =, 7
 - ≠, 62
 - for array_k, 212
 - behavioral, 3, 228
 - equal for *Regular*, 127
 - for objects, 5
 - for pair, 210
 - for regular type, 7
 - representational, 3, 228
 - structural, 228
 - for uniquely represented type, 3
 - for value type, 3
- equals by definition (\triangleq), 12, 231
- equational reasoning, 4
- equivalence class, 51
- equivalence property, 51
- equivalent (\Leftrightarrow), 231
- equivalent coordinate collections, 126
- erasure in a sequence, 217
- Euclidean function, 79
- EuclideanMonoid* concept, 77
- EuclideanSemimodule* concept, 80
- EuclideanSemiring* concept, 79
- euclidean_norm algorithm, 16
- even, 40
- exchange_values algorithm, 164
- exists (\exists), 231
- expressive computational basis, 6

F

- fast_subtractive_gcd algorithm, 78
- fibonacci algorithm, 46
- Fibonacci sequence, 45
- find algorithm, 96
- find_adjacent_mismatch algorithm, 103
- find_adjacent_mismatch_forward algorithm, 106, 135
- find_backward_if algorithm, 112
- find_if algorithm, 97
- find_if_not, 97
- find_if_not_unguarded algorithm, 102
- find_if_unguarded algorithm, 101
- find_last algorithm, 136

- find_mismatch algorithm, 102
- find_n algorithm, 101
- find_not algorithm, 97
- finite order, under associative operation, 32
- finite set, 171
- first-last singly linked list, 218
- fixed point of transformation, 170
- fixed-size sequence, 216
- Floyd, Robert W., 21
- for all (\forall), 231
- ForwardIterator* concept, 106
- ForwardLinker* concept, 133
- forward_offset property, 162
- for_each algorithm, 96
- for_each_n algorithm, 101
- Frobenius, Georg Ferdinand, 32
- from-permutation, 172
- function, 2
 - , 231
 - on abstract entities, 2
 - on values, 3
- function object, 9, 96, 236
- functional procedure, 9
- FunctionalProcedure* concept, 11

G

- garbage collection, 230
- Gaussian integers, 40
 - Stein's algorithm, 81
- gcd, 76
 - Stein, 81
 - subtractive, 76
- gcd algorithm, 80
- genus, 2
- global state, 6
- goto statement, 148
- greater ($>$), 62
- greater or equal (\geq), 62
- greatest common divisor (gcd), 76
- group, 67
 - of permutations, 170

H

- half_nonnegative, 40
- half-open bounded range ($[f, l)$), 94
- half-open interval, 231
- half-open weak or counted range ($[f, n)$), 94
- HalvableMonoid* concept, 74

- handle of orbit, 20
- handle size, 20
- header of composite object, 217
- height algorithm, 122
- height of bifurcate coordinate (DAG), 116
- height_recursive algorithm, 118
- Ho, Wilson, 182
- Hoare, C. A. R., 195
- homogeneous functional procedure, 10
- HomogeneousFunction* concept, 12
- HomogeneousPredicate* concept, 16

I

- ideas, categories of, 1
- identity
 - of concrete entity, 1
 - of object, 5
- identity element, 65
- identity token, 5
- identity transformation, 170
- identity_element property, 65
- implies (\Rightarrow), 231
- inconsistency of concept, 87
- increasing range, 103
- increasing_counted_range property, 105
- increasing_range property, 105
- increment algorithm, 91
- independence of proposition, 86
- index ([])
 - for array_k, 211
 - for bounded_range, 214
- index permutation, 172
- index of segmented array, 221
- indexed iterator
 - equivalent to random-access iterator, 113
- IndexedIterator* concept, 110
- inequality (\neq), 7
 - standard definition, 62
- inorder, 118
- input object, 6
- input/output object, 6
- InputType* type function, 11
- insertion in a sequence, 217
- Integer* concept, 18, 40
- interpretation, 2
- intersection (\cap), 231
- interval, 231
- into transformation, 169

- invariant, 148
 - loop, 37
 - recursion, 36
- inverse of permutation, 170, 171
- inverse_operation property, 66
- isomorphic coordinate sets, 124
- isomorphic types, 86
- is_left_successor algorithm, 119
- is_right_successor algorithm, 120
- iterator adapter
 - for bidirectional bifurcate coordinates, project, 124
 - random access from indexed, 114
 - reverse from bidirectional, 112
 - underlying type, 224
- Iterator* concept, 91
- iterator invalidation in array, 221
- IteratorConcept* type function, 187
- IteratorType* type function, 133, 134, 213

K

- Kislitsyn, Sergei, 55
- k_rotate_from_permutation_indexed
 - algorithm, 180
- k_rotate_from_permutation_random_access
 - algorithm, 180

L

- Lagrange, J.-L., 107
- Lakshman, T. K., 159
- largest_doubling algorithm, 75
- less ($<$), 62
 - for array_k, 212
 - for bounded_range, 215
 - less for *TotallyOrdered*, 130
 - natural total ordering, 61
 - for pair, 210
- less or equal (\leq), 62
- lexicographical_compare algorithm, 129
- lexicographical_equal algorithm, 127
- lexicographical_equivalent algorithm, 127
- lexicographical_less algorithm, 130
- limit in a range, 95
- linear ordering, 52
- Linearizable* concept, 213
- link rearrangement, 134
 - on lists, 219
- linked iterator, 133

- linked structures, forward vs. bidirectional, 219
- LinkedBifurcateCoordinate* concept, 144
- linker object, 133
- linker_to_head machine, 139
- linker_to_tail machine, 135
- links, reversing, 145
- list
 - doubly linked, 218
 - singly linked, 218
- Lo, Raymond, 182
- load, 4
- local part of composite object, 217
- local state, 6
- locality of reference, 143
- loop invariant, 37
- lower bound, 107
- lower_bound_n algorithm, 109
- lower_bound_predicate algorithm, 108

M

- machine, 120
 - advance_tail, 135
 - copy_backward_step, 154
 - copy_step, 152
 - count_down, 153
 - linker_to_head, 139
 - linker_to_tail, 135
 - merge_n_step_0, 205
 - merge_n_step_1, 205
 - reverse_copy_backward_step, 156
 - reverse_copy_step, 155
 - reverse_swap_step, 166
 - swap_step, 165
 - traverse_step, 121
 - tree_rotate, 145
- maps to (\mapsto), 231
- marking, 118
- Mauchly, John W., 107
- median_5 algorithm, 61
- memory, 4
- memory-adaptive algorithm, 177
- merge, stability, 203
- mergeable property, 203
- merge_copy algorithm, 163
- merge_copy_backward algorithm, 163
- merge_linked_nonempty algorithm, 141
- merge_n_adaptive algorithm, 206

- merge_n_step_0 machine, 205
- merge_n_step_1 machine, 205
- merge_n_with_buffer algorithm, 202
- mod (remainder), 18
- model, partial, 70
- models, 11
- Module* concept, 70
- monoid, 67
- multipass traversal, 106
- MultiplicativeGroup* concept, 68
- MultiplicativeMonoid* concept, 67
- MultiplicativeSemigroup* concept, 66
- multiset, 227
- Musser, David, 13
- mutable range, 151
- mutable_bounded_range property, 151
- mutable_counted_range property, 151
- mutable_weak_range property, 151
- mutative rearrangement, 172

N

- natural total ordering, < reserved for, 61
- negative, 40
- nil, 134
- Noether, Emmy, 13
- noncircularity of composite object, 216
- none algorithm, 97
- NonnegativeDiscreteArchimedeanSemiring* concept, 86
- nontotal procedure, 17
- not (\neg), 231
- not_all algorithm, 97
- not_overlapped property, 157
- not_overlapped_backward property, 155
- not_overlapped_forward property, 153
- not_write_overlapped property, 159
- null link, 218

O

- object, 4
 - area, 227
 - equality, 5
 - starting address, 216
 - state, 4
- object type, 4
- odd, 40
- one, 40
- one-to-one transformation, 169

- onto transformation, 169
- open interval, 231
- Operation* concept, 16
- or (\vee), 231
- orbit, 18–20
- orbit_structure algorithm, 28
- orbit_structure_nonterminating_orbit algorithm, 27
- OrderedAdditiveGroup* concept, 70
- OrderedAdditiveMonoid* concept, 70
- OrderedAdditiveSemigroup* concept, 70
- ordering, linear, 52
- ordering-based rearrangement, 172
- output object, 6
- overloading, 43, 133, 144
- own state, 6
- ownership, of parts by composite object, 216

P

- pair type, 11, 209
- parameter passing, 9
- part of composite object, 215–219
- partial model, 70
- partial procedure, 17
- partial (usage convention), 232
- partially formed object state, 7
- partially_associative property, 98
- partition algorithm, origin of, 195
- partition point, 105
 - lower and upper bounds, 107
- partition rearrangement, semistable, 192
- partitioned property, 105
- partitioned range, 105
- partitioned_at_point algorithm, 191
- partition_bidirectional algorithm, 194
- partition_copy algorithm, 160
- partition_copy_n algorithm, 160
- partition_linked algorithm, 140
- partition_point algorithm, 107
- partition_point_n algorithm, 107
- partition_semistable algorithm, 192
- partition_single_cycle algorithm, 194
- partition_stable_iterative algorithm, 201
- partition_stable_n algorithm, 197
- partition_stable_n_adaptive algorithm, 197
- partition_stable_n_nonempty algorithm, 197

- partition_stable_singleton algorithm, 196
- partition_stable_with_buffer algorithm, 195
- partition_trivial algorithm, 198
- permanently placed part of composite object, 217
- permutation, 170
 - composition, 170
 - cycle, 171
 - cyclic, 171
 - from, 172
 - index, 172
 - inverse, 170, 171
 - product of its cycles, 171
 - reverse, 174
 - rotation, 178
 - to, 172
 - transposition, 171
- permutation group, 170
- phased_applicator algorithm, 147
- pivot, 205
- position-based rearrangement, 172
- positive, 40
- postorder, 118
- potential_partition_point algorithm, 191
- power
 - of associative operation (a^n), 32
 - powers of same element commute, 32
 - of transformation (f^n), 17
- power algorithm, 42
 - operation count, 34
- power_accumulate algorithm, 41
- power_accumulate_positive algorithm, 41
- power_right_associated algorithm, 33
- power_unary algorithm, 18
- precedence preserving link rearrangement, 135
- precedes (\prec), 95
- precedes or equal (\preceq), 95
- precondition, 13
- predecessor
 - of integer, 40
 - of iterator, 111
- Predicate* concept, 15
- predicate-based rearrangement, 172
- predicate_source algorithm, 140
- prefix of extent, 220
- preorder, 118
- prime property, 14

- procedure, 6
 - abstract, 13
 - functional, 9
 - nontotal, 17
 - partial, 17
 - total, 17
- product (\cdot)
 - of integers, 18
 - in multiplicative semigroup, 66
 - in semimodule, 69
- program transformation
 - accumulation-variable elimination, 39
 - accumulation-variable introduction, 35
 - common-subexpression elimination, 35
 - enabled by regular types, 35
 - forward to backward iterators, 112
 - relaxing precondition, 38
 - strengthening precondition, 38
 - strict tail-recursive, 37
 - tail-recursive form, 35
- project
 - abstracting platform-specific copy
 - algorithms, 164
 - algorithms for bidirectional bifurcate
 - algorithms, 123
 - axioms for random-access iterator, 113
 - benchmark and composite algorithm for
 - rotate, 189
 - concepts for bounded binary
 - integers, 87
 - coordinate structure concept, 131
 - cross-type operations, 14
 - cycle-detection algorithms, 29
 - dynamic-sequences benchmark, 222
 - dynamic-sequences implementation, 222
 - dynamic-sequences interfaces, 222
 - floating-point nonassociativity, 42
 - isomorphism, equivalence, and ordering
 - using `tree_rotate`, 148
 - iterator adapter for bidirectional bifurcate
 - coordinates, 124
 - linear recurrence sequences, 47
 - minimum-comparison stable sorting and
 - merging, 61
 - nonhalvable Archimedean monoids, 75
 - order-selection stability, 61
 - reallocation strategy for single-extent
 - arrays, 221
 - searching for a subsequence within a
 - sequence, 114
 - setting for Stein gcd, 81
 - sorting library, 208
 - underlying type used in major library, 225
- projection regularity, 216
- proper underlying type, 223
- properly partial object state, 5
- properly partial value type, 2
- property
 - aliased, 150
 - annihilation, 68
 - associative, 31
 - asymmetric, 50
 - `backward_offset`, 161
 - `bounded_range`, 93
 - commutative, 66
 - `complement_of_converse`, 104
 - `counted_range`, 93
 - discreteness, 85
 - disjoint, 134
 - distributive, 68
 - equivalence, 51
 - `forward_offset`, 162
 - identity element, 65
 - `identity_element`, 65
 - `increasing_counted_range`, 105
 - `increasing_range`, 105
 - `inverse_operation`, 66
 - mergeable, 203
 - `mutable_bounded_range`, 151
 - `mutable_counted_range`, 151
 - `mutable_weak_range`, 151
 - notation, 14
 - `not_overlapped`, 157
 - `not_overlapped_backward`, 155
 - `not_overlapped_forward`, 153
 - `not_write_overlapped`, 159
 - partially-associative, 98
 - partitioned, 105
 - prime, 14
 - `readable_bounded_range`, 95
 - `readable_counted_range`, 96
 - `readable_tree`, 123
 - `readable_weak_range`, 96
 - reflexive, 50
 - `regular_unary_function`, 14
 - relation-preserving, 103

property (*cont.*)

- strict, 50
- strictly_increasing_counted_range, 105
- strictly_increasing_range, 104
- symmetric, 50
- total_ordering, 51
- transitive, 49
- tree, 117
- trichotomy, 51
- weak trichotomy, 51
- weak_ordering, 52
- weak_range, 92
- writable_bounded_range, 150
- writable_counted_range, 150
- writable_weak_range, 150
- write_aliased, 159

proposition, independence of, 86
 pseudopredicate, 136
 pseudorelation, 137
 pseudotransformation, 91

Q

quotient (/), of integers, 18
 quotient
 in Euclidean semimodule, 80
 in Euclidean semiring, 79
 QuotientType type function, 72
 quotient_remainder algorithm, 85
 quotient_remainder_nonnegative algorithm, 82
 quotient_remainder_nonnegative_iterative algorithm, 83

R

random-access iterator, equivalent to indexed iterator, 113
RandomAccessIterator concept, 113
 range
 backward movement, 112
 closed bounded ($[f, l]$), 94
 closed weak or counted ($[f, n]$), 94
 empty, 95
 half-open bounded ($[f, l)$), 94
 half-open weak or counted ($[f, n)$), 94
 increasing, 103
 limit, 95
 lower bound, 107

mutable, 151
 partition point, 105
 partitioned, 105
 readable, 95
 size, 94
 strictly increasing, 103
 upper bound, 107
 writable, 150
 reachability
 of bifurcate coordinate, 116
 in orbit, 18
 reachable algorithm, 121
 readable range, 95
 readable_bounded_range property, 95
 readable_counted_range property, 96
 readable_tree property, 123
 readable_weak_range property, 96
 rearrangement, 172
 bin-based, 172
 copying, 172
 link, 134
 mutative, 172
 ordering-based, 172
 position-based, 172
 reverse, 174
 rotation, 179
 recursion invariant, 36
 reduce algorithm, 99
 reduce_balanced algorithm, 200
 reduce_nonempty algorithm, 99
 reduce_nonzeroes algorithm, 100
 reduction, 98
 reference counting, 230
 refinement of concept, 11
 reflexive property, 50
Regular concept, 11
 and program transformation, 35
 regular function on value type, 3
 regular type, 6–8
 regularity, 216, 217
 regular_unary_function property, 14
Relation concept, 49
 relational concept, 69
 relationship, 229
 relation_preserving property, 103
 relation_source algorithm, 141
 relaxing precondition, 38
 remainder

- algorithm, 84
 - in Euclidean semimodule, 80
 - in Euclidean semiring, 79
- remainder (mod), of integers, 18
- remainder_nonnegative algorithm, 74
- remainder_nonnegative_iterative algorithm, 75
- remote part of composite object, 217
- representation, 2
- representational equality, 3, 228
- requires** clause, 13
 - syntax, 240
- resources, 4
- result space, 10
- returning useful information, 87, 96, 97, 101–103, 106, 112, 152, 153, 159, 163, 174, 179, 182, 211
- reverse rearrangement, 174
- reverse_append algorithm, 139, 140
- reverse_bidirectional algorithm, 175
- reverse_copy algorithm, 156
- reverse_copy_backward algorithm, 156
- reverse_copy_backward_step machine, 156
- reverse_copy_step machine, 155
- reverse_indexed algorithm, 186
- reverse_n_adaptive algorithm, 178
- reverse_n_bidirectional algorithm, 175
- reverse_n_forward algorithm, 177
- reverse_n_indexed algorithm, 175
- reverse_n_with_buffer algorithm, 176
- reverse_swap_ranges algorithm, 167
- reverse_swap_ranges_bounded algorithm, 167
- reverse_swap_ranges_n algorithm, 168
- reverse_swap_step machine, 166
- reverse_with_temporary_buffer algorithm, 187, 225
- reversing links, 145
- Rhind Mathematical Papyrus
 - division, 73
 - power, 33
- Ring* concept, 69
- rotate algorithm, 187
- rotate_bidirectional_nontrivial algorithm, 182
- rotate_cycles algorithm, 181
- rotate_forward_annotated algorithm, 183

- rotate_forward_nontrivial algorithm, 184
- rotate_forward_step algorithm, 184
- rotate_indexed_nontrivial algorithm, 181
- rotate_nontrivial algorithm, 188
- rotate_partial_nontrivial algorithm, 185
- rotate_random_access_nontrivial algorithm, 181
- rotate_with_buffer_backward_nontrivial algorithm, 186
- rotate_with_buffer_nontrivial algorithm, 185
- rotation
 - permutation, 178
 - rearrangement, 179

S

- schema, concept, 124
- Schreier, Jozef, 55
- Schwarz, Jerry, 150
- segmented array, 221
- segmented index, 221
- select_0_2 algorithm, 53, 63
- select_0_3 algorithm, 54
- select_1_2 algorithm, 54
- select_1_3 algorithm, 55
- select_1_3_ab algorithm, 55
- select_1_4 algorithm, 56, 59
- select_1_4_ab algorithm, 56, 59
- select_1_4_ab_cd algorithm, 56, 58
- select_2_3 algorithm, 54
- select_2_5 algorithm, 60
- select_2_5_ab algorithm, 60
- select_2_5_ab_cd algorithm, 59
- semi (usage convention), 232
- semigroup, 66
- Semimodule* concept, 69
- Semiring* concept, 68
- semistable partition rearrangement, 192
- sentinel, 101
- Sequence* concept, 216
 - extent-based models, 219
 - linked models, 219
- set, 231
- single-ended array, 220
- single-extent array, 220
- single-extent index, 221
- single-pass traversal, 91
- singly linked list, 218
- sink, 149

- size
 - for `array_k`, 212
 - for `bounded_range`, 214
 - for *Linearizable*, 213
- size of an orbit, 20
- size of a range, 94
- `SizeType` type function, 213
- slanted index, 221
- `slow_quotient` algorithm, 73
- `slow_remainder` algorithm, 72
- snapshot, 1
- `some` algorithm, 97
- `sort_linked_nonempty_n` algorithm, 142
- `sort_n` algorithm, 207
- `sort_n_adaptive` algorithm, 207
- `sort_n_with_buffer` algorithm, 203
- source, 90
- space complexity, memory adaptive, 177
- species
 - abstract, 2
 - concrete, 2
- splicing link rearrangement, 219
- `split_copy` algorithm, 158
- `split_linked` algorithm, 137
- stability, 52
 - of merge, 203
 - of partition, 192
 - of sort, 204
 - of sort on linked range, 142
- stability index, 53
- Standard Template Library, x
- starting address, 4, 216
- state of object, 4
- Stein, Josef, 81
- Stein gcd, 81
- STL, x
- store, 4
- strengthened relation, 53
- strengthening precondition, 38
- strict property, 50
- strict tail-recursive, 37
- strictly increasing range, 103
- `strictly_increasing_counted_range` property, 105
- `strictly_increasing_range` property, 104
- structural equality, 228
- subpart of composite object, 216

- subset (\subset), 231
- subtraction, in additive group, 67
- `subtractive_gcd` algorithm, 78
- `subtractive_gcd_nonzero` algorithm, 77
- successor
 - definition space on range, 94
 - of integer, 40
 - of iterator, 91
- sum (+)
 - in additive semigroup, 66
 - of integers, 18
 - of iterator and integer, 92
- `swap` algorithm, 224
- `swap_basic` algorithm, 223
- `swap_ranges` algorithm, 165
- `swap_ranges_bounded` algorithm, 166
- `swap_ranges_n` algorithm, 166
- `swap_step` machine, 165
- symmetric complement of a relation, 52
- symmetric property, 50

T

- tail-recursive form, 35
- technique. *See* program transformation
 - auxiliary computation during recursion, 176
 - memory-adaptive algorithm, 177
 - operation–accumulation procedure duality, 47
 - reduction to constrained subproblem, 54
 - returning useful information, 87, 96, 97, 101–103, 106, 112, 152, 153, 159, 163, 174, 179, 182, 211
 - transformation–action duality, 28
 - useful variations of an interface, 38
- `temporary_buffer` type, 187
- terminal element under transformation, 18
- terminating algorithm, 23
- three-valued compare, 63
- Tighe, Joseph, 179
- to-permutation, 172
- total object state, 5
- total procedure, 17
- total value type, 2
- TotallyOrdered* concept, 62
- `total_ordering` property, 51
- trait class, 240
- transformation, 17
 - composing, 17, 32

- cyclic element, 18
- fixed point of, 170
- identity, 170
- into, 169
- of program. *See* program transformation
- one-to-one, 169
- onto, 169
- orbit, 18
- power of (f^n), 17
- terminal element, 18
- Transformation* concept, 17
- transitive property, 49
- transpose_operation algorithm, 201
- transposition, 171
- traversal
 - multipass, 106
 - single-pass, 91
 - of tree, recursive, 119
- traverse algorithm, 123
- traverse_nonempty algorithm, 118
- traverse_phased_rotating algorithm, 148
- traverse_rotating algorithm, 146
- traverse_step machine, 121
- tree property, 117
- tree_rotate machine, 145
- trichotomy law, 51
- triple type, 11
- trivial cycle, 171
- twice, 40
- two-pointer header doubly linked list, 218
- type
 - array_k, 210
 - bounded_range, 214
 - computational basis, 6
 - counter_machine, 200
 - isomorphism, 86
 - models concept, 11
 - pair, 11, 209
 - regular, 6
 - temporary_buffer, 187
 - triple, 11
 - underlying_iterator, 225
 - visit, 118
- type attribute, 10
 - Arity, 11
- type concept, 11
- type constructor, 11
- type function, 11

- Codomain, 11
- DifferenceType, 113
- DistanceType, 17, 91
- Domain, 12
- implemented via trait class, 240
- InputType, 11
- IteratorConcept, 187
- IteratorType, 133, 134, 213
- QuotientType, 72
- SizeType, 213
- UnderlyingType, 223
- ValueType, 90, 149, 213
- WeightType, 115

U

- unambiguous value type, 3
- UnaryFunction* concept, 12
- UnaryPredicate* concept, 16
- underlying type, 164, 223
 - iterator adapters, 224
 - proper, 223
- UnderlyingType type function, 223
- underlying_iterator type, 225
- underlying_ref algorithm, 224
- union (\cup), 231
- uniquely represented object type, 5
- uniquely represented value type, 2
- univalent concept, 86
- upper bound, 107
- upper_bound_n algorithm, 109
- upper_bound_predicate algorithm, 109
- useful variations of an interface, 38
- usefulness of concept, 87

V

- value, 2
- value type, 2
 - ambiguous, 3
 - properly partial, 2
 - regular function on, 3
 - total, 2
 - uniquely represented, 2
- ValueType type function, 90, 149, 213
- visit type, 118

W

- weak (usage convention), 232
- weak-trichotomy law, 51

- weakening of concept, 11
- `weak_ordering` property, 52
- `weak_range` property, 92
- weight algorithm, 122
- `WeightType` type function, 115
- `weight_recursive` algorithm, 117
- `weight_rotating` algorithm, 147
- well-formed object, 5
- well-formed value, 2

- words in memory, 4
- writable range, 150
- `writable_bounded_range` property, 150
- `writable_counted_range` property, 150
- `writable_weak_range` property, 150
- `write_aliased` property, 159

Z

- zero, 40

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