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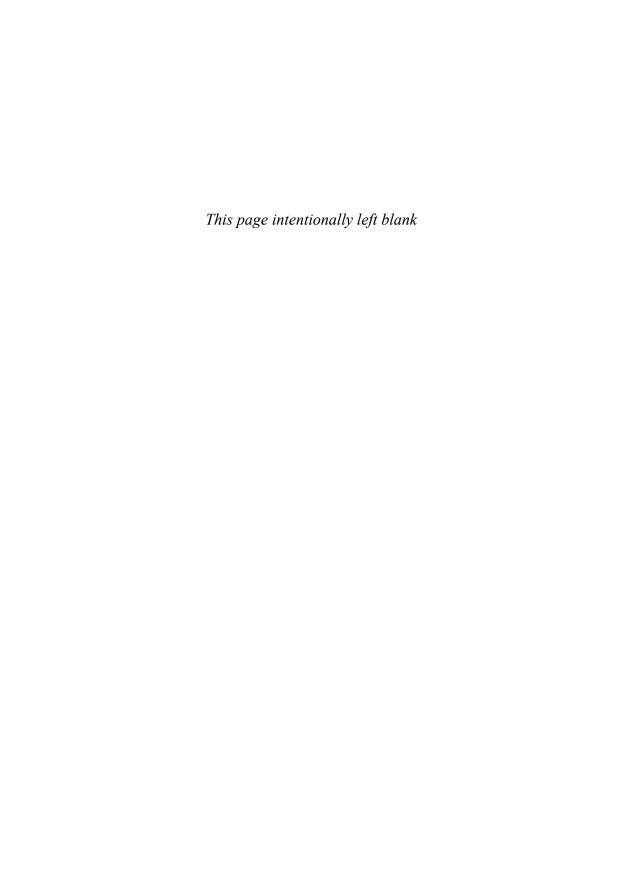








C++ Primer Fifth Edition



C++ Primer Fifth Edition

Stanley B. Lippman Josée Lajoie Barbara E. Moo

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To Beth, who makes this, and all things, possible.

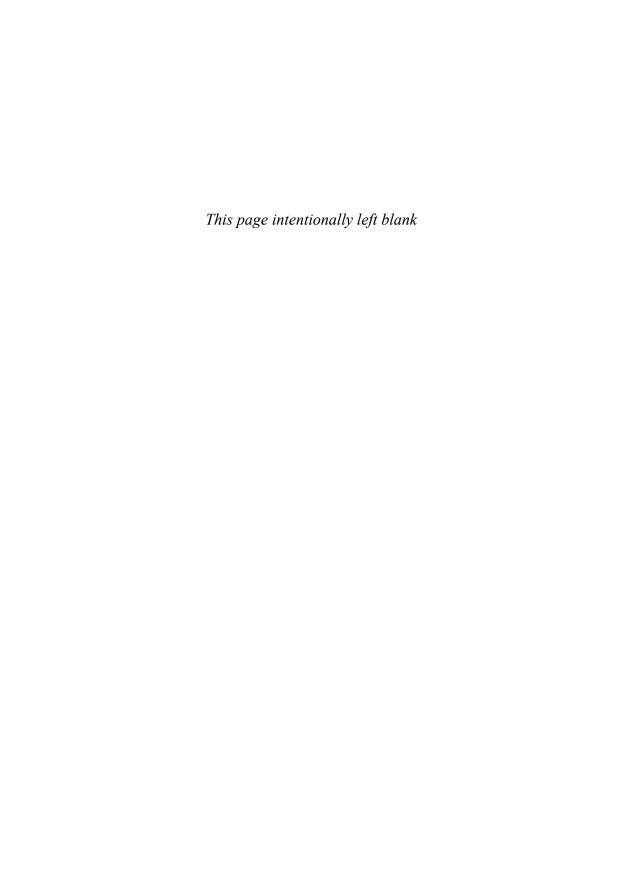
To Daniel and Anna, who contain virtually all possibilities.

—SBL

To Mark and Mom, for their unconditional love and support.

--JL

To Andy,
who taught me
to program
and so much more.
—BEM



Contents

Preface			xxiii
Chapte	r1 G	etting Started	. 1
1.1		ng a Simple C++ Program	
		Compiling and Executing Our Program	
1.2		t Look at Input/Output	
1.3		rd about Comments	
1.4	Flow	of Control	. 11
	1.4.1	The while Statement	. 11
	1.4.2	The for Statement	. 13
	1.4.3	Reading an Unknown Number of Inputs	. 14
	1.4.4	The if Statement	. 17
1.5	Introd	lucing Classes	. 19
	1.5.1	The Sales_item Class	. 20
	1.5.2	A First Look at Member Functions	
1.6	The B	ookstore Program	. 24
Cha	pter Su	mmary	. 26
Defi	ned Te	rms	. 26
Part I	The	Basics	29
-		riables and Basic Types	
2.1		tive Built-in Types	
	2.1.1	Arithmetic Types	
	2.1.2	Type Conversions	
	2.1.3	Literals	
2.2	Variak		
	2.2.1	Variable Definitions	
	2.2.2	Variable Declarations and Definitions	
	2.2.3	Identifiers	
	2.2.4	Scope of a Name	
2.3		ound Types	
	2.3.1	References	
	232	Pointers	52

viii Contents

	2.3.3 Understanding Compound Type Declarations	. 57
2.4		
	2.4.1 References to const	
	2.4.2 Pointers and const	
	2.4.3 Top-Level const	
	2.4.4 constexpr and Constant Expressions	
2.5		
2.0	2.5.1 Type Aliases	
	2.5.2 The auto Type Specifier	
	2.5.3 The decltype Type Specifier	
2.6		
2.0	2.6.1 Defining the Sales_data Type	
	2.6.2 Using the Sales data Class	
	2.6.3 Writing Our Own Header Files	
Cha	apter Summary	
	fined Terms	
DCI	mica femilia	. 70
Chapte	er 3 Strings, Vectors, and Arrays	. 81
3.1		
3.2		
	3.2.1 Defining and Initializing strings	
	3.2.2 Operations on strings	
	3.2.3 Dealing with the Characters in a string	
3.3		
	3.3.1 Defining and Initializing vectors	
	3.3.2 Adding Elements to a vector	
	3.3.3 Other vector Operations	
3.4		
	3.4.1 Using Iterators	
	3.4.2 Iterator Arithmetic	
3.5	Arrays	
	3.5.1 Defining and Initializing Built-in Arrays	
	3.5.2 Accessing the Elements of an Array	
	3.5.3 Pointers and Arrays	
	3.5.4 C-Style Character Strings	
	3.5.5 Interfacing to Older Code	
3.6		
	apter Summary	
	fined Terms	
Chapte	er 4 Expressions	
4.1		
	4.1.1 Basic Concepts	
	4.1.2 Precedence and Associativity	
	4.1.3 Order of Evaluation	
4.2	1	
4.3	Logical and Relational Operators	. 141

Contents ix

	4.4	Assignment Operators	144
	4.5	Increment and Decrement Operators	147
	4.6	The Member Access Operators	
	4.7	The Conditional Operator	151
	4.8	The Bitwise Operators	152
	4.9	The sizeof Operator	156
	4.10	O Comma Operator	157
		1 Type Conversions	
		4.11.1 The Arithmetic Conversions	
		4.11.2 Other Implicit Conversions	
		4.11.3 Explicit Conversions	
	4.12	2 Operator Precedence Table	
		apter Summary	
	Defi	fined Terms	168
Ch	•	er 5 Statements	
	5.1	Simple Statements	
	5.2	Statement Scope	
	5.3	Conditional Statements	
		5.3.1 The if Statement	
	F 4	5.3.2 The switch Statement	
	5.4		
		5.4.1 The while Statement	
		5.4.2 Traditional for Statement	
		5.4.3 Range for Statement	
		5.4.4 The do while Statement	
	5.5	Jump Statements	
		5.5.1 The break Statement	
		5.5.2 The continue Statement	
	г.	5.5.3 The goto Statement	
	5.6		
		5.6.1 A throw Expression	
	Char	5.6.3 Standard Exceptions	
		fined Terms	
	Dem	mied ferms	199
Ch	apte	er 6 Functions	201
	6.1	Function Basics	
		6.1.1 Local Objects	204
		6.1.2 Function Declarations	206
		6.1.3 Separate Compilation	207
	6.2	Argument Passing	208
		6.2.1 Passing Arguments by Value	
		6.2.2 Passing Arguments by Reference	
		6.2.3 const Parameters and Arguments	212
		6.2.4 Array Parameters	214

x Contents

	6.2.5	main: Handling Command-Line Options	218
	6.2.6	Functions with Varying Parameters	
6.3	Retur	n Types and the return Statement	
	6.3.1	• •	
	6.3.2		
	6.3.3	Returning a Pointer to an Array	
6.4	Overl	oaded Functions	
	6.4.1	Overloading and Scope	234
6.5	Featu	res for Specialized Uses	
	6.5.1	•	
	6.5.2	•	
	6.5.3		
6.6	Funct	ion Matching	
	6.6.1	Argument Type Conversions	
6.7	Pointe	ers to Functions	
Cha	pter Su	mmary	251
Defi	ned Te	rms	251
Chapte		asses	
7.1		ing Abstract Data Types	
	7.1.1	Designing the Sales_data Class	
	7.1.2	_	
	7.1.3	Defining Nonmember Class-Related Functions	
	7.1.4	Constructors	
	7.1.5	Copy, Assignment, and Destruction	
7.2	Acces	s Control and Encapsulation	
	7.2.1	Friends	
7.3		ional Class Features	
	7.3.1		
	7.3.2	Functions That Return *this	
	7.3.3	Class Types	
	7.3.4	Friendship Revisited	
7.4	Class	Scope	
	7.4.1	Name Lookup and Class Scope	
7.5	Const	ructors Revisited	288
	7.5.1	Constructor Initializer List	
	7.5.2	Delegating Constructors	
	7.5.3	The Role of the Default Constructor	
	7.5.4	Implicit Class-Type Conversions	
	7.5.5	Aggregate Classes	
	7.5.6	Literal Classes	299
7.6	stat	ic Class Members	300
Cha	pter Su	mmary	305
Defi	ined Te	rms	305

Contents xi

Part I	[Th	e C++ Library	307
Chapte	r8 Tl	he IO Library	309
8.1	The I	O Classes	310
	8.1.1	No Copy or Assign for IO Objects	311
	8.1.2	Condition States	
	8.1.3	Managing the Output Buffer	314
8.2	File Ir	nput and Output	316
	8.2.1	Using File Stream Objects	317
	8.2.2	File Modes	319
8.3	stri	ng Streams	321
	8.3.1	Using an istringstream	321
	8.3.2	Using ostringstreams	323
Cha	pter Su	ımmary	324
Def	ined Te	rms	324
Chapte		equential Containers	
9.1		view of the Sequential Containers	
9.2	Conta	niner Library Overview	328
	9.2.1	Iterators	331
	9.2.2	Container Type Members	332
	9.2.3	begin and end Members	333
	9.2.4	Defining and Initializing a Container	334
	9.2.5	Assignment and swap	
	9.2.6	Container Size Operations	340
	9.2.7	Relational Operators	340
9.3	Seque	ential Container Operations	341
	9.3.1	Adding Elements to a Sequential Container	
	9.3.2	Accessing Elements	346
	9.3.3	Erasing Elements	348
	9.3.4	Specialized forward_list Operations	350
	9.3.5	Resizing a Container	352
	9.3.6	Container Operations May Invalidate Iterators	353
9.4	How	a vector Grows	355
9.5	Addit	tional string Operations	360
	9.5.1	Other Ways to Construct strings	360
	9.5.2	Other Ways to Change a string	361
	9.5.3	string Search Operations	364
	9.5.4	The compare Functions	366
	9.5.5	Numeric Conversions	367
9.6	Conta	iner Adaptors	368
Cha	pter Su	ımmary	372
	_	rms	372

<u>xii</u> Contents

Chapte	r 10 Generic Algorithms	375
10.1	Overview	. 376
10.2	A First Look at the Algorithms	. 378
	10.2.1 Read-Only Algorithms	. 379
	10.2.2 Algorithms That Write Container Elements	. 380
	10.2.3 Algorithms That Reorder Container Elements	
10.3	Customizing Operations	
	10.3.1 Passing a Function to an Algorithm	. 386
	10.3.2 Lambda Expressions	
	10.3.3 Lambda Captures and Returns	. 392
	10.3.4 Binding Arguments	
10.4	Revisiting Iterators	. 401
	10.4.1 Insert Iterators	. 401
	10.4.2 iostream Iterators	
	10.4.3 Reverse Iterators	
10.5	Structure of Generic Algorithms	
	10.5.1 The Five Iterator Categories	
	10.5.2 Algorithm Parameter Patterns	
	10.5.3 Algorithm Naming Conventions	
10.6	Container-Specific Algorithms	. 415
Cha	pter Summary	. 417
	ned Terms	
	r 11 Associative Containers	
	Using an Associative Container	
11.2	Overview of the Associative Containers	
	11.2.1 Defining an Associative Container	. 423
	11.2.2 Requirements on Key Type	. 424
	11.2.3 The pair Type	. 426
11.3	Operations on Associative Containers	
	11.3.1 Associative Container Iterators	
	11.3.2 Adding Elements	. 431
	11.3.3 Erasing Elements	
	11.3.4 Subscripting a map	
	11.3.5 Accessing Elements	. 436
	11.3.6 A Word Transformation Map	
11.4	The Unordered Containers	. 443
Cha	pter Summary	. 447
Defi	ned Terms	. 447
C1 .	40 D ' 14	4.40
	r 12 Dynamic Memory	
12.1	Dynamic Memory and Smart Pointers	
	12.1.1 The shared_ptr Class	
	12.1.2 Managing Memory Directly	
	12.1.3 Using shared_ptrs with new	
	12.1.4 Smart Pointers and Exceptions	
	12.1.5 unique_ptr	. 470

Contents xiii

	12.1.6 weak_ptr	. 473
12.2	Dynamic Arrays	
	12.2.1 new and Arrays	
	12.2.2 The allocator Class	
12.3	Using the Library: A Text-Query Program	
	12.3.1 Design of the Query Program	
	12.3.2 Defining the Query Program Classes	
Cha	pter Summary	
	ined Terms	
Part II	II Tools for Class Authors	493
C1 (10.0	405
	r 13 Copy Control	
13.1	Copy, Assign, and Destroy	
	13.1.1 The Copy Constructor	. 496
	13.1.2 The Copy-Assignment Operator	
	13.1.3 The Destructor	
	13.1.4 The Rule of Three/Five	
	13.1.5 Using = default	
12.0	13.1.6 Preventing Copies	
13.2	Copy Control and Resource Management	
	13.2.1 Classes That Act Like Values	
12.2	13.2.2 Defining Classes That Act Like Pointers	
	Swap	
	A Copy-Control Example	
13.3	Classes That Manage Dynamic Memory	. 524
13.6	Moving Objects	. 331
	13.6.1 Rvalue References	
	13.6.2 Move Constructor and Move Assignment	
Cha	13.6.3 Rvalue References and Member Functions	
	pter Summary	
Den	ned terms	. 349
Chapte	r 14 Overloaded Operations and Conversions	. 551
	Basic Concepts	
	Input and Output Operators	
	14.2.1 Overloading the Output Operator <<	
	14.2.2 Overloading the Input Operator >>	
14.3	Arithmetic and Relational Operators	
	14.3.1 Equality Operators	
	14.3.2 Relational Operators	
	Assignment Operators	
	Subscript Operator	
	Increment and Decrement Operators	
	Member Access Operators	
14.8	Function-Call Operator	. 571

xiv Contents

		Lambdas Are Function Objects	
		Library-Defined Function Objects	
		Callable Objects and function	
14.9		oading, Conversions, and Operators	
		Conversion Operators	
		Avoiding Ambiguous Conversions	
		Function Matching and Overloaded Operators	
		mmary	
Def	ined Ter	rms	590
		oject-Oriented Programming	
		An Overview	
15.2	Defini	ng Base and Derived Classes	594
	15.2.1	Defining a Base Class	594
	15.2.2	Defining a Derived Class	596
	15.2.3	Conversions and Inheritance	601
15.3	8 Virtua	l Functions	603
		act Base Classes	
15.5	Access	Control and Inheritance	611
15.6	Class S	Scope under Inheritance	617
15.7		ructors and Copy Control	
		Virtual Destructors	
		Synthesized Copy Control and Inheritance	
		Derived-Class Copy-Control Members	
		Inherited Constructors	
15.8		iners and Inheritance	
		Writing a Basket Class	
15.9		ueries Revisited	
		An Object-Oriented Solution	
		The Query_base and Query Classes	
		The Derived Classes	
		The eval Functions	
		mmary	
Def	ined Ter	rms	649
-		mplates and Generic Programming	
16.1		ng a Template	
		Function Templates	
		Class Templates	
	16.1.3	Template Parameters	668
	16.1.4	Member Templates	672
	16.1.5	Controlling Instantiations	675
	16.1.6	Efficiency and Flexibility	676
16.2		ate Argument Deduction	
		Conversions and Template Type Parameters	
		Function-Template Explicit Arguments	
	16.2.3	Trailing Return Types and Type Transformation	683

Contents xv

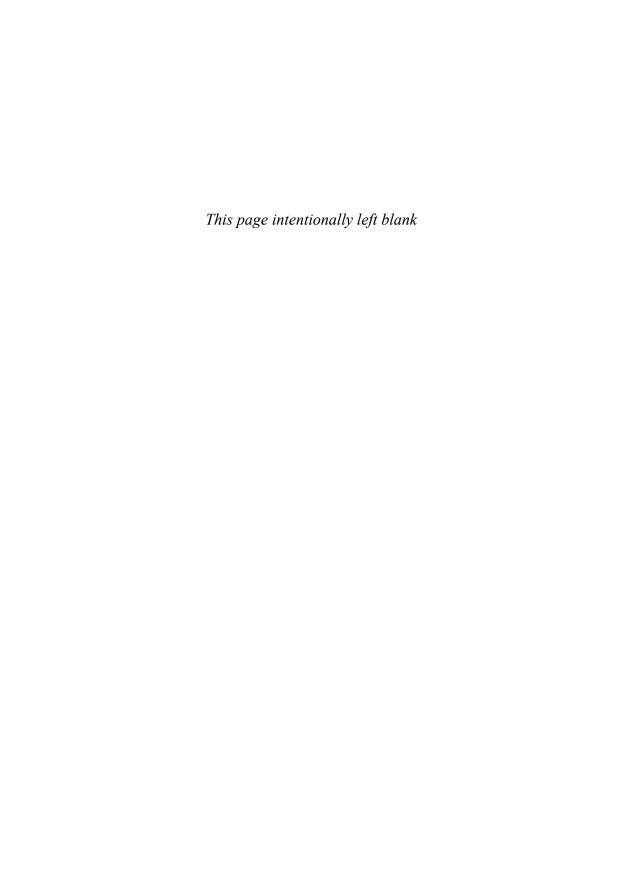
16	6.2.4 Function Pointers and Argument Deduction	686
	6.2.5 Template Argument Deduction and References	
	6.2.6 Understanding std::move	
16	6.2.7 Forwarding	692
16.3 O	Overloading and Templates	694
16.4 V	ariadic Templates	699
16	6.4.1 Writing a Variadic Function Template	701
16	6.4.2 Pack Expansion	702
16	6.4.3 Forwarding Parameter Packs	704
16.5 Te	emplate Specializations	706
Chapte	er Summary	713
Define	d Terms	713
Part IV	Advanced Topics	715
	•	
	7 Specialized Library Facilities	
17.1 T	he tuple Type	718
17	7.1.1 Defining and Initializing tuples	718
	7.1.2 Using a tuple to Return Multiple Values	
17.2 T	he bitset Type	723
17	7.2.1 Defining and Initializing bitsets	723
	7.2.2 Operations on bitsets	
17.3 R	egular Expressions	728
	7.3.1 Using the Regular Expression Library	
	7.3.2 The Match and Regex Iterator Types	
17	7.3.3 Using Subexpressions	738
17	7.3.4 Using regex_replace	741
17.4 R	andom Numbers	745
17	7.4.1 Random-Number Engines and Distribution	745
17	7.4.2 Other Kinds of Distributions	749
17.5 T	he IO Library Revisited	752
17	7.5.1 Formatted Input and Output	753
17	7.5.2 Unformatted Input/Output Operations	761
17	7.5.3 Random Access to a Stream	763
	er Summary	
	d Terms	
Chapter 1	8 Tools for Large Programs	771
	xception Handling	
	8.1.1 Throwing an Exception	
	8.1.2 Catching an Exception	
	8.1.3 Function try Blocks and Constructors	
	8.1.4 The noexcept Exception Specification	
	8.1.5 Exception Class Hierarchies	
	Jamespaces	
	8.2.1 Namespace Definitions	
1(

xvi Contents

	18.2.2 Using Namespace Members	. 792
	18.2.3 Classes, Namespaces, and Scope	
	18.2.4 Overloading and Namespaces	
18.3	Multiple and Virtual Inheritance	
	18.3.1 Multiple Inheritance	
	18.3.2 Conversions and Multiple Base Classes	
	18.3.3 Class Scope under Multiple Inheritance	
	18.3.4 Virtual Inheritance	
	18.3.5 Constructors and Virtual Inheritance	
Cha	pter Summary	. 816
Defi	ned Terms	. 816
Chapta	r 19 Specialized Tools and Techniques	Q10
	Controlling Memory Allocation	
17.1	19.1.1 Overloading new and delete	820
	19.1.2 Placement new Expressions	
19 2	Run-Time Type Identification	
19.2	19.2.1 The dynamic_cast Operator	
	19.2.2 The typeid Operator	
	19.2.3 Using RTTI	
	19.2.4 The type_info Class	
19.3	Enumerations	832
	Pointer to Class Member	
17.1	19.4.1 Pointers to Data Members	
	19.4.2 Pointers to Member Functions	
	19.4.3 Using Member Functions as Callable Objects	
19.5	Nested Classes	
	union: A Space-Saving Class	
19.7	Local Classes	. 852
	Inherently Nonportable Features	
	19.8.1 Bit-fields	. 854
	19.8.2 volatile Qualifier	
	19.8.3 Linkage Directives: extern "C"	
Cha	pter Summary	
	ned Terms	
Annena	dix A The Library	865
	Library Names and Headers	
	A Brief Tour of the Algorithms	
11.2	A.2.1 Algorithms to Find an Object	. 871
	A.2.2 Other Read-Only Algorithms	
	A.2.3 Binary Search Algorithms	
	A.2.4 Algorithms That Write Container Elements	
	A.2.5 Partitioning and Sorting Algorithms	
	A.2.6 General Reordering Operations	
	A.2.7 Permutation Algorithms	. 879
	A.2.8 Set Algorithms for Sorted Sequences	

Contents xvii

A.3	A.2.10 Rando A.3.1	Minimum and Maximum Values	. 881 . 882 . 883
Index			887

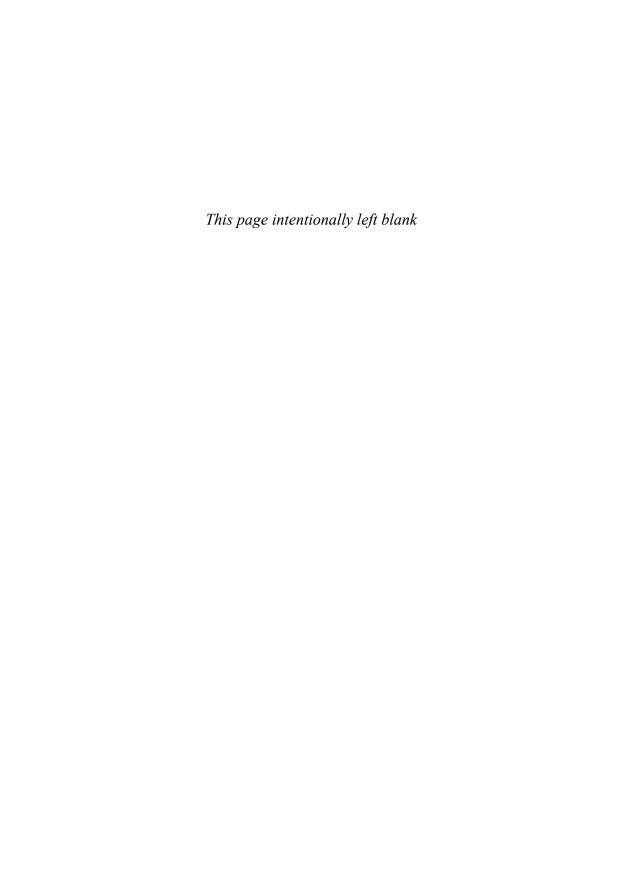


New Features in C++11

2.1.1	long long Type
2.2.1	List Initialization
2.3.2	nullptr Literal 54
2.4.4	constexpr Variables 66
2.5.1	Type Alias Declarations
2.5.2	The auto Type Specifier
2.5.3	The decltype Type Specifier
2.6.1	In-Class Initializers
3.2.2	Using auto or decltype for Type Abbreviation 88
3.2.3	Range for Statement 91
3.3	Defining a vector of vectors
3.3.1	List Initialization for vectors
3.4.1	Container cbegin and cend Functions 109
3.5.3	Library begin and end Functions
3.6	Using auto or decltype to Simplify Declarations 129
4.2	Rounding Rules for Division
4.4	Assignment from a Braced List of Values
4.9	sizeof Applied to a Class Member
5.4.3	Range for Statement
6.2.6	Library initializer_list Class
6.3.2	List Initializing a Return Value
6.3.3	Declaring a Trailing Return Type
6.3.3	Using decltype to Simplify Return Type Declarations 230
6.5.2	constexpr Functions
7.1.4	Using = default to Generate a Default Constructor 265
7.3.1	In-class Initializers for Members of Class Type 274
7.5.2	Delegating Constructors
7.5.6	constexpr Constructors
8.2.1	Using strings for File Names
9.1	The array and forward_list Containers327
9.2.3	Container cbegin and cend Functions
9.2.4	List Initialization for Containers
9.2.5	Container Nonmember swap Functions
9.3.1	Return Type for Container insert Members
9.3.1	Container emplace Members

9.4	shrink_to_fit	. 357
9.5.5	Numeric Conversion Functions for strings	. 367
10.3.2		
10.3.3	Trailing Return Type in Lambda Expressions	. 396
10.3.4		
11.2.1	List Initialization of an Associative Container	
	List Initializing pair Return Type	
	List Initialization of a pair	
11.4	The Unordered Containers	
12.1	Smart Pointers	
12.1.1	The shared ptr Class	
12.1.2	List Initialization of Dynamically Allocated Objects	. 459
	auto and Dynamic Allocation	
12.1.5	The unique_ptr Class	. 470
	The weak_ptr Class	
12.2.1		
12.2.1	List Initialization of Dynamically Allocated Arrays	
12.2.1		
12.2.2		
13.1.5	Using = default for Copy-Control Members	
	Using = delete to Prevent Copying Class Objects	
13.5	Moving Instead of Copying Class Objects	
13.6.1	Rvalue References	
	The Library move Function	
	Move Constructor and Move Assignment	
	Move Constructors Usually Should Be noexcept	
	Move Iterators	
13.6.3	Reference Qualified Member Functions	. 546
14.8.3	The function Class Template	. 577
	explicit Conversion Operators	
	override Specifier for Virtual Functions	
	Preventing Inheritance by Defining a Class as final	
15.3		
15.7.2	Deleted Copy Control and Inheritance	. 624
	Inherited Constructors	
16.1.2	Declaring a Template Type Parameter as a Friend	. 666
16.1.2	Template Type Aliases	. 666
16.1.3	Default Template Arguments for Template Functions	. 670
16.1.5	Explicit Control of Instantiation	. 675
16.2.3	Template Functions and Trailing Return Types	. 684
16.2.5	Reference Collapsing Rules	. 688
16.2.6	static_cast from an Lvalue to an Rvalue	. 691
16.2.7	The Library forward Function	
16.4	Variadic Templates	
16.4	The sizeof Operator	. 700
16.4.3	Variadic Templates and Forwarding	

17.1	The Library Tuple Class Template 718
17.2.2	New bitset Operations
17.3	The Regular Expression Library
17.4	The Random Number Library
17.5.1	Floating-Point Format Control
18.1.4	The noexcept Exception Specifier
18.1.4	The noexcept Operator
18.2.1	Inline Namespaces
18.3.1	Inherited Constructors and Multiple Inheritance 804
19.3	Scoped enums
19.3	Specifying the Type Used to Hold an enum 834
19.3	Forward Declarations for enums
19.4.3	The Library mem_fn Class Template 843
19.6	Union Members of Class Types



Preface

Countless programmers have learned C++ from previous editions of C++ Primer. During that time, C++ has matured greatly: Its focus, and that of its programming community, has widened from looking mostly at machine efficiency to devoting more attention to programmer efficiency.

In 2011, the C++ standards committee issued a major revision to the ISO C++ standard. This revised standard is latest step in C++'s evolution and continues the emphasis on programmer efficiency. The primary goals of the new standard are to

- Make the language more uniform and easier to teach and to learn
- Make the standard libraries easier, safer, and more efficient to use
- Make it easier to write efficient abstractions and libraries

In this edition, we have completely revised the *C++ Primer* to use the latest standard. You can get an idea of how extensively the new standard has affected *C++* by reviewing the New Features Table of Contents, which lists the sections that cover new material and appears on page xxi.

Some additions in the new standard, such as auto for type inference, are pervasive. These facilities make the code in this edition easier to read and to understand. Programs (and programmers!) can ignore type details, which makes it easier to concentrate on what the program is intended to do. Other new features, such as smart pointers and move-enabled containers, let us write more sophisticated classes without having to contend with the intricacies of resource management. As a result, we can start to teach how to write your own classes much earlier in the book than we did in the Fourth Edition. We—and you—no longer have to worry about many of the details that stood in our way under the previous standard.

We've marked those parts of the text that cover features defined by the new standard, with a marginal icon. We hope that readers who are already familiar with the core of C++ will find these alerts useful in deciding where to focus their attention. We also expect that these icons will help explain error messages from compilers that might not yet support every new feature. Although nearly all of the examples in this book have been compiled under the current release of the GNU compiler, we realize some readers will not yet have access to completely updated compilers. Even though numerous capabilities have been added by the latest standard, the core language remains unchanged and forms the bulk of the material that we cover. Readers can use these icons to note which capabilities may not yet be available in their compiler.



xxiv Preface

Why Read This Book?

Modern C++ can be thought of as comprising three parts:

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

Most texts present C++ in the order in which it evolved. They teach the C subset of C++ first, and present the more abstract features of C++ as advanced topics at the end of the book. There are two problems with this approach: Readers can get bogged down in the details inherent in low-level programming and give up in frustration. Those who do press on learn bad habits that they must unlearn later.

We take the opposite approach: Right from the start, we use the features that let programmers ignore the details inherent in low-level programming. For example, we introduce and use the library string and vector types along with the built-in arithmetic and array types. Programs that use these library types are easier to write, easier to understand, and much less error-prone.

Too often, the library is taught as an "advanced" topic. Instead of using the library, many books use low-level programming techniques based on pointers to character arrays and dynamic memory management. Getting programs that use these low-level techniques to work correctly is much harder than writing the corresponding C++ code using the library.

Throughout C++ Primer, we emphasize good style: We want to help you, the reader, develop good habits immediately and avoid needing to unlearn bad habits as you gain more sophisticated knowledge. We highlight particularly tricky matters and warn about common misconceptions and pitfalls.

We also explain the rationale behind the rules—explaining the why not just the what. We believe that by understanding why things work as they do, readers can more quickly cement their grasp of the language.

Although you do not need to know C in order to understand this book, we assume you know enough about programming to write, compile, and run a program in at least one modern block-structured language. In particular, we assume you have used variables, written and called functions, and used a compiler.

Changes to the Fifth Edition

New to this edition of *C++ Primer* are icons in the margins to help guide the reader. C++ is a large language that offers capabilities tailored to particular kinds of programming problems. Some of these capabilities are of great import for large project teams but might not be necessary for smaller efforts. As a result, not every programmer needs to know every detail of every feature. We've added these marginal icons to help the reader know which parts can be learned later and which topics are more essential.



We've marked sections that cover the fundamentals of the language with an image of a person studying a book. The topics covered in sections marked this

Preface xxv

way form the core part of the language. Everyone should read and understand these sections.

We've also indicated those sections that cover advanced or special-purpose topics. These sections can be skipped or skimmed on a first reading. We've marked such sections with a stack of books to indicate that you can safely put down the book at that point. It is probably a good idea to skim such sections so you know that the capability exists. However, there is no reason to spend time studying these topics until you actually need to use the feature in your own programs.



To help readers guide their attention further, we've noted particularly tricky concepts with a magnifying-glass icon. We hope that readers will take the time to understand thoroughly the material presented in the sections so marked. In at least some of these sections, the import of the topic may not be readily apparent; but we think you'll find that these sections cover topics that turn out to be essential to understanding the language.



Another aid to reading this book, is our extensive use of cross-references. We hope these references will make it easier for readers to dip into the middle of the book, yet easily jump back to the earlier material on which later examples rely.

What remains unchanged is that *C++ Primer* is a clear, correct, and thorough tutorial guide to *C++*. We teach the language by presenting a series of increasingly sophisticated examples, which explain language features and show how to make the best use of *C++*.

Structure of This Book

We start by covering the basics of the language and the library together in Parts I and II. These parts cover enough material to let you, the reader, write significant programs. 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: By using the abstract facilities defined by the library, you will become more comfortable with using high-level programming techniques. The library facilities are themselves abstract data types that are usually 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.

Only after a thorough grounding in using the library—and writing the kinds of abstract programs that the library allows—do we move on to those C++ features that will enable you to write your own abstractions. Parts III and IV focus on writing abstractions in the form of classes. Part III covers the fundamentals; Part IV covers more specialized facilities.

In Part III, we cover issues of copy control, along with other techniques to make classes that are as easy to use as the built-in types. Classes are the foundation for object-oriented and generic programming, which we also cover in Part III. *C++ Primer* concludes with Part IV, which covers features that are of most use in structuring large, complicated systems. We also summarize the library algorithms in Appendix A.

xxvi Preface

Aids to the Reader

Each chapter concludes with a summary, followed by a glossary of defined terms, which together 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.
- To make it easier to follow the relationships among features and concepts, we provide extensive forward and backward cross-references.
- We provide sidebar discussions on important concepts and for topics that new C++ programmers 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.informit.com/title/0321714113

A Note about Compilers

As of this writing (July, 2012), compiler vendors are hard at work updating their compilers to match the latest ISO standard. The compiler we use most frequently is the GNU compiler, version 4.7.0. There are only a few features used in this book that this compiler does not yet implement: inheriting constructors, reference qualifiers for member functions, and the regular-expression library.

Acknowledgments

In preparing this edition we are very grateful for the help of several current and former members of the standardization committee: Dave Abrahams, Andy Koenig, Stephan T. Lavavej, Jason Merrill, John Spicer, and Herb Sutter. They provided invaluable assistance to us in understanding some of the more subtle parts of the new standard. We'd also like to thank the many folks who worked on updating the GNU compiler making the standard a reality.

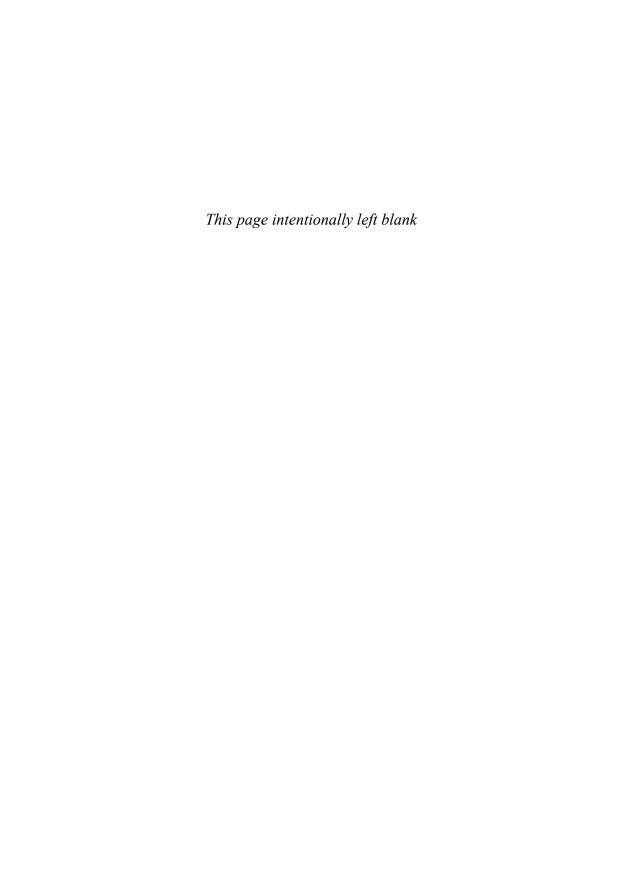
As in previous editions of *C++ Primer*, we'd like to extend our thanks to Bjarne Stroustrup for his tireless work on *C++* and for his friendship to the authors during most of that time. We'd also like to thank Alex Stepanov for his original insights that led to the containers and algorithms at the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

Preface xxvii

We extend our deep-felt thanks to our reviewers, whose helpful comments led us to make improvements great and small throughout the book: Marshall Clow, Jon Kalb, Nevin Liber, Dr. C. L. 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.

Finally, we thank the fine folks at Addison-Wesley who have shepherded this edition through the publishing process: Peter Gordon, our editor, who provided the impetus for us to revise *C++ Primer* once again; Kim Boedigheimer, who keeps us all on schedule; Barbara Wood, who found lots of editing errors for us during the copy-edit phase, and Elizabeth Ryan, who was again a delight to work with as she guided us through the design and production process.



с н а р т е к 12

DYNAMIC MEMORY

CONTENTS

Section 12.1 Dynamic Memory and Smart Pointers	450
Section 12.2 Dynamic Arrays	476
Section 12.3 Using the Library: A Text-Query Program	
Chapter Summary	491
Defined Terms	491

The programs we've written so far have used objects that have well-defined lifetimes. Global objects are allocated at program start-up and destroyed when the program ends. Local, automatic objects are created and destroyed when the block in which they are defined is entered and exited. Local static objects are allocated before their first use and are destroyed when the program ends.

In addition to supporting automatic and static objects, C++ lets us allocate objects dynamically. Dynamically allocated objects have a lifetime that is independent of where they are created; they exist until they are explicitly freed.

Properly freeing dynamic objects turns out to be a surprisingly rich source of bugs. To make using dynamic objects safer, the library defines two smart pointer types that manage dynamically allocated objects. Smart pointers ensure that the objects to which they point are automatically freed when it is appropriate to do so.

Our programs have used only static or stack memory. Static memory is used for local static objects (§ 6.1.1, p. 205), for class static data members (§ 7.6, p. 300), and for variables defined outside any function. Stack memory is used for nonstatic objects defined inside functions. Objects allocated in static or stack memory are automatically created and destroyed by the compiler. Stack objects exist only while the block in which they are defined is executing; static objects are allocated before they are used, and they are destroyed when the program ends.

In addition to static or stack memory, every program also has a pool of memory that it can use. This memory is referred to as the **free store** or **heap**. Programs use the heap for objects that they **dynamically allocate**—that is, for objects that the program allocates at run time. The program controls the lifetime of dynamic objects; our code must explicitly destroy such objects when they are no longer needed.



Although necessary at times, dynamic memory is notoriously tricky to manage correctly.

12.1 Dynamic Memory and Smart Pointers

In C++, dynamic memory is managed through a pair of operators: **new**, which allocates, and optionally initializes, an object in dynamic memory and returns a pointer to that object; and **delete**, which takes a pointer to a dynamic object, destroys that object, and frees the associated memory.

Dynamic memory is problematic because it is surprisingly hard to ensure that we free memory at the right time. Either we forget to free the memory—in which case we have a memory leak—or we free the memory when there are still pointers referring to that memory—in which case we have a pointer that refers to memory that is no longer valid.



To make using dynamic memory easier (and safer), the new library provides two **smart pointer** types that manage dynamic objects. A smart pointer acts like a regular pointer with the important exception that it automatically deletes the object to which it points. The new library defines two kinds of smart pointers that differ in how they manage their underlying pointers: **shared_ptr**, which allows multiple pointers to refer to the same object, and **unique_ptr**, which "owns" the object to which it points. The library also defines a companion class named **weak_ptr** that is a weak reference to an object managed by a shared_ptr. All three are defined in the memory header.



12.1.1 The shared ptr Class

Like vectors, smart pointers are templates (§ 3.3, p. 96). Therefore, when we create a smart pointer, we must supply additional information—in this case, the type to which the pointer can point. As with vector, we supply that type inside angle brackets that follow the name of the kind of smart pointer we are defining:

```
shared_ptr<list<int>> p2; // shared_ptr that can point at a list of ints
```

A default initialized smart pointer holds a null pointer (§ 2.3.2, p. 53). In § 12.1.3 (p. 464), we'll cover additional ways to initialize a smart pointer.

We use a smart pointer in ways that are similar to using a pointer. Dereferencing a smart pointer returns the object to which the pointer points. When we use a smart pointer in a condition, the effect is to test whether the pointer is null:

```
// if p1 is not null, check whether it's the empty string
if (p1 && p1->empty())
 *p1 = "hi"; // if so, dereference p1 to assign a new value to that string
```

Table 12.1 (overleaf) lists operations common to shared_ptr and unique_ptr. Those that are particular to shared_ptr are listed in Table 12.2 (p. 453).

The make shared Function

The safest way to allocate and use dynamic memory is to call a library function named make_shared. This function allocates and initializes an object in dynamic memory and returns a shared_ptr that points to that object. Like the smart pointers, make shared is defined in the memory header.

When we call make_shared, we must specify the type of object we want to create. We do so in the same way as we use a template class, by following the function name with a type enclosed in angle brackets:

```
// shared_ptr that points to an int with value 42
shared_ptr<int> p3 = make_shared<int>(42);
// p4 points to a string with value 999999999
shared_ptr<string> p4 = make_shared<string>(10, '9');
// p5 points to an int that is value initialized (§ 3.3.1 (p. 98)) to 0
shared_ptr<int> p5 = make_shared<int>();
```

Like the sequential-container emplace members (§ 9.3.1, p. 345), make_shared uses its arguments to construct an object of the given type. For example, a call to make_shared<string> must pass argument(s) that match one of the string constructors. Calls to make_shared<int> can pass any value we can use to initialize an int. And so on. If we do not pass any arguments, then the object is value initialized (§ 3.3.1, p. 98).

Of course, ordinarily we use auto (§ 2.5.2, p. 68) to make it easier to define an object to hold the result of make shared:

```
// p6 points to a dynamically allocated, empty vector<string>
auto p6 = make_shared<vector<string>>();
```

Copying and Assigning shared ptrs

When we copy or assign a shared_ptr, each shared_ptr keeps track of how many other shared_ptrs point to the same object:

```
auto p = make\_shared < int > (42); // object to which p points has one user auto q(p); // p and q point to the same object // object to which p and q point has two users
```

Table 12.1: Operations Common to shared_ptr and unique_ptr				
shared_ptr <t> sp unique_ptr<t> up</t></t>	Null smart pointer that can point to objects of type T.			
р	Use p as a condition; true if p points to an object.			
*p	Dereference p to get the object to which p points.			
p->mem	Synonym for (*p).mem.			
p.get()	Returns the pointer in p. Use with caution; the object to which the returned pointer points will disappear when the smart pointer deletes it.			
swap(p, q) p.swap(q)	Swaps the pointers in p and q.			

We can think of a shared_ptr as if it has an associated counter, usually referred to as a **reference count**. Whenever we copy a shared_ptr, the count is incremented. For example, the counter associated with a shared_ptr is incremented when we use it to initialize another shared_ptr, when we use it as the right-hand operand of an assignment, or when we pass it to (§ 6.2.1, p. 209) or return it from a function by value (§ 6.3.2, p. 224). The counter is decremented when we assign a new value to the shared_ptr and when the shared_ptr itself is destroyed, such as when a local shared_ptr goes out of scope (§ 6.1.1, p. 204).

Once a shared_ptr's counter goes to zero, the shared_ptr automatically frees the object that it manages:

Here we allocate an int and store a pointer to that int in r. Next, we assign a new value to r. In this case, r is the only shared_ptr pointing to the one we previously allocated. That int is automatically freed as part of assigning q to r.



It is up to the implementation whether to use a counter or another data structure to keep track of how many pointers share state. The key point is that the class keeps track of how many shared_ptrs point to the same object and automatically frees that object when appropriate.

shared_ptrs Automatically Destroy Their Objects...

When the last <code>shared_ptr</code> pointing to an object is destroyed, the <code>shared_ptr</code> class automatically destroys the object to which that <code>shared_ptr</code> points. It does so through another special member function known as a <code>destructor</code>. Analogous to its constructors, each class has a destructor. Just as a constructor controls initialization, the destructor controls what happens when objects of that class type are destroyed.

Table 12.2: Operations Specific to shared_ptr					
make_shared <t>(args)</t>	Returns a shared_ptr pointing to a dynamically allocated object of type T. Uses <i>args</i> to initialize that object.				
shared_ptr <t>p(q)</t>	p is a copy of the shared_ptr q; increments the count in q. The pointer in q must be convertible to $T*$ (§ 4.11.2, p. 161).				
b = d	p and q are shared_ptrs holding pointers that can be converted to one another. Decrements p's reference count and increments q's count; deletes p's existing memory if p's count goes to 0.				
p.unique()	Returns true if p.use_count() is one; false otherwise.				
p.use_count()	Returns the number of objects sharing with p; may be a slow operation, intended primarily for debugging purposes.				

Destructors generally free the resources that an object has allocated. For example, the string constructors (and other string members) allocate memory to hold the characters that compose the string. The string destructor frees that memory. Similarly, several vector operations allocate memory to hold the elements in the vector. The destructor for vector destroys those elements and frees the memory used for the elements.

The destructor for shared_ptr decrements the reference count of the object to which that shared_ptr points. If the count goes to zero, the shared_ptr destructor destroys the object to which the shared_ptr points and frees the memory used by that object.

... and Automatically Free the Associated Memory

The fact that the shared_ptr class automatically frees dynamic objects when they are no longer needed makes it fairly easy to use dynamic memory. For example, we might have a function that returns a shared_ptr to a dynamically allocated object of a type named Foo that can be initialized by an argument of type T:

```
// factory returns a shared_ptr pointing to a dynamically allocated object
shared_ptr<Foo> factory(T arg)
{
    // process arg as appropriate
    // shared_ptr will take care of deleting this memory
    return make_shared<Foo>(arg);
}
```

Because factory returns a shared_ptr, we can be sure that the object allocated by factory will be freed when appropriate. For example, the following function stores the shared ptr returned by factory in a local variable:

```
void use_factory(T arg)
{
    shared_ptr<Foo> p = factory(arg);
    // use p
} // p goes out of scope; the memory to which p points is automatically freed
```

Because p is local to use_factory, it is destroyed when use_factory ends (§ 6.1.1, p. 204). When p is destroyed, its reference count is decremented and checked. In this case, p is the only object referring to the memory returned by factory. Because p is about to go away, the object to which p points will be destroyed and the memory in which that object resides will be freed.

The memory will not be freed if there is any other shared ptr pointing to it:

```
shared_ptr<Foo> use_factory(T arg)
{
    shared_ptr<Foo> p = factory(arg);
    // use p
    return p; // reference count is incremented when we return p
} // p goes out of scope; the memory to which p points is not freed
```

In this version, the return statement in use_factory returns a copy of p to its caller (§ 6.3.2, p. 224). Copying a shared_ptr adds to the reference count of that object. Now when p is destroyed, there will be another user for the memory to which p points. The shared_ptr class ensures that so long as there are any shared ptrs attached to that memory, the memory itself will not be freed.

Because memory is not freed until the last shared_ptr goes away, it can be important to be sure that shared_ptrs don't stay around after they are no longer needed. The program will execute correctly but may waste memory if you neglect to destroy shared_ptrs that the program does not need. One way that shared_ptrs might stay around after you need them is if you put shared_ptrs in a container and subsequently reorder the container so that you don't need all the elements. You should be sure to erase shared_ptr elements once you no longer need those elements.



If you put shared_ptrs in a container, and you subsequently need to use some, but not all, of the elements, remember to erase the elements you no longer need.

Classes with Resources That Have Dynamic Lifetime

Programs tend to use dynamic memory for one of three purposes:

- 1. They don't know how many objects they'll need
- 2. They don't know the precise type of the objects they need
- 3. They want to share data between several objects

The container classes are an example of classes that use dynamic memory for the first purpose and we'll see examples of the second in Chapter 15. In this section, we'll define a class that uses dynamic memory in order to let several objects share the same underlying data.

So far, the classes we've used allocate resources that exist only as long as the corresponding objects. For example, each vector "owns" its own elements. When we copy a vector, the elements in the original vector and in the copy are separate from one another:

```
vector<string> v1; // empty vector
{ // new scope
   vector<string> v2 = {"a", "an", "the"};
   v1 = v2; // copies the elements from v2 into v1
} // v2 is destroyed, which destroys the elements in v2
   // v1 has three elements, which are copies of the ones originally in v2
```

The elements allocated by a vector exist only while the vector itself exists. When a vector is destroyed, the elements in the vector are also destroyed.

Some classes allocate resources with a lifetime that is independent of the original object. As an example, assume we want to define a class named Blob that will hold a collection of elements. Unlike the containers, we want Blob objects that are copies of one another to share the same elements. That is, when we copy a Blob, the original and the copy should refer to the same underlying elements.

In general, when two objects share the same underlying data, we can't unilaterally destroy the data when an object of that type goes away:

```
Blob<string> b1; // empty Blob
{ // new scope
   Blob<string> b2 = {"a", "an", "the"};
   b1 = b2; // b1 and b2 share the same elements
} // b2 is destroyed, but the elements in b2 must not be destroyed
// b1 points to the elements originally created in b2
```

In this example, b1 and b2 share the same elements. When b2 goes out of scope, those elements must stay around, because b1 is still using them.



One common reason to use dynamic memory is to allow multiple objects to share the same state.

Defining the StrBlob Class

Ultimately, we'll implement our Blob class as a template, but we won't learn how to do so until § 16.1.2 (p. 658). For now, we'll define a version of our class that can manage strings. As a result, we'll name this version of our class StrBlob.

The easiest way to implement a new collection type is to use one of the library containers to manage the elements. That way, we can let the library type manage the storage for the elements themselves. In this case, we'll use a vector to hold our elements.

However, we can't store the vector directly in a Blob object. Members of an object are destroyed when the object itself is destroyed. For example, assume that b1 and b2 are two Blobs that share the same vector. If that vector were stored in one of those Blobs—say, b2—then that vector, and therefore its elements, would no longer exist once b2 goes out of scope. To ensure that the elements continue to exist, we'll store the vector in dynamic memory.

To implement the sharing we want, we'll give each StrBlob a shared_ptr to a dynamically allocated vector. That shared_ptr member will keep track of how many StrBlobs share the same vector and will delete the vector when the last StrBlob using that vector is destroyed.

We still need to decide what operations our class will provide. For now, we'll implement a small subset of the vector operations. We'll also change the operations that access elements (e.g., front and back): In our class, these operations will throw an exception if a user attempts to access an element that doesn't exist.

Our class will have a default constructor and a constructor that has a parameter of type initializer_list<string> (§ 6.2.6, p. 220). This constructor will take a braced list of initializers.

```
class StrBlob {
public:
    typedef std::vector<std::string>::size type size type;
    StrBlob();
    StrBlob(std::initializer list<std::string> il);
    size type size() const { return data->size(); }
    bool empty() const { return data->empty(); }
    // add and remove elements
    void push back(const std::string &t) {data->push back(t);}
    void pop back();
    // element access
    std::string& front();
    std::string& back();
private:
    std::shared ptr<std::vector<std::string>> data;
    // throws msq if data[i] isn't valid
    void check(size type i, const std::string &msg) const;
};
```

Inside the class we implemented the size, empty, and push_back members. These members forward their work through the data pointer to the underlying vector. For example, size() on a StrBlob calls data->size(), and so on.

StrBlob Constructors

Each constructor uses its constructor initializer list (§ 7.1.4, p. 265) to initialize its data member to point to a dynamically allocated vector. The default constructor allocates an empty vector:

The constructor that takes an initializer_list passes its parameter to the corresponding vector constructor (§ 2.2.1, p. 43). That constructor initializes the vector's elements by copying the values in the list.

Element Access Members

The pop_back, front, and back operations access members in the vector. These operations must check that an element exists before attempting to access that element. Because several members need to do the same checking, we've given

our class a private utility function named check that verifies that a given index is in range. In addition to an index, check takes a string argument that it will pass to the exception handler. The string describes what went wrong:

```
void StrBlob::check(size_type i, const string &msg) const
{
   if (i >= data->size())
        throw out_of_range(msg);
}
```

The pop_back and element access members first call check. If check succeeds, these members forward their work to the underlying vector operation:

```
string& StrBlob::front()
{
    // if the vector is empty, check will throw
    check(0, "front on empty StrBlob");
    return data->front();
}
string& StrBlob::back()
{
    check(0, "back on empty StrBlob");
    return data->back();
}
void StrBlob::pop_back()
{
    check(0, "pop_back on empty StrBlob");
    data->pop_back();
}
```

The front and back members should be overloaded on const (§ 7.3.2, p. 276). Defining those versions is left as an exercise.

Copying, Assigning, and Destroying StrBlobs

Like our Sales_data class, StrBlob uses the default versions of the operations that copy, assign, and destroy objects of its type (§ 7.1.5, p. 267). By default, these operations copy, assign, and destroy the data members of the class. Our StrBlob has only one data member, which is a shared_ptr. Therefore, when we copy, assign, or destroy a StrBlob, its shared_ptr member will be copied, assigned, or destroyed.

As we've seen, copying a shared_ptr increments its reference count; assigning one shared_ptr to another increments the count of the right-hand operand and decrements the count in the left-hand operand; and destroying a shared_ptr decrements the count. If the count in a shared_ptr goes to zero, the object to which that shared_ptr points is automatically destroyed. Thus, the vector allocated by the StrBlob constructors will be automatically destroyed when the last StrBlob pointing to that vector is destroyed.

EXERCISES SECTION 12.1.1

Exercise 12.1: How many elements do b1 and b2 have at the end of this code?

```
StrBlob b1;
{
    StrBlob b2 = {"a", "an", "the"};
    b1 = b2;
    b2.push_back("about");
}
```

Exercise 12.2: Write your own version of the StrBlob class including the const versions of front and back.

Exercise 12.3: Does this class need const versions of push_back and pop_back? If so, add them. If not, why aren't they needed?

Exercise 12.4: In our check function we didn't check whether i was greater than zero. Why is it okay to omit that check?

Exercise 12.5: We did not make the constructor that takes an initializer_list explicit (§ 7.5.4, p. 296). Discuss the pros and cons of this design choice.

12.1.2 Managing Memory Directly

The language itself defines two operators that allocate and free dynamic memory. The new operator allocates memory, and delete frees memory allocated by new.

For reasons that will become clear as we describe how these operators work, using these operators to manage memory is considerably more error-prone than using a smart pointer. Moreover, classes that do manage their own memory—unlike those that use smart pointers—cannot rely on the default definitions for the members that copy, assign, and destroy class objects (§ 7.1.4, p. 264). As a result, programs that use smart pointers are likely to be easier to write and debug.



Until you have read Chapter 13, your classes should allocate dynamic memory *only* if they use smart pointers to manage that memory.

Using new to Dynamically Allocate and Initialize Objects

Objects allocated on the free store are unnamed, so **new** offers no way to name the objects that it allocates. Instead, new returns a pointer to the object it allocates:

This new expression constructs an object of type int on the free store and returns a pointer to that object.

By default, dynamically allocated objects are default initialized (§ 2.2.1, p. 43), which means that objects of built-in or compound type have undefined value; objects of class type are initialized by their default constructor:

```
string *ps = new string; // initialized to empty string
int *pi = new int;
                             // pi points to an uninitialized int
```

We can initialize a dynamically allocated object using direct initialization (§ 3.2.1, p. 84). We can use traditional construction (using parentheses), and under the new standard, we can also use list initialization (with curly braces):



```
int *pi = new int(1024); // object to which pi points has value 1024
string *ps = new string(10, '9');
                                         // *ps is "9999999999"
// vector with ten elements with values from 0 to 9
vector<int> *pv = new vector<int>\{0,1,2,3,4,5,6,7,8,9\};
```

We can also value initialize (§ 3.3.1, p. 98) a dynamically allocated object by following the type name with a pair of empty parentheses:

```
string *ps1 = new string; // default initialized to the empty string
string *ps = new string(); // value initialized to the empty string
                               // default initialized; *pil is undefined
int *pi1 = new int;
                               // value initialized to 0; *pi2 is 0
int *pi2 = new int();
```

For class types (such as string) that define their own constructors (\S 7.1.4, p. 262), requesting value initialization is of no consequence; regardless of form, the object is initialized by the default constructor. In the case of built-in types the difference is significant; a value-initialized object of built-in type has a well-defined value but a default-initialized object does not. Similarly, members of built-in type in classes that rely on the synthesized default constructor will also be uninitialized if those members are not initialized in the class body (§ 7.1.4, p. 263).

Best Practices For the same reasons as we usually initialize variables, it is also a good idea to initialize dynamically allocated objects.

When we provide an initializer inside parentheses, we can use auto (§ 2.5.2, p. 68) to deduce the type of the object we want to allocate from that initializer. However, because the compiler uses the initializer's type to deduce the type to allocate, we can use auto only with a single initializer inside parentheses:



```
auto p1 = new auto(obj);
                                   // p points to an object of the type of obj
                                   // that object is initialized from obj
auto p2 = new auto{a,b,c}; // error: must use parentheses for the initializer
```

The type of p1 is a pointer to the auto-deduced type of obj. If obj is an int, then p1 is int*; if obj is a string, then p1 is a string*; and so on. The newly allocated object is initialized from the value of obj.

Dynamically Allocated const Objects

It is legal to use new to allocate const objects:

```
// allocate and initialize a const int
const int *pci = new const int(1024);
// allocate a default-initialized const empty string
const string *pcs = new const string;
```

Like any other const, a dynamically allocated const object must be initialized. A const dynamic object of a class type that defines a default constructor (§ 7.1.4, p. 263) may be initialized implicitly. Objects of other types must be explicitly initialized. Because the allocated object is const, the pointer returned by new is a pointer to const (§ 2.4.2, p. 62).

Memory Exhaustion

Although modern machines tend to have huge memory capacity, it is always possible that the free store will be exhausted. Once a program has used all of its available memory, new expressions will fail. By default, if new is unable to allocate the requested storage, it throws an exception of type bad_alloc (§ 5.6, p. 193). We can prevent new from throwing an exception by using a different form of new:

```
// if allocation fails, new returns a null pointer
int *p1 = new int; // if allocation fails, new throws std::bad_alloc
int *p2 = new (nothrow) int; // if allocation fails, new returns a null pointer
```

For reasons we'll explain in § 19.1.2 (p. 824) this form of new is referred to as **placement new**. A placement new expression lets us pass additional arguments to new. In this case, we pass an object named nothrow that is defined by the library. When we pass nothrow to new, we tell new that it must not throw an exception. If this form of new is unable to allocate the requested storage, it will return a null pointer. Both bad_alloc and nothrow are defined in the new header.

Freeing Dynamic Memory

In order to prevent memory exhaustion, we must return dynamically allocated memory to the system once we are finished using it. We return memory through a **delete expression**. A delete expression takes a pointer to the object we want to free:

```
delete p; // p must point to a dynamically allocated object or be null
```

Like new, a delete expression performs two actions: It destroys the object to which its given pointer points, and it frees the corresponding memory.

Pointer Values and delete

The pointer we pass to delete must either point to dynamically allocated memory or be a null pointer (§ 2.3.2, p. 53). Deleting a pointer to memory that was not allocated by new, or deleting the same pointer value more than once, is undefined:

```
int i, *pi1 = &i, *pi2 = nullptr;
double *pd = new double(33), *pd2 = pd;
delete i;    // error: i is not a pointer
delete pi1;    // undefined: pi1 refers to a local
delete pd;    // ok
delete pd2;    // undefined: the memory pointed to by pd2 was already freed
delete pi2;    // ok: it is always ok to delete a null pointer
```

The compiler will generate an error for the delete of i because it knows that i is not a pointer. The errors associated with executing delete on pil and pd2 are more insidious: In general, compilers cannot tell whether a pointer points to a statically or dynamically allocated object. Similarly, the compiler cannot tell whether memory addressed by a pointer has already been freed. Most compilers will accept these delete expressions, even though they are in error.

Although the value of a const object cannot be modified, the object itself can be destroyed. As with any other dynamic object, a const dynamic object is freed by executing delete on a pointer that points to that object:

```
const int *pci = new const int(1024);
delete pci; // ok: deletes a const object
```

Dynamically Allocated Objects Exist until They Are Freed

As we saw in § 12.1.1 (p. 452), memory that is managed through a shared_ptr is automatically deleted when the last shared_ptr is destroyed. The same is not true for memory we manage using built-in pointers. A dynamic object managed through a built-in pointer exists until it is explicitly deleted.

Functions that return pointers (rather than smart pointers) to dynamic memory put a burden on their callers—the caller must remember to delete the memory:

```
// factory returns a pointer to a dynamically allocated object
Foo* factory(T arg)
{
    // process arg as appropriate
    return new Foo(arg); // caller is responsible for deleting this memory
}
```

Like our earlier factory function (§ 12.1.1, p. 453), this version of factory allocates an object but does not delete it. Callers of factory are responsible for freeing this memory when they no longer need the allocated object. Unfortunately, all too often the caller forgets to do so:

```
void use_factory(T arg)
{
    Foo *p = factory(arg);
    // use p but do not delete it
} // p goes out of scope, but the memory to which p points is not freed!
```

Here, our use_factory function calls factory, which allocates a new object of type Foo. When use_factory returns, the local variable p is destroyed. That variable is a built-in pointer, not a smart pointer.

Unlike class types, nothing happens when objects of built-in type are destroyed. In particular, when a pointer goes out of scope, nothing happens to the object to which the pointer points. If that pointer points to dynamic memory, that memory is not automatically freed.



Dynamic memory managed through built-in pointers (rather than smart pointers) exists until it is explicitly freed.

In this example, p was the only pointer to the memory allocated by factory. Once use_factory returns, the program has no way to free that memory. Depending on the logic of our overall program, we should fix this bug by remembering to free the memory inside use_factory:

```
void use_factory(T arg)
{
    Foo *p = factory(arg);
    // use p
    delete p; // remember to free the memory now that we no longer need it
}
```

or, if other code in our system needs to use the object allocated by use_factory, we should change that function to return a pointer to the memory it allocated:

```
Foo* use_factory(T arg)
{
    Foo *p = factory(arg);
    // use p
    return p; // caller must delete the memory
}
```

CAUTION: MANAGING DYNAMIC MEMORY IS ERROR-PRONE

There are three common problems with using new and delete to manage dynamic memory:

- Forgetting to delete memory. Neglecting to delete dynamic memory is known
 as a "memory leak," because the memory is never returned to the free store.
 Testing for memory leaks is difficult because they usually cannot be detected
 until the application is run for a long enough time to actually exhaust memory.
- 2. Using an object after it has been deleted. This error can sometimes be detected by making the pointer null after the delete.
- 3. Deleting the same memory twice. This error can happen when two pointers address the same dynamically allocated object. If delete is applied to one of the pointers, then the object's memory is returned to the free store. If we subsequently delete the second pointer, then the free store may be corrupted.

These kinds of errors are considerably easier to make than they are to find and fix.



You can avoid *all* of these problems by using smart pointers exclusively. The smart pointer will take care of deleting the memory *only* when there are no remaining smart pointers pointing to that memory.

Resetting the Value of a Pointer after a delete...

When we delete a pointer, that pointer becomes invalid. Although the pointer is invalid, on many machines the pointer continues to hold the address of the (freed) dynamic memory. After the delete, the pointer becomes what is referred to as a

dangling pointer. A dangling pointer is one that refers to memory that once held an object but no longer does so.

Dangling pointers have all the problems of uninitialized pointers (§ 2.3.2, p. 54). We can avoid the problems with dangling pointers by deleting the memory associated with a pointer just before the pointer itself goes out of scope. That way there is no chance to use the pointer after the memory associated with the pointer is freed. If we need to keep the pointer around, we can assign nullptr to the pointer after we use delete. Doing so makes it clear that the pointer points to no object.

... Provides Only Limited Protection

A fundamental problem with dynamic memory is that there can be several pointers that point to the same memory. Resetting the pointer we use to delete that memory lets us check that particular pointer but has no effect on any of the other pointers that still point at the (freed) memory. For example:

```
int *p(new int(42)); // p points to dynamic memory
auto q = p; // p and q point to the same memory
delete p; // invalidates both p and q
p = nullptr; // indicates that p is no longer bound to an object
```

Here both p and q point at the same dynamically allocated object. We delete that memory and set p to nullptr, indicating that the pointer no longer points to an object. However, resetting p has no effect on q, which became invalid when we deleted the memory to which p (and q!) pointed. In real systems, finding all the pointers that point to the same memory is surprisingly difficult.

EXERCISES SECTION 12.1.2

Exercise 12.6: Write a function that returns a dynamically allocated vector of ints. Pass that vector to another function that reads the standard input to give values to the elements. Pass the vector to another function to print the values that were read. Remember to delete the vector at the appropriate time.

Exercise 12.7: Redo the previous exercise, this time using shared ptr.

Exercise 12.8: Explain what if anything is wrong with the following function.

```
bool b() {
    int* p = new int;
    // ...
    return p;
}
```

Exercise 12.9: Explain what happens in the following code:

```
int *q = new int(42), *r = new int(100);
r = q;
auto q2 = make_shared<int>(42), r2 = make_shared<int>(100);
r2 = q2;
```

12.1.3 Using shared ptrs with new

As we've seen, if we do not initialize a smart pointer, it is initialized as a null pointer. As described in Table 12.3, we can also initialize a smart pointer from a pointer returned by new:

```
shared_ptr<double> p1; // shared_ptr that can point at a double shared_ptr<int> p2 (new int(42)); // p2 points to an int with value 42
```

The smart pointer constructors that take pointers are explicit (§ 7.5.4, p. 296). Hence, we cannot implicitly convert a built-in pointer to a smart pointer; we must use the direct form of initialization (§ 3.2.1, p. 84) to initialize a smart pointer:

```
shared_ptr<int> p1 = new int(1024); // error: must use direct initialization
shared_ptr<int> p2(new int(1024)); // ok: uses direct initialization
```

The initialization of p1 implicitly asks the compiler to create a shared_ptr from the int* returned by new. Because we can't implicitly convert a pointer to a smart pointer, this initialization is an error. For the same reason, a function that returns a shared ptr cannot implicitly convert a plain pointer in its return statement:

```
shared_ptr<int> clone(int p) {
    return new int(p); // error: implicit conversion to shared_ptr<int>
}
```

We must explicitly bind a shared_ptr to the pointer we want to return:

```
shared_ptr<int> clone(int p) {
    // ok: explicitly create a shared_ptr<int> from int *
    return shared_ptr<int>(new int(p));
}
```

By default, a pointer used to initialize a smart pointer must point to dynamic memory because, by default, smart pointers use delete to free the associated object. We can bind smart pointers to pointers to other kinds of resources. However, to do so, we must supply our own operation to use in place of delete. We'll see how to supply our own deletion code in § 12.1.4 (p. 468).



Don't Mix Ordinary Pointers and Smart Pointers ...

A shared_ptr can coordinate destruction only with other shared_ptrs that are copies of itself. Indeed, this fact is one of the reasons we recommend using make_shared rather than new. That way, we bind a shared_ptr to the object at the same time that we allocate it. There is no way to inadvertently bind the same memory to more than one independently created shared_ptr.

Consider the following function that operates on a shared ptr:

```
// ptr is created and initialized when process is called
void process (shared_ptr<int> ptr)
{
     // use ptr
} // ptr goes out of scope and is destroyed
```

Table 12.3: Other Ways to Define and Change shared_ptrs		
shared_ptr <t> p(q)</t>	p manages the object to which the built-in pointer q points; q must point to memory allocated by new and must be convertible to $T*$.	
shared_ptr <t> p(u)</t>	p assumes ownership from the unique_ptr u; makes u null.	
shared_ptr <t> p(q, d)</t>	p assumes ownership for the object to which the built-in pointer q points. q must be convertible to $T*$ (§ 4.11.2, p. 161). p will use the callable object d (§ 10.3.2, p. 388) in place of delete to free q.	
shared_ptr <t> p(p2, d)</t>	p is a copy of the shared_ptr p2 as described in Table 12.2 except that p uses the callable object d in place of delete.	
<pre>p.reset() p.reset(q) p.reset(q, d)</pre>	If p is the only shared_ptr pointing at its object, reset frees p's existing object. If the optional built-in pointer q is passed, makes p point to q, otherwise makes p null. If d is supplied, will call d to free q otherwise uses delete to free q.	

The parameter to process is passed by value, so the argument to process is copied into ptr. Copying a shared_ptr increments its reference count. Thus, inside process the count is at least 2. When process completes, the reference count of ptr is decremented but cannot go to zero. Therefore, when the local variable ptr is destroyed, the memory to which ptr points will not be deleted.

The right way to use this function is to pass it a shared ptr:

```
shared_ptr<int> p(new int(42)); // reference count is 1 process(p); // copying p increments its count; in process the reference count is 2 int i = *p; // ok: reference count is 1
```

Although we cannot pass a built-in pointer to process, we can pass process a (temporary) shared_ptr that we explicitly construct from a built-in pointer. However, doing so is likely to be an error:

```
int *x(new int(1024)); // dangerous: x is a plain pointer, not a smart pointer
process(x); // error: cannot convert int * to shared_ptr<int>
process(shared_ptr<int>(x)); // legal, but the memory will be deleted!
int j = *x; // undefined: x is a dangling pointer!
```

In this call, we passed a temporary shared_ptr to process. That temporary is destroyed when the expression in which the call appears finishes. Destroying the temporary decrements the reference count, which goes to zero. The memory to which the temporary points is freed when the temporary is destroyed.

But x continues to point to that (freed) memory; x is now a dangling pointer. Attempting to use the value of x is undefined.

When we bind a shared_ptr to a plain pointer, we give responsibility for that memory to that shared_ptr. Once we give shared_ptr responsibility for a pointer, we should no longer use a built-in pointer to access the memory to which the shared_ptr now points.



It is dangerous to use a built-in pointer to access an object owned by a smart pointer, because we may not know when that object is destroyed.



... and Don't Use get to Initialize or Assign Another Smart Pointer

The smart pointer types define a function named get (described in Table 12.1 (p. 452)) that returns a built-in pointer to the object that the smart pointer is managing. This function is intended for cases when we need to pass a built-in pointer to code that can't use a smart pointer. The code that uses the return from get must not delete that pointer.

Although the compiler will not complain, it is an error to bind another smart pointer to the pointer returned by get:

```
shared_ptr<int> p(new int(42)); // reference count is 1
int *q = p.get(); // ok: but don't use q in any way that might delete its pointer
{ // new block
    // undefined: two independent shared_ptrs point to the same memory
    auto local = shared_ptr<int>(q);
} // block ends, local is destroyed; the memory to which p and q points is freed
int foo = *p; // undefined; the memory to which p points was freed
```

Here, p, q, and local all point to the same memory. Because p and local were created independently from one another, each has a reference count of 1. When the inner block ends, local is destroyed. Because local's reference count is 1, the memory to which it points will be freed. That makes p and q into a dangling pointers; what happens when we attempt to use p or q is undefined. Moreover, when p is destroyed, the pointer to that memory will be deleted a second time.



Use get only to pass access to the pointer to code that you know will not delete the pointer. In particular, never use get to initialize or assign to another smart pointer.

Other shared_ptr Operations

The shared_ptr class gives us a few other operations, which are listed in Table 12.2 (p. 453) and Table 12.3 (on the previous page). We can use reset to assign a new pointer to a shared_ptr:

```
p = new int(1024); // error: cannot assign a pointer to a shared_ptr
p.reset(new int(1024)); // ok: p points to a new object
```

Like assignment, reset updates the reference counts and, if appropriate, deletes the object to which p points. The reset member is often used together with unique to control changes to the object shared among several shared_ptrs. Before changing the underlying object, we check whether we're the only user. If not, we make a new copy before making the change:

```
if (!p.unique())
    p.reset(new string(*p)); // we aren't alone; allocate a new copy
*p += newVal; // now that we know we're the only pointer, okay to change this object
```

EXERCISES SECTION 12.1.3

Exercise 12.10: Explain whether the following call to the process function defined on page 464 is correct. If not, how would you correct the call?

```
shared_ptr<int> p(new int(42));
process(shared ptr<int>(p));
```

Exercise 12.11: What would happen if we called process as follows?

```
process(shared_ptr<int>(p.get()));
```

Exercise 12.12: Using the declarations of p and sp explain each of the following calls to process. If the call is legal, explain what it does. If the call is illegal, explain why:

```
auto p = new int();
auto sp = make_shared<int>();
(a) process(sp);
(b) process(new int());
(c) process(p);
(d) process(shared ptr<int>(p));
```

Exercise 12.13: What happens if we execute the following code?

```
auto sp = make_shared<int>();
auto p = sp.get();
delete p;
```

12.1.4 Smart Pointers and Exceptions



In § 5.6.2 (p. 196) we noted that programs that use exception handling to continue processing after an exception occurs need to ensure that resources are properly freed if an exception occurs. One easy way to make sure resources are freed is to use smart pointers.

When we use a smart pointer, the smart pointer class ensures that memory is freed when it is no longer needed even if the block is exited prematurely:

```
void f()
{
    shared_ptr<int> sp(new int(42)); // allocate a new object
    // code that throws an exception that is not caught inside f
} // shared_ptr freed automatically when the function ends
```

When a function is exited, whether through normal processing or due to an exception, all the local objects are destroyed. In this case, sp is a shared_ptr, so destroying sp checks its reference count. Here, sp is the only pointer to the memory it manages; that memory will be freed as part of destroying sp.

In contrast, memory that we manage directly is not automatically freed when an exception occurs. If we use built-in pointers to manage memory and an exception occurs after a new but before the corresponding delete, then that memory won't be freed:

If an exception happens between the new and the delete, and is not caught inside f, then this memory can never be freed. There is no pointer to this memory outside the function f. Thus, there is no way to free this memory.



Smart Pointers and Dumb Classes

Many C++ classes, including all the library classes, define destructors (§ 12.1.1, p. 452) that take care of cleaning up the resources used by that object. However, not all classes are so well behaved. In particular, classes that are designed to be used by both C and C++ generally require the user to specifically free any resources that are used.

Classes that allocate resources—and that do not define destructors to free those resources—can be subject to the same kind of errors that arise when we use dynamic memory. It is easy to forget to release the resource. Similarly, if an exception happens between when the resource is allocated and when it is freed, the program will leak that resource.

We can often use the same kinds of techniques we use to manage dynamic memory to manage classes that do not have well-behaved destructors. For example, imagine we're using a network library that is used by both C and C++. Programs that use this library might contain code such as

```
struct destination; // represents what we are connecting to
struct connection; // information needed to use the connection
connection connect(destination*); // open the connection
void disconnect(connection); // close the given connection
void f(destination &d /* other parameters */)
{
    // get a connection; must remember to close it when done
    connection c = connect(&d);
    // use the connection
    // if we forget to call disconnect before exiting f, there will be no way to close c
}
```

If connection had a destructor, that destructor would automatically close the connection when f completes. However, connection does not have a destructor. This problem is nearly identical to our previous program that used a shared_ptr to avoid memory leaks. It turns out that we can also use a shared_ptr to ensure that the connection is properly closed.



Using Our Own Deletion Code

By default, shared_ptrs assume that they point to dynamic memory. Hence, by default, when a shared ptr is destroyed, it executes delete on the pointer it

holds. To use a shared_ptr to manage a connection, we must first define a function to use in place of delete. It must be possible to call this **deleter** function with the pointer stored inside the shared_ptr. In this case, our deleter must take a single argument of type connection*:

```
void end connection(connection *p) { disconnect(*p); }
```

When we create a shared_ptr, we can pass an optional argument that points to a deleter function (§ 6.7, p. 247):

```
void f(destination &d /* other parameters */)
{
    connection c = connect(&d);
    shared_ptr<connection> p(&c, end_connection);
    // use the connection
    // when f exits, even if by an exception, the connection will be properly closed
}
```

When p is destroyed, it won't execute delete on its stored pointer. Instead, p will call end_connection on that pointer. In turn, end_connection will call disconnect, thus ensuring that the connection is closed. If f exits normally, then p will be destroyed as part of the return. Moreover, p will also be destroyed, and the connection will be closed, if an exception occurs.

CAUTION: SMART POINTER PITFALLS

Smart pointers can provide safety and convenience for handling dynamically allocated memory only when they are used properly. To use smart pointers correctly, we must adhere to a set of conventions:

- Don't use the same built-in pointer value to initialize (or reset) more than one smart pointer.
- Don't delete the pointer returned from get ().
- Don't use get () to initialize or reset another smart pointer.
- If you use a pointer returned by get(), remember that the pointer will become
 invalid when the last corresponding smart pointer goes away.
- If you use a smart pointer to manage a resource other than memory allocated by new, remember to pass a deleter (§ 12.1.4, p. 468, and § 12.1.5, p. 471).

EXERCISES SECTION 12.1.4

Exercise 12.14: Write your own version of a function that uses a shared_ptr to manage a connection.

Exercise 12.15: Rewrite the first exercise to use a lambda (§ 10.3.2, p. 388) in place of the end_connection function.

12.1.5 unique ptr



A unique_ptr "owns" the object to which it points. Unlike shared_ptr, only one unique_ptr at a time can point to a given object. The object to which a unique_ptr points is destroyed when the unique_ptr is destroyed. Table 12.4 lists the operations specific to unique_ptrs. The operations common to both were covered in Table 12.1 (p. 452).

Unlike shared_ptr, there is no library function comparable to make_shared that returns a unique_ptr. Instead, when we define a unique_ptr, we bind it to a pointer returned by new. As with shared_ptrs, we must use the direct form of initialization:

```
unique_ptr<double> p1; // unique_ptr that can point at a double unique_ptr<int> p2 (new int(42)); // p2 points to int with value 42
```

Because a unique_ptr owns the object to which it points, unique_ptr does not support ordinary copy or assignment:

```
unique_ptr<string> p1(new string("Stegosaurus"));
unique_ptr<string> p2(p1); // error: no copy for unique_ptr
unique_ptr<string> p3;
p3 = p2; // error: no assign for unique_ptr
```

Table 12.4: unique ptr Operations (See Also Table 12.1 (p. 452)) unique ptr<T>u1 Null unique ptrs that can point to objects of type T. u1 will use delete to free its pointer; u2 will use a callable object of unique ptr<T, D>u2 type D to free its pointer. unique_ptr<T, D>u(d) Null unique ptr that point to objects of type T that uses d, which must be an object of type D in place of delete. u = nullptrDeletes the object to which u points; makes u null. u.release() Relinquishes control of the pointer u had held; returns the pointer u had held and makes u null. u.reset() Deletes the object to which u points; u.reset(q) If the built-in pointer q is supplied, makes u point to that object. u.reset(nullptr) Otherwise makes u null.

Although we can't copy or assign a unique_ptr, we can transfer ownership from one (nonconst) unique_ptr to another by calling release or reset:

```
// transfers ownership from p1 (which points to the string Stegosaurus) to p2
unique_ptr<string> p2 (p1.release()); // release makes p1 null
unique_ptr<string> p3 (new string("Trex"));
// transfers ownership from p3 to p2
p2.reset(p3.release()); // reset deletes the memory to which p2 had pointed
```

The release member returns the pointer currently stored in the unique_ptr and makes that unique_ptr null. Thus, p2 is initialized from the pointer value that had been stored in p1 and p1 becomes null.

The reset member takes an optional pointer and repositions the unique_ptr to point to the given pointer. If the unique_ptr is not null, then the object to which the unique_ptr had pointed is deleted. The call to reset on p2, therefore, frees the memory used by the string initialized from "Stegosaurus", transfers p3's pointer to p2, and makes p3 null.

Calling release breaks the connection between a unique_ptr and the object it had been managing. Often the pointer returned by release is used to initialize or assign another smart pointer. In that case, responsibility for managing the memory is simply transferred from one smart pointer to another. However, if we do not use another smart pointer to hold the pointer returned from release, our program takes over responsibility for freeing that resource:

```
p2.release(); // WRONG: p2 won't free the memory and we've lost the pointer auto p = p2.release(); // ok, but we must remember to delete(p)
```

Passing and Returning unique ptrs

There is one exception to the rule that we cannot copy a unique_ptr: We can copy or assign a unique_ptr that is about to be destroyed. The most common example is when we return a unique_ptr from a function:

```
unique_ptr<int> clone(int p) {
    // ok: explicitly create a unique_ptr<int> from int *
    return unique_ptr<int> (new int(p));
}
```

Alternatively, we can also return a copy of a local object:

```
unique_ptr<int> clone(int p) {
    unique_ptr<int> ret(new int (p));
    // ...
    return ret;
}
```

In both cases, the compiler knows that the object being returned is about to be destroyed. In such cases, the compiler does a special kind of "copy" which we'll discuss in § 13.6.2 (p. 534).

BACKWARD COMPATIBILITY: AUTO PTR

Earlier versions of the library included a class named auto_ptr that had some, but not all, of the properties of unique_ptr. In particular, it was not possible to store an auto_ptr in a container, nor could we return one from a function.

Although auto_ptr is still part of the standard library, programs should use unique ptr instead.

Passing a Deleter to unique_ptr

Like shared_ptr, by default, unique_ptr uses delete to free the object to which a unique_ptr points. As with shared_ptr, we can override the default

deleter in a unique_ptr (§ 12.1.4, p. 468). However, for reasons we'll describe in § 16.1.6 (p. 676), the way unique_ptr manages its deleter is differs from the way shared ptr does.

Overridding the deleter in a unique_ptr affects the unique_ptr type as well as how we construct (or reset) objects of that type. Similar to overriding the comparison operation of an associative container (§ 11.2.2, p. 425), we must supply the deleter type inside the angle brackets along with the type to which the unique_ptr can point. We supply a callable object of the specified type when we create or reset an object of this type:

```
// p points to an object of type objT and uses an object of type delT to free that object
// it will call an object named fcn of type delT
unique_ptr<objT, delT> p (new objT, fcn);
```

As a somewhat more concrete example, we'll rewrite our connection program to use a unique_ptr in place of a shared_ptr as follows:

```
void f(destination &d /* other needed parameters */)
{
    connection c = connect(&d); // open the connection
    // when p is destroyed, the connection will be closed
    unique_ptr<connection, decltype(end_connection)*>
        p(&c, end_connection);
    // use the connection
    // when f exits, even if by an exception, the connection will be properly closed
}
```

Here we use decltype (§ 2.5.3, p. 70) to specify the function pointer type. Because decltype (end_connection) returns a function type, we must remember to add a * to indicate that we're using a pointer to that type (§ 6.7, p. 250).

EXERCISES SECTION 12.1.5

Exercise 12.16: Compilers don't always give easy-to-understand error messages if we attempt to copy or assign a unique_ptr. Write a program that contains these errors to see how your compiler diagnoses them.

Exercise 12.17: Which of the following unique_ptr declarations are illegal or likely to result in subsequent program error? Explain what the problem is with each one.

Exercise 12.18: Why doesn't shared_ptr have a release member?

12.1.6 weak ptr



A weak_ptr (Table 12.5) is a smart pointer that does not control the lifetime of the object to which it points. Instead, a weak_ptr points to an object that is managed by a shared_ptr. Binding a weak_ptr to a shared_ptr does not change the reference count of that shared_ptr. Once the last shared_ptr pointing to the object goes away, the object itself will be deleted. That object will be deleted even if there are weak_ptrs pointing to it—hence the name weak_ptr, which captures the idea that a weak_ptr shares its object "weakly."

When we create a weak ptr, we initialize it from a shared ptr:

```
auto p = make_shared<int>(42);
weak_ptr<int> wp(p); // wp weakly shares with p; use count in p is unchanged
```

Here both wp and p point to the same object. Because the sharing is weak, creating wp doesn't change the reference count of p; it is possible that the object to which wp points might be deleted.

Because the object might no longer exist, we cannot use a weak_ptr to access its object directly. To access that object, we must call lock. The lock function checks whether the object to which the weak_ptr points still exists. If so, lock returns a shared_ptr to the shared object. As with any other shared_ptr, we are guaranteed that the underlying object to which that shared_ptr points continues to exist at least as long as that shared_ptr exists. For example:

```
if (shared_ptr<int> np = wp.lock()) { // true if np is not null
    // inside the if, np shares its object with p
}
```

Here we enter the body of the if only if the call to lock succeeds. Inside the if, it is safe to use np to access that object.

Table 12.5: weak_ptrs		
weak_ptr <t> w</t>	Null weak_ptr that can point at objects of type T.	
weak_ptr <t> w(sp)</t>	weak_ptr that points to the same object as the shared_ptr sp. T must be convertible to the type to which sp points.	
w = p	p can be a shared_ptr or a weak_ptr. After the assignment w shares ownership with p.	
w.reset()	Makes w null.	
w.use_count()	The number of shared_ptrs that share ownership with w.	
w.expired()	Returns true if w.use_count() is zero, false otherwise.	
w.lock()	If expired is true, returns a null shared_ptr; otherwise returns a shared_ptr to the object to which w points.	

Checked Pointer Class

As an illustration of when a weak_ptr is useful, we'll define a companion pointer class for our StrBlob class. Our pointer class, which we'll name StrBlobPtr,

Dynamic Memory

will store a weak_ptr to the data member of the StrBlob from which it was initialized. By using a weak_ptr, we don't affect the lifetime of the vector to which a given StrBlob points. However, we can prevent the user from attempting to access a vector that no longer exists.

StrBlobPtr will have two data members: wptr, which is either null or points to a vector in a StrBlob; and curr, which is the index of the element that this object currently denotes. Like its companion StrBlob class, our pointer class has a check member to verify that it is safe to dereference the StrBlobPtr:

```
// StrBlobPtr throws an exception on attempts to access a nonexistent element
class StrBlobPtr {
public:
    StrBlobPtr(): curr(0) { }
    StrBlobPtr(StrBlob &a, size t sz = 0):
             wptr(a.data), curr(sz) { }
    std::string& deref() const;
    StrBlobPtr& incr();
                                  // prefix version
private:
    // check returns a shared ptr to the vector if the check succeeds
    std::shared ptr<std::vector<std::string>>
         check(std::size t, const std::string&) const;
    // store a weak ptr, which means the underlying vector might be destroyed
    std::weak ptr<std::vector<std::string>> wptr;
                               // current position within the array
    std::size t curr;
};
```

The default constructor generates a null StrBlobPtr. Its constructor initializer list (§ 7.1.4, p. 265) explicitly initializes curr to zero and implicitly initializes wptr as a null weak_ptr. The second constructor takes a reference to StrBlob and an optional index value. This constructor initializes wptr to point to the vector in the shared_ptr of the given StrBlob object and initializes curr to the value of sz. We use a default argument (§ 6.5.1, p. 236) to initialize curr to denote the first element by default. As we'll see, the sz parameter will be used by the end member of StrBlob.

It is worth noting that we cannot bind a StrBlobPtr to a const StrBlob object. This restriction follows from the fact that the constructor takes a reference to a nonconst object of type StrBlob.

The check member of StrBlobPtr differs from the one in StrBlob because it must check whether the vector to which it points is still around:

Because a weak_ptr does not participate in the reference count of its corresponding shared_ptr, the vector to which this StrBlobPtr points might have been deleted. If the vector is gone, lock will return a null pointer. In this case, any reference to the vector will fail, so we throw an exception. Otherwise, check verifies its given index. If that value is okay, check returns the shared_ptr it obtained from lock.

Pointer Operations

We'll learn how to define our own operators in Chapter 14. For now, we've defined functions named deref and incr to dereference and increment the StrBlobPtr, respectively. The deref member calls check to verify that it is safe to use the vector and that curr is in range:

```
std::string& StrBlobPtr::deref() const
{
    auto p = check(curr, "dereference past end");
    return (*p)[curr]; // (*p) is the vector to which this object points
}
```

If check succeeds, p is a shared_ptr to the vector to which this StrBlobPtr points. The expression (*p) [curr] dereferences that shared_ptr to get the vector and uses the subscript operator to fetch and return the element at curr.

The incr member also calls check:

We'll also give our StrBlob class begin and end operations. These members will return StrBlobPtrs pointing to the first or one past the last element in the StrBlob itself. In addition, because StrBlobPtr accesses the data member of StrBlob, we must also make StrBlobPtr a friend of StrBlob (§ 7.3.4, p. 279):

```
class StrBlob {
    friend class StrBlobPtr;
    // other members as in § 12.1.1 (p. 456)
    StrBlobPtr begin(); // return StrBlobPtr to the first element
    StrBlobPtr end(); // and one past the last element
};
// these members can't be defined until StrStrBlob and StrStrBlobPtr are defined
StrBlobPtr StrBlob::begin() { return StrBlobPtr(*this); }
StrBlobPtr StrBlob::end()
    { return StrBlobPtr(*this, data->size()); }
```

EXERCISES SECTION 12.1.6

Exercise 12.19: Define your own version of StrBlobPtr and update your StrBlob class with the appropriate friend declaration and begin and end members.

Exercise 12.20: Write a program that reads an input file a line at a time into a StrBlob and uses a StrBlobPtr to print each element in that StrBlob.

Exercise 12.21: We could have written StrBlobPtr's deref member as follows:

```
std::string& deref() const
{ return (*check(curr, "dereference past end")) [curr]; }
```

Which version do you think is better and why?

Exercise 12.22: What changes would need to be made to StrBlobPtr to create a class that can be used with a const StrBlob? Define a class named ConstStrBlobPtr that can point to a const StrBlob.



12.2 Dynamic Arrays

The new and delete operators allocate objects one at a time. Some applications, need the ability to allocate storage for many objects at once. For example, vectors and strings store their elements in contiguous memory and must allocate several elements at once whenever the container has to be reallocated (§ 9.4, p. 355).

To support such usage, the language and library provide two ways to allocate an array of objects at once. The language defines a second kind of new expression that allocates and initializes an array of objects. The library includes a template class named allocator that lets us separate allocation from initialization. For reasons we'll explain in § 12.2.2 (p. 481), using an allocator generally provides better performance and more flexible memory management.

Many, perhaps even most, applications have no direct need for dynamic arrays. When an application needs a varying number of objects, it is almost always easier, faster, and safer to do as we did with StrBlob: use a vector (or other library container). For reasons we'll explain in § 13.6 (p. 531), the advantages of using a library container are even more pronounced under the new standard. Libraries that support the new standard tend to be dramatically faster than previous releases.



Most applications should use a library container rather than dynamically allocated arrays. Using a container is easier, less likely to contain memory-management bugs, *and* is likely to give better performance.

As we've seen, classes that use the containers can use the default versions of the operations for copy, assignment, and destruction (§ 7.1.5, p. 267). Classes that allocate dynamic arrays must define their own versions of these operations to manage the associated memory when objects are copied, assigned, and destroyed.



Do not allocate dynamic arrays in code inside classes until you have read Chapter 13.

12.2.1 new and Arrays



We ask new to allocate an array of objects by specifying the number of objects to allocate in a pair of square brackets after a type name. In this case, new allocates the requested number of objects and (assuming the allocation succeeds) returns a pointer to the first one:

```
// call get_size to determine how many ints to allocate
int *pia = new int[get_size()]; // pia points to the first of these ints
```

The size inside the brackets must have integral type but need not be a constant.

We can also allocate an array by using a type alias (§ 2.5.1, p. 67) to represent an array type. In this case, we omit the brackets:

```
typedef int arrT[42]; // arrT names the type array of 42 ints int *p = new arrT; // allocates an array of 42 ints; p points to the first one
```

Here, new allocates an array of ints and returns a pointer to the first one. Even though there are no brackets in our code, the compiler executes this expression using new[]. That is, the compiler executes this expression as if we had written

```
int *p = new int[42];
```

Allocating an Array Yields a Pointer to the Element Type

Although it is common to refer to memory allocated by new T[] as a "dynamic array," this usage is somewhat misleading. When we use new to allocate an array, we do not get an object with an array type. Instead, we get a pointer to the element type of the array. Even if we use a type alias to define an array type, new does not allocate an object of array type. In this case, the fact that we're allocating an array is not even visible; there is no [num]. Even so, new returns a pointer to the element type.

Because the allocated memory does not have an array type, we cannot call begin or end (§ 3.5.3, p. 118) on a dynamic array. These functions use the array dimension (which is part of an array's type) to return pointers to the first and one past the last elements, respectively. For the same reasons, we also cannot use a range for to process the elements in a (so-called) dynamic array.





It is important to remember that what we call a dynamic array does not have an array type.

Initializing an Array of Dynamically Allocated Objects

By default, objects allocated by new—whether allocated as a single object or in an array—are default initialized. We can value initialize (§ 3.3.1, p. 98) the elements in an array by following the size with an empty pair of parentheses.

C++ 11 Under the new standard, we can also provide a braced list of element initializers:

```
// block of ten ints each initialized from the corresponding initializer
int *pia3 = new int[10]{0,1,2,3,4,5,6,7,8,9};
// block of ten strings; the first four are initialized from the given initializers
// remaining elements are value initialized
string *psa3 = new string[10]{"a", "an", "the", string(3,'x')};
```

As when we list initialize an object of built-in array type (§ 3.5.1, p. 114), the initializers are used to initialize the first elements in the array. If there are fewer initializers than elements, the remaining elements are value initialized. If there are more initializers than the given size, then the new expression fails and no storage is allocated. In this case, new throws an exception of type bad_array_new_length. Like bad_alloc, this type is defined in the new header.

C++

Although we can use empty parentheses to value initialize the elements of an array, we cannot supply an element initializer inside the parentheses. The fact that we cannot supply an initial value inside the parentheses means that we cannot use auto to allocate an array (§ 12.1.2, p. 459).

It Is Legal to Dynamically Allocate an Empty Array

We can use an arbitrary expression to determine the number of objects to allocate:

```
size_t n = get_size(); // get_size returns the number of elements needed
int* p = new int[n]; // allocate an array to hold the elements
for (int* q = p; q != p + n; ++q)
    /* process the array */;
```

An interesting question arises: What happens if get_size returns 0? The answer is that our code works fine. Calling new[n] with n equal to 0 is legal even though we cannot create an array variable of size 0:

```
char arr[0]; // error: cannot define a zero-length array char *cp = new char[0]; // ok: but cp can't be dereferenced
```

When we use new to allocate an array of size zero, new returns a valid, nonzero pointer. That pointer is guaranteed to be distinct from any other pointer returned by new. This pointer acts as the off-the-end pointer (§ 3.5.3, p. 119) for a zero-element array. We can use this pointer in ways that we use an off-the-end iterator. The pointer can be compared as in the loop above. We can add zero to (or subtract zero from) such a pointer and can subtract the pointer from itself, yielding zero. The pointer cannot be dereferenced—after all, it points to no element.

In our hypothetical loop, if get_size returns 0, then n is also 0. The call to new will allocate zero objects. The condition in the for will fail (p is equal to q + n because n is 0). Thus, the loop body is not executed.

Freeing Dynamic Arrays

To free a dynamic array, we use a special form of delete that includes an empty pair of square brackets:

```
delete p; // p must point to a dynamically allocated object or be null delete [] pa; // pa must point to a dynamically allocated array or be null
```

The second statement destroys the elements in the array to which pa points and frees the corresponding memory. Elements in an array are destroyed in reverse order. That is, the last element is destroyed first, then the second to last, and so on.

When we delete a pointer to an array, the empty bracket pair is essential: It indicates to the compiler that the pointer addresses the first element of an array of objects. If we omit the brackets when we delete a pointer to an array (or provide them when we delete a pointer to an object), the behavior is undefined.

Recall that when we use a type alias that defines an array type, we can allocate an array without using [] with new. Even so, we must use brackets when we delete a pointer to that array:

```
typedef int arrT[42];  // arrT names the type array of 42 ints
int *p = new arrT;  // allocates an array of 42 ints; p points to the first one
delete [] p;  // brackets are necessary because we allocated an array
```

Despite appearances, p points to the first element of an array of objects, not to a single object of type arrT. Thus, we must use [] when we delete p.



The compiler is unlikely to warn us if we forget the brackets when we delete a pointer to an array or if we use them when we delete a pointer to an object. Instead, our program is apt to misbehave without warning during execution.

Smart Pointers and Dynamic Arrays

The library provides a version of unique_ptr that can manage arrays allocated by new. To use a unique_ptr to manage a dynamic array, we must include a pair of empty brackets after the object type:

The brackets in the type specifier (<int[]>) say that up points not to an int but to an array of ints. Because up points to an array, when up destroys the pointer it manages, it will automatically use delete[].

unqiue_ptrs that point to arrays provide slightly different operations than those we used in § 12.1.5 (p. 470). These operations are described in Table 12.6 (overleaf). When a unique_ptr points to an array, we cannot use the dot and arrow member access operators. After all, the unqiue_ptr points to an array, not an object so these operators would be meaningless. On the other hand, when a unqiue_ptr points to an array, we can use the subscript operator to access the elements in the array:

```
for (size_t i = 0; i != 10; ++i)
up[i] = i; // assign a new value to each of the elements
```

Table 12.6: unique ptrs to Arrays

Member access operators (dot and arrow) are not supported for unique_ptrs to arrays.

Other unique ptr operations unchanged.

```
unique_ptr<T[] > u u can point to a dynamically allocated array of type T.
unique_ptr<T[] > u(p) u points to the dynamically allocated array to which the built-in pointer p points. p must be convertible to T* (§ 4.11.2, p. 161).
u[i] Returns the object at position i in the array that u owns.
u must point to an array.
```

Unlike unique_ptr, shared_ptrs provide no direct support for managing a dynamic array. If we want to use a shared_ptr to manage a dynamic array, we must provide our own deleter:

```
// to use a shared_ptr we must supply a deleter
shared_ptr<int> sp(new int[10], [](int *p) { delete[] p; });
sp.reset(); // uses the lambda we supplied that uses delete[] to free the array
```

Here we pass a lambda (§ 10.3.2, p. 388) that uses delete[] as the deleter.

Had we neglected to supply a deleter, this code would be undefined. By default, shared_ptr uses delete to destroy the object to which it points. If that object is a dynamic array, using delete has the same kinds of problems that arise if we forget to use [] when we delete a pointer to a dynamic array (§ 12.2.1, p. 479).

The fact that shared_ptr does not directly support managing arrays affects how we access the elements in the array:

```
// shared_ptrs don't have subscript operator and don't support pointer arithmetic
for (size_t i = 0; i != 10; ++i)
    *(sp.get() + i) = i; // use get to get a built-in pointer
```

There is no subscript operator for shared_ptrs, and the smart pointer types do not support pointer arithmetic. As a result, to access the elements in the array, we must use get to obtain a built-in pointer, which we can then use in normal ways.

EXERCISES SECTION 12.2.1

Exercise 12.23: Write a program to concatenate two string literals, putting the result in a dynamically allocated array of char. Write a program to concatenate two library strings that have the same value as the literals used in the first program.

Exercise 12.24: Write a program that reads a string from the standard input into a dynamically allocated character array. Describe how your program handles varying size inputs. Test your program by giving it a string of data that is longer than the array size you've allocated.

Exercise 12.25: Given the following new expression, how would you delete pa?

```
int *pa = new int[10];
```

12.2.2 The allocator Class



An aspect of new that limits its flexibility is that new combines allocating memory with constructing object(s) in that memory. Similarly, delete combines destruction with deallocation. Combining initialization with allocation is usually what we want when we allocate a single object. In that case, we almost certainly know the value the object should have.

When we allocate a block of memory, we often plan to construct objects in that memory as needed. In this case, we'd like to decouple memory allocation from object construction. Decoupling construction from allocation means that we can allocate memory in large chunks and pay the overhead of constructing the objects only when we actually need to create them.

In general, coupling allocation and construction can be wasteful. For example:

This new expression allocates and initializes n strings. However, we might not need n strings; a smaller number might suffice. As a result, we may have created objects that are never used. Moreover, for those objects we do use, we immediately assign new values over the previously initialized strings. The elements that are used are written twice: first when the elements are default initialized, and subsequently when we assign to them.

More importantly, classes that do not have default constructors cannot be dynamically allocated as an array.

The allocator Class

The library allocator class, which is defined in the memory header, lets us separate allocation from construction. It provides type-aware allocation of raw, unconstructed, memory. Table 12.7 (overleaf) outlines the operations that allocator supports. In this section, we'll describe the allocator operations. In § 13.5 (p. 524), we'll see an example of how this class is typically used.

Like vector, allocator is a template (§ 3.3, p. 96). To define an allocator we must specify the type of objects that a particular allocator can allocate. When an allocator object allocates memory, it allocates memory that is appropriately sized and aligned to hold objects of the given type:

```
allocator<string> alloc; // object that can allocate strings auto const p = alloc.allocate(n); // allocate nunconstructed strings
```

This call to allocate allocates memory for n strings.

Table 12.7: Standard allocator Class and Customized Algorithms		
allocator <t> a</t>	Defines an allocator object named a that can allocate memory for objects of type T.	
a.allocate(n)	Allocates raw, unconstructed memory to hold n objects of type T.	
a.deallocate(p, n)	Deallocates memory that held n objects of type T starting at the address in the T* pointer p; p must be a pointer previously returned by allocate, and n must be the size requested when p was created. The user must run destroy on any objects that were constructed in this memory before calling deallocate.	
a.construct(p, args)	p must be a pointer to type T that points to raw memory; args are passed to a constructor for type T, which is used to construct an object in the memory pointed to by p.	
a.destroy(p)	Runs the destructor (§ 12.1.1, p. 452) on the object pointed to by the ${ t T}\star$ pointer p.	

allocators Allocate Unconstructed Memory

The memory an allocator allocates is *unconstructed*. We use this memory by constructing objects in that memory. In the new library the construct member takes a pointer and zero or more additional arguments; it constructs an element at the given location. The additional arguments are used to initialize the object being constructed. Like the arguments to make_shared (§ 12.1.1, p. 451), these additional arguments must be valid initializers for an object of the type being constructed. In particular, if the , object is a class type, these arguments must match a constructor for that class:

```
auto q = p; // qwill point to one past the last constructed element
alloc.construct(q++); // *q is the empty string
alloc.construct(q++, 10, 'c'); // *q is ccccccccc
alloc.construct(q++, "hi"); // *q is hi!
```

In earlier versions of the library, construct took only two arguments: the pointer at which to construct an object and a value of the element type. As a result, we could only copy an element into unconstructed space, we could not use any other constructor for the element type.

It is an error to use raw memory in which an object has not been constructed:

```
cout << *p << endl; // ok: uses the string output operator
cout << *q << endl; // disaster: q points to unconstructed memory!</pre>
```



We must construct objects in order to use memory returned by allocate. Using unconstructed memory in other ways is undefined.

When we're finished using the objects, we must destroy the elements we constructed, which we do by calling destroy on each constructed element. The destroy function takes a pointer and runs the destructor (§ 12.1.1, p. 452) on the pointed-to object:

```
while (q != p)
   alloc.destroy(--q);  // free the strings we actually allocated
```

At the beginning of our loop, q points one past the last constructed element. We decrement q before calling destroy. Thus, on the first call to destroy, q points to the last constructed element. We destroy the first element in the last iteration, after which q will equal p and the loop ends.



We may destroy only elements that are actually constructed.

Once the elements have been destroyed, we can either reuse the memory to hold other strings or return the memory to the system. We free the memory by calling deallocate:

```
alloc.deallocate(p, n);
```

The pointer we pass to deallocate cannot be null; it must point to memory allocated by allocate. Moreover, the size argument passed to deallocate must be the same size as used in the call to allocate that obtained the memory to which the pointer points.

Algorithms to Copy and Fill Uninitialized Memory

As a companion to the allocator class, the library also defines two algorithms that can construct objects in uninitialized memory. These functions, described in Table 12.8, are defined in the memory header.

Table 12.8: allocator Algorithms

These functions construct elements in the destination, rather than assigning to them.

```
uninitialized copy(b, e, b2)
```

Copies elements from the input range denoted by iterators b and e into unconstructed, raw memory denoted by the iterator b2. The memory denoted by b2 must be large enough to hold a copy of the elements in the input range.

```
uninitialized copy n(b, n, b2)
```

Copies n elements starting from the one denoted by the iterator b into raw memory starting at b2.

```
uninitialized fill(b, e, t)
```

Constructs objects in the range of raw memory denoted by iterators b and e as a copy of t.

```
uninitialized fill n(b, n, t)
```

Constructs an unsigned number n objects starting at b. b must denote unconstructed, raw memory large enough to hold the given number of objects.

As an example, assume we have a vector of ints that we want to copy into dynamic memory. We'll allocate memory for twice as many ints as are in the vector. We'll construct the first half of the newly allocated memory by copying elements from the original vector. We'll construct elements in the second half by filling them with a given value:

```
// allocate twice as many elements as vi holds
auto p = alloc.allocate(vi.size() * 2);
// construct elements starting at p as copies of elements in vi
auto q = uninitialized_copy(vi.begin(), vi.end(), p);
// initialize the remaining elements to 42
uninitialized fill n(q, vi.size(), 42);
```

Like the copy algorithm (§ 10.2.2, p. 382), uninitialized_copy takes three iterators. The first two denote an input sequence and the third denotes the destination into which those elements will be copied. The destination iterator passed to uninitialized_copy must denote unconstructed memory. Unlike copy, uninitialized copy constructs elements in its destination.

Like copy, uninitialized_copy returns its (incremented) destination iterator. Thus, a call to uninitialized_copy returns a pointer positioned one element past the last constructed element. In this example, we store that pointer in q, which we pass to uninitialized_fill_n. This function, like fill_n (§ 10.2.2, p. 380), takes a pointer to a destination, a count, and a value. It will construct the given number of objects from the given value at locations starting at the given destination.

EXERCISES SECTION 12.2.2

Exercise 12.26: Rewrite the program on page 481 using an allocator.



12.3 Using the Library: A Text-Query Program

To conclude our discussion of the library, we'll implement a simple text-query program. Our program will let a user search a given file for words that might occur in it. The result of a query will be the number of times the word occurs and a list of lines on which that word appears. If a word occurs more than once on the same line, we'll display that line only once. Lines will be displayed in ascending order—that is, line 7 should be displayed before line 9, and so on.

For example, we might read the file that contains the input for this chapter and look for the word element. The first few lines of the output would be

```
element occurs 112 times
(line 36) A set element contains only a key;
(line 158) operator creates a new element
(line 160) Regardless of whether the element
(line 168) When we fetch an element from a map, we
(line 214) If the element is not found, find returns
```

followed by the remaining 100 or so lines in which the word element occurs.

12.3.1 Design of the Query Program



A good way to start the design of a program is to list the program's operations. Knowing what operations we need can help us see what data structures we'll need. Starting from requirements, the tasks our program must do include the following:

- When it reads the input, the program must remember the line(s) in which each word appears. Hence, the program will need to read the input a line at a time and break up the lines from the input file into its separate words
- When it generates output,
 - The program must be able to fetch the line numbers associated with a given word
 - The line numbers must appear in ascending order with no duplicates
 - The program must be able to print the text appearing in the input file at a given line number.

These requirements can be met quite neatly by using various library facilities:

- We'll use a vector<string> to store a copy of the entire input file. Each line in the input file will be an element in this vector. When we want to print a line, we can fetch the line using its line number as the index.
- We'll use an istringstream (§ 8.3, p. 321) to break each line into words.
- We'll use a set to hold the line numbers on which each word in the input appears. Using a set guarantees that each line will appear only once and that the line numbers will be stored in ascending order.
- We'll use a map to associate each word with the set of line numbers on which the word appears. Using a map will let us fetch the set for any given word.

For reasons we'll explain shortly, our solution will also use shared_ptrs.

Data Structures

Although we could write our program using vector, set, and map directly, it will be more useful if we define a more abstract solution. We'll start by designing a class to hold the input file in a way that makes querying the file easy. This class, which we'll name TextQuery, will hold a vector and a map. The vector will hold the text of the input file; the map will associate each word in that file to the set of line numbers on which that word appears. This class will have a constructor that reads a given input file and an operation to perform the queries.

The work of the query operation is pretty simple: It will look inside its map to see whether the given word is present. The hard part in designing this function is deciding what the query function should return. Once we know that a word was found, we need to know how often it occurred, the line numbers on which it occurred, and the corresponding text for each of those line numbers.

The easiest way to return all those data is to define a second class, which we'll name QueryResult, to hold the results of a query. This class will have a print function to print the results in a QueryResult.

Dynamic Memory

Sharing Data between Classes

Our QueryResult class is intended to represent the results of a query. Those results include the set of line numbers associated with the given word and the corresponding lines of text from the input file. These data are stored in objects of type TextQuery.

Because the data that a QueryResult needs are stored in a TextQuery object, we have to decide how to access them. We could copy the set of line numbers, but that might be an expensive operation. Moreover, we certainly wouldn't want to copy the vector, because that would entail copying the entire file in order to print (what will usually be) a small subset of the file.

We could avoid making copies by returning iterators (or pointers) into the TextQuery object. However, this approach opens up a pitfall: What happens if the TextQuery object is destroyed before a corresponding QueryResult? In that case, the QueryResult would refer to data in an object that no longer exists.

This last observation about synchronizing the lifetime of a QueryResult with the TextQuery object whose results it represents suggests a solution to our design problem. Given that these two classes conceptually "share" data, we'll use shared ptrs (§ 12.1.1, p. 450) to reflect that sharing in our data structures.

Using the TextQuery Class

When we design a class, it can be helpful to write programs using the class before actually implementing the members. That way, we can see whether the class has the operations we need. For example, the following program uses our proposed TextQuery and QueryResult classes. This function takes an ifstream that points to the file we want to process, and interacts with a user, printing the results for the given words:

```
void runQueries(ifstream &infile)
{
    // infile is an ifstream that is the file we want to query
    TextQuery tq(infile); // store the file and build the query map
    // iterate with the user: prompt for a word to find and print results
    while (true) {
        cout << "enter word to look for, or q to quit: ";
        string s;
        // stop if we hit end-of-file on the input or if a 'q' is entered
        if (!(cin >> s) || s == "q") break;
        // run the query and print the results
        print(cout, tq.query(s)) << endl;
    }
}</pre>
```

We start by initializing a TextQuery object named tq from a given ifstream. The TextQuery constructor reads that file into its vector and builds the map that associates the words in the input with the line numbers on which they appear.

The while loop iterates (indefinitely) with the user asking for a word to query and printing the related results. The loop condition tests the literal true (§ 2.1.3, p. 41), so it always succeeds. We exit the loop through the break (§ 5.5.1, p. 190)

after the first if. That if checks that the read succeeded. If so, it also checks whether the user entered a q to quit. Once we have a word to look for, we ask tq to find that word and then call print to print the results of the search.

EXERCISES SECTION 12.3.1

Exercise 12.27: The TextQuery and QueryResult classes use only capabilities that we have already covered. Without looking ahead, write your own versions of these classes.

Exercise 12.28: Write a program to implement text queries without defining classes to manage the data. Your program should take a file and interact with a user to query for words in that file. Use vector, map, and set containers to hold the data for the file and to generate the results for the queries.

Exercise 12.29: We could have written the loop to manage the interaction with the user as a do while (§ 5.4.4, p. 189) loop. Rewrite the loop to use a do while. Explain which version you prefer and why.

12.3.2 Defining the Query Program Classes



We'll start by defining our TextQuery class. The user will create objects of this class by supplying an istream from which to read the input file. This class also provides the query operation that will take a string and return a QueryResult representing the lines on which that string appears.

The data members of the class have to take into account the intended sharing with <code>QueryResult</code> objects. The <code>QueryResult</code> class will share the <code>vector</code> representing the input file and the <code>sets</code> that hold the line numbers associated with each word in the input. Hence, our class has two data members: a <code>shared_ptr</code> to a dynamically allocated <code>vector</code> that holds the input file, and a <code>map</code> from <code>string</code> to <code>shared_ptr<set></code>. The <code>map</code> associates each word in the file with a dynamically allocated <code>set</code> that holds the line numbers on which that word appears.

To make our code a bit easier to read, we'll also define a type member (§ 7.3.1, p. 271) to refer to line numbers, which are indices into a vector of strings:

The hardest part about this class is untangling the class names. As usual, for code that will go in a header file, we use std:: when we use a library name (§ 3.1, p. 83). In this case, the repeated use of std:: makes the code a bit hard to read at first. For example,

```
std::map<std::string, std::shared_ptr<std::set<line_no>>> wm;
is easier to understand when rewritten as
map<string, shared ptr<set<line no>>> wm;
```

The TextQuery Constructor

The TextQuery constructor takes an ifstream, which it reads a line at a time:

```
// read the input file and build the map of lines to line numbers
TextQuery::TextQuery(ifstream &is): file(new vector<string>)
    string text;
    while (getline(is, text)) {
                                             // for each line in the file
         file->push back(text);
                                             // remember this line of text
                                             // the current line number
         int n = file -> size() - 1;
         istringstream line(text);
                                             // separate the line into words
         string word;
         while (line >> word) {
                                             // for each word in that line
              // if word isn't already in wm, subscripting adds a new entry
              auto &lines = wm[word]; // lines is a shared ptr
              if (!lines) // that pointer is null the first time we see word
                   lines.reset(new set<line no>); // allocate a new set
                                     // insert this line number
              lines->insert(n);
         }
    }
}
```

The constructor initializer allocates a new vector to hold the text from the input file. We use getline to read the file a line at a time and push each line onto the vector. Because file is a shared_ptr, we use the -> operator to dereference file to fetch the push_back member of the vector to which file points.

Next we use an istringstream (§ 8.3, p. 321) to process each word in the line we just read. The inner while uses the istringstream input operator to read each word from the current line into word. Inside the while, we use the map subscript operator to fetch the shared_ptr<set> associated with word and bind lines to that pointer. Note that lines is a reference, so changes made to lines will be made to the element in wm.

If word wasn't in the map, the subscript operator adds word to wm (§ 11.3.4, p. 435). The element associated with word is value initialized, which means that lines will be a null pointer if the subscript operator added word to wm. If lines is null, we allocate a new set and call reset to update the shared_ptr to which lines refers to point to this newly allocated set.

Regardless of whether we created a new set, we call insert to add the current line number. Because lines is a reference, the call to insert adds an element

to the set in wm. If a given word occurs more than once in the same line, the call to insert does nothing.

The QueryResult Class

The QueryResult class has three data members: a string that is the word whose results it represents; a shared_ptr to the vector containing the input file; and a shared_ptr to the set of line numbers on which this word appears. Its only member function is a constructor that initializes these three members:

The constructor's only job is to store its arguments in the corresponding data members, which it does in the constructor initializer list (§ 7.1.4, p. 265).

The query Function

The query function takes a string, which it uses to locate the corresponding set of line numbers in the map. If the string is found, the query function constructs a QueryResult from the given string, the TextQuery file member, and the set that was fetched from wm.

The only question is: What should we return if the given string is not found? In this case, there is no set to return. We'll solve this problem by defining a local static object that is a shared_ptr to an empty set of line numbers. When the word is not found, we'll return a copy of this shared ptr:

```
QueryResult
TextQuery::query(const string &sought) const
{
    // we'll return a pointer to this set if we don't find sought
    static shared_ptr<set<line_no>> nodata(new set<line_no>);
    // use find and not a subscript to avoid adding words to wm!
    auto loc = wm.find(sought);
    if (loc == wm.end())
        return QueryResult(sought, nodata, file); // not found
    else
        return QueryResult(sought, loc->second, file);
}
```

Printing the Results

The print function prints its given QueryResult object on its given stream:

We use the size of the set to which the qr.lines points to report how many matches were found. Because that set is in a shared_ptr, we have to remember to dereference lines. We call make_plural (§ 6.3.2, p. 224) to print time or times, depending on whether that size is equal to 1.

In the for we iterate through the set to which lines points. The body of the for prints the line number, adjusted to use human-friendly counting. The numbers in the set are indices of elements in the vector, which are numbered from zero. However, most users think of the first line as line number 1, so we systematically add 1 to the line numbers to convert to this more common notation.

We use the line number to fetch a line from the vector to which file points. Recall that when we add a number to an iterator, we get the element that many elements further into the vector (§ 3.4.2, p. 111). Thus, file->begin() + num is the numth element after the start of the vector to which file points.

Note that this function correctly handles the case that the word is not found. In this case, the set will be empty. The first output statement will note that the word occurred 0 times. Because *res.lines is empty. the for loop won't be executed.

EXERCISES SECTION 12.3.2

Exercise 12.30: Define your own versions of the TextQuery and QueryResult classes and execute the runQueries function from § 12.3.1 (p. 486).

Exercise 12.31: What difference(s) would it make if we used a vector instead of a set to hold the line numbers? Which approach is better? Why?

Exercise 12.32: Rewrite the TextQuery and QueryResult classes to use a StrBlob instead of a vector<string> to hold the input file.

Exercise 12.33: In Chapter 15 we'll extend our query system and will need some additional members in the QueryResult class. Add members named begin and end that return iterators into the set of line numbers returned by a given query, and a member named get_file that returns a shared_ptr to the file in the QueryResult object.

Defined Terms 491

CHAPTER SUMMARY

In C++, memory is allocated through new expressions and freed through delete expressions. The library also defines an allocator class for allocating blocks of dynamic memory.

Programs that allocate dynamic memory are responsible for freeing the memory they allocate. Properly freeing dynamic memory is a rich source of bugs: Either the memory is never freed, or it is freed while there are still pointers referring to the memory. The new library defines smart pointers—shared_ptr, unique_ptr, and weak_ptr—that make managing dynamic memory much safer. A smart pointer automatically frees the memory once there are no other users of that memory. When possible, modern C++ programs ought to use smart pointers.

DEFINED TERMS

allocator Library class that allocates unconstructed memory.

dangling pointer A pointer that refers to memory that once had an object but no longer does. Program errors due to dangling pointers are notoriously difficult to debug.

delete Frees memory allocated by new. delete p frees the object and delete [] p frees the array to which p points. p may be null or point to memory allocated by new.

deleter Function passed to a smart pointer to use in place of delete when destroying the object to which the pointer is bound.

destructor Special member function that cleans up an object when the object goes out of scope or is deleted.

dynamically allocated Object that is allocated on the free store. Objects allocated on the free store exist until they are explicitly deleted or the program terminates.

free store Memory pool available to a program to hold dynamically allocated objects.

heap Synonym for free store.

new Allocates memory from the free store. new T allocates and constructs an object of type T and returns a pointer to that object; if T is an array type, new returns a pointer to the first element in the array. Similarly, new [n] T allocates n objects of type T and returns a pointer to the first element in the array. By default, the allocated object is default initialized. We may also provide optional initializers.

placement new Form of new that takes additional arguments passed in parentheses following the keyword new; for example, new (nothrow) int tells new that it should not throw an exception.

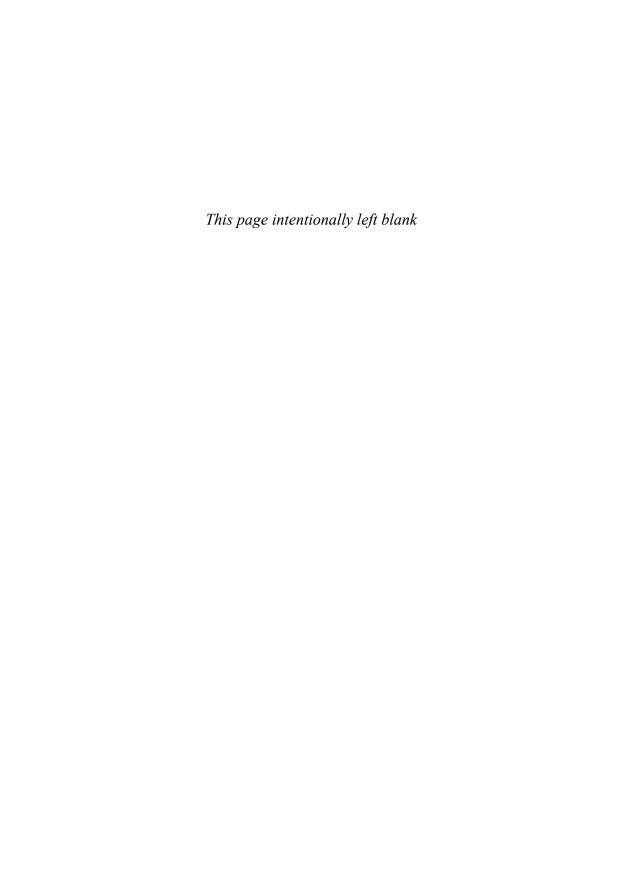
reference count Counter that tracks how many users share a common object. Used by smart pointers to know when it is safe to delete memory to which the pointers point.

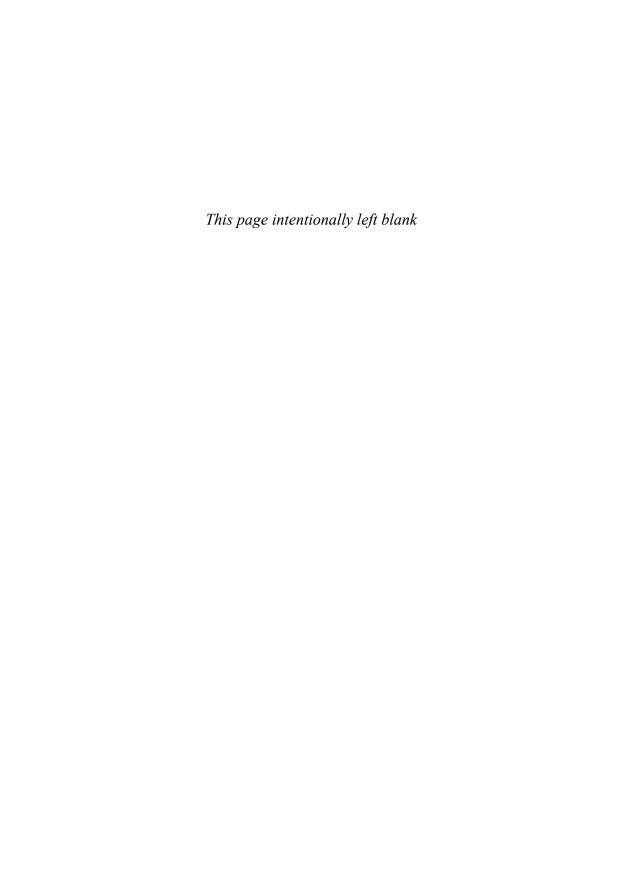
shared_ptr Smart pointer that provides shared ownership: The object is deleted when the last shared_ptr pointing to that object is destroyed.

smart pointer Library type that acts like a pointer but can be checked to see whether it is safe to use. The type takes care of deleting memory when appropriate.

unique_ptr Smart pointer that provides
single ownership: The object is deleted
when the unique_ptr pointing to that object is destroyed. unique_ptrs cannot be
directly copied or assigned.

weak_ptr Smart pointer that points to an object managed by a shared_ptr. The shared_ptr does not count weak_ptrs when deciding whether to delete its object.





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.

What's new in C++11 format control for floating-point, 757 forward function, 694 = default, 265, 506 forward list container, 327 = delete, 507function interface to callable objects, 577 allocator, construct forwards to any in-class initializer, 73, 274 constructor, 482 inherited constructor, 628, 804 array container, 327 initializer list, 220 auto,68 inline namespace, 790 for type abbreviation, 88, 129 lambda expression, 388 not with dynamic array, 478 list initialization with dynamic object, 459 = (assignment), 145 begin function, 118 container, 336, 423 bind function, 397 dynamic array, 478 bitset enhancements, 726 dynamic object, 459 constexpr pair, 431 constructor, 299 return value, 226, 427 function, 239 variable, 43 variable, 66 vector, 98 container long long, 33 cbegin and cend, 109, 334 mem fn function, 843 emplace members, 345 move function, 533 insert return type, 344 move avoids copies, 529 nonmember swap, 339 move constructor, 534 of container, 97, 329 move iterator, 543 shrink to fit,357 move-enabled this pointer, 546 decltype, 70 noexcept function return type, 250 exception specification, 535, 779 delegating constructor, 291 operator, 780 deleted copy-control, 624 nullptr,54 division rounding, 141 random-number library, 745 end function, 118 range for statement, 91, 187 enumeration not with dynamic array, 477 controlling representation, 834 regular expression-library, 728 forward declaration, 834 rvalue reference, 532 scoped, 832 cast from Ivalue, 691 explicit conversion operator, 582 reference collapsing, 688 explicit instantiation, 675 sizeof data member, 157 final class, 600 sizeof... operator, 700

smart pointer, 450	user-defined header, 21
shared_ptr,450	#define, 77, 80
unique_ptr,470	#endif, 77, 80
weak_ptr,473	#ifdef, 77 ,80
string	#ifndef, 77 , 80
numeric conversions, 367	~classname, see destructor
parameter with IO types, 317	; (semicolon), 3
template	class definition, 73
function template default template	null statement, 172
argument, 670	++ (increment), 12 , 28, 147–149, 170
type alias, 666	iterator, 107, 132
type parameter as friend, 666	overloaded operator, 566–568
variadic, 699	pointer, 118
varidadics and forwarding, 704	
	precedence and associativity, 148
trailing return type, 229	reverse iterator, 407
in function template, 684	StrBlobPtr, 566
in lambda expression, 396	(decrement), 13 , 28, 147–149, 170
tuple,718	iterator, 107
type alias declaration, 68	overloaded operator, 566–568
union member of class type, 848	pointer, 118
unordered containers, 443	precedence and associativity, 148
virtual function	reverse iterator, 407, 408
final,606	StrBlobPtr, 566
override,596,606	* (dereference), 53, 80, 448
	iterator, 107
Symbole	map iterators, 429
Symbols	overloaded operator, 569
(ellipsis parameter), 222	pointer, 53
/* */ (block comment), 9 , 26	precedence and associativity, 148
// (single-line comment), 9, 26	smart pointer, 451
= default, 265 , 306	StrBlobPtr,569
copy-control members, 506	& (address-of), 52 , 80
default constructor, 265	overloaded operator, 554
= delete, 507	-> (arrow operator), 110 , 132, 150
copy control, 507-508	overloaded operator, 569
default constructor, 507	StrBlobPtr,569
function matching, 508	. (dot), 23 , 28, 150
move operations, 538	->* (pointer to member arrow), 837
DATE,242	. * (pointer to member dot), 837
FILE,242	[] (subscript), 93
LINE,242	array, 116 , 132
TIME,242	array,347
cplusplus, 860	bitset,727
\0 (null character), 39	deque, 347
\Xnnn (hexadecimal escape sequence), 39	does not add elements, 104
\n (newline character), 39	map, and unordered_map, 435, 448
\t (tab character), 39	adds element, 435
\nnn (octal escape sequence), 39	multidimensional array, 127
{ } (curly brace), 2 , 26	out-of-range index, 93
#include, 6, 28	overloaded operator, 564
standard header, 6	pointer, 121

string, 93 , 132, 347	SmallInt,588
StrVec,565	string,89
subscript range, 95	- (subtraction), 140
vector, 103 , 132, 347	iterator, 111
() (call operator), 23 , 28, 202 , 252	pointer, 119
absInt,571	* (multiplication), 140
const member function, 573	/ (division), 140
execution flow, 203	rounding, 141
overloaded operator, 571	% (modulus), 141
PrintString, 571	grading program, 176
ShorterString,573	== (equality), 18 , 28
SizeComp, 573	arithmetic conversion, 144
:: (scope operator), 8 , 28, 82	container, 88, 102, 340, 341
base-class member, 607	iterator, 106, 107
class type member, 88, 282	overloaded operator, 561, 562
container, type members, 333	pointer, 55, 120
global namespace, 789 , 818	Sales_data,561
member function, definition, 259	string,88
overrides name lookup, 286	tuple,720
= (assignment), 12 , 28, 144–147	unordered container key_type, 443
see also copy assignment	used in algorithms, 377, 385, 413
see also move assignment	vs. = (assignment), 146
associativity, 145	! = (inequality), 28
base from derived, 603	arithmetic conversion, 144
container, 89, 103, 337	container, 88, 102, 340, 341
conversion, 145, 159	iterator, 106, 107
derived class, 626	overloaded operator, 562
in condition, 146	pointer, 55, 120
initializer_list,563	Sales_data,561
list initialization, 145	string,88
low precedence, 146	tuple, 72 0
multiple inheritance, 805	< (less-than), 28, 143
overloaded operator, 500, 563	container, 88 , 340
pointer, 55	ordered container key_type, 425
to signed, 35	overloaded operator, 562
to unsigned, 35	strict weak ordering, 562
vs. == (equality), 146	string,88
vs. initialization, 42	tuple,720
+= (compound assignment), 12 , 28, 147	used in algorithms, 378, 385, 413
bitwise operators, 155	<= (less-than-or-equal), 12 , 28, 143
iterator, 111	container, 88, 340
overloaded operator, 555, 560	string, 88
Sales_data,564	> (greater-than), 28, 143
exception version, 784	container, 88 , 340
string, 89	string, 88
+ (addition), 6 , 140	>= (greater-than-or-equal), 28, 143
iterator, 111	container, 88 , 340
pointer, 119	string, 88
Sales data, 560	>> (input operator), 8 , 28
exception version, 784	as condition, 15, 86, 312
Sales item, 22	chained-input, 8
_ · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·	1 -7 -

istream,8	numL or numl (long literal), 41
istream_iterator,403	numLL or numll (long long literal), 41
overloaded operator, 558-559	$\it num$ U or $\it num$ u (unsigned literal), 41
precedence and associativity, 155	class member: constant expression, see bit-
Sales_data,558	field
Sales_item,21	
string, 85, 132	Α
<< (output operator), 7, 28	
bitset,727	absInt,571
chained output, 7	() (call operator), 571
ostream,7	abstract base class, 610, 649
ostream_iterator, 405	BinaryQuery,643
overloaded operator, 557–558	Disc_quote,610
precedence and associativity, 155	Query_base,636
Query,641	abstract data type, 254, 305
Sales_data,557	access control, 611–616
Sales_item,21	class derivation list, 596
string, 85, 132	default inheritance access, 616
>> (right-shift), 153 , <i>170</i>	default member access, 268
<< (left-shift), 153 , 170	derived class, 613
&& (logical AND), 94 , 132, 142, 169	derived-to-base conversion, 613
order of evaluation, 138	design, 614
overloaded operator, 554	inherited members, 612
short-circuit evaluation, 142	local class, 853
(logical OR), 142	nested class, 844
order of evaluation, 138	private,268
overloaded operator, 554	protected, 595, 611
short-circuit evaluation, 142	public,268
& (bitwise AND), 154 , 169	using declaration, 615
Query, 638, 644	access specifier, 268, 305
! (logical NOT), 87 , 132, 143, 170	accessible, 611 , 649
(logical OR), 132, 170	derived-to-base conversion, 613
(bitwise OR), 154 , 170	Account, 301
Query, 638, 644	accumulate, 379, 882
^ (bitwise XOR), 154 , 170	bookstore program, 406
~ (bitwise NOT), 154 , 170	Action, 839
Query, 638, 643	adaptor, 372
, (comma operator), 157 , 169	back_inserter,402
order of evaluation, 138	container, 368 , 368–371
overloaded operator, 554	front_inserter,402
?: (conditional operator), 151 , <i>169</i>	inserter,402
order of evaluation, 138	make_move_iterator,543
precdence and associativity, 151	add, Sales_data, 261
+ (unary plus), 140	add item, Basket, 633
- (unary minus), 140	add_to_Folder,Message,522
L'c' (wchar_t literal), 38	address, 33 , 78
ddd.dddL or ddd.dddl (long double lit-	adjacent_difference,882
eral), 41	adjacent find,871
numEnum or numenum (double literal),	advice
39	always initialize a pointer, 54
numF or numf (float literal), 41	avoid casts, 165

avoid undefined behavior, 36	use element's < (less-than), 385, 413
choosing a built-in type, 34	accumulate,379
define small utility functions, 277	bookstore program, 406
define variables near first use, 48	сору, 382
don't create unnecessary regex ob-	count,378
jects, 733	equal_range,722
forwarding parameter pattern, 706	equal,380
keep lambda captures simple, 394	fill_n,381
managing iterators, 331, 354	fill,380
prefix vs. postfix operators, 148	find_if,388,397,414
rule of five, 541	find, 376
use move sparingly, 544	for_each,391
use constructor initializer lists, 289	replace_copy,383
when to use overloading, 233	replace,383
writing compound expressions, 139	set_intersection,647
aggregate class, 298 , 305	sort,384
initialization, 298	stable_sort,387
algorithm header, 376	transform,396
algorithms, 376 , 418	unique,384
see also Appendix A	alias declaration
architecture	namespace, 792 , 817
_copy versions, 383, 414	template type, 666
if versions, 414	type, 68
naming convention, 413–414	all of,871
operate on iterators not contain-	alloc_n_copy,StrVec,527
ers, 378	allocate, allocator, 481
overloading pattern, 414	allocator, 481 , 481–483, 491, 524–531
parameter pattern, 412–413	allocate, 481, 527
read-only, 379–380	compared to operator new, 823
reorder elements, 383–385, 414	construct, 482
write elements, 380–383	forwards to constructor, 527
associative container and, 430	deallocate, 483, 528
bind as argument, 397	compared to operator delete,
can't change container size, 385	823
element type requirements, 377	destroy, 482, 528
function object arguments, 572	alternative operator name, 46
istream_iterator,404	alternative_sum, program, 682
iterator category, 410–412	ambiguous
iterator range, 376	conversion, 583–589
lambda as argument, 391, 396	multiple inheritance, 806
library function object, 575	function call, 234 , 245, 251
ostream_iterator,404	multiple inheritance, 808
sort comparison, requires strict weak	overloaded operator, 588
ordering, 425	AndQuery,637
supplying comparison operation, 386,	class definition, 644
413	eval function, 646
function, 386	anonymous union, 848, 862
lambda, 389, 390	any, bitset, 726
two input ranges, 413	any_of,871
type independence, 377	app (file mode), 319
use element's $==$ (equality), 385, 413	append, string, 362

argc, 219	conversion to pointer, 117, 161
argument, 23 , 26, 202 , 251	function arguments, 214
array, 214–219	template argument deduction, 679
buffer overflow, 215	dec1type returns array type, 118
to pointer conversion, 214	definition, 113
C-style string, 216	dimension, constant expression, 113
conversion, function matching, 234	dynamically allocated, 476, 476–484
default, 236	allocator, 481
forwarding, 704	can't use begin and end, 477
initializes parameter, 203	can't use range for statement, 477
iterator, 216	delete[],478
low-level const, 213	empty array, 478
main function, 218	new[], 477
multidimensional array, 218	shared_ptr,480
nonreference parameter, 209	unique ptr,479
pass by reference, 210 , 252	elements and destructor, 502
pass by value, 209 , 252	end function, 118
uses copy constructor, 498	initialization, 114
uses move constructor, 539, 541	initializer of vector, 125
passing, 208–212	multidimensional, 125–130
pointer, 214	no copy or assign, 114
reference parameter, 210, 214	of char initialization, 114
reference to const, 211	parameter
top-level const, 212	buffer overflow, 215
argument list, 202	converted to pointer, 215
argument-dependent lookup, 797	function template, 654
move and forward, 798	pointer to, 218
argv, 219	reference to, 217
arithmetic	return type, 204
conversion, 35, 159 , 168	trailing, 229
in equality and relational opera-	type alias, 229
tors, 144	decltype, 230
integral promotion, 160 , 169	sizeof,157
signed to unsigned, 34	subscript range, 116
to bool, 162	subscript type, 116
operators, 139	understanding complicated declara-
compound assignment (e.g.,+=), 147	tions, 115
function object, 574	array
overloaded, 560	see also container
type, 32 , 78	see also sequential container
machine-dependent, 32	[] (subscript), 347
arithmetic (addition and subtraction)	= (assignment), 337
iterators, 111 , 131	assign, 338
pointers, 119 , 132	copy initialization, 337
array, 113–130	default initialization, 336
[] (subscript), 116 , 132	definition, 336
argument and parameter, 214–219	header, 329
argument conversion, 214	initialization, 334–337
auto returns pointer, 117	list initialization, 337
begin function, 118	overview, 327
compound type, 113	random-access iterator, 412
compound type, 113	random-access herator, 412

swap, 339	auto_ptr deprecated, 471
assert preprocessor macro, 241 , 251	automatic object, 205 , 251
assign	see also local variable
array,338	see also parameter
invalidates iterator, 338	and destructor, 502
sequential container, 338	avg_price, Sales_data, 259
string, 362	5_F 11, 11 11 _ 11 _ 11 11 , 11 11
assignment, vs. initialization, 42, 288	_
assignment operators, 144–147	В
associative array, see map	back
associative container, 420 , 447	queue, 371
and library algorithms, 430	sequential container, 346
initialization, 423, 424	StrBlob, 457
key_type requirements, 425, 445	back_inserter, 382 , 402, 417
members	requires push_back, 382, 402
begin, 430	bad, 313
count, 437, 438	bad_alloc, 197, 460
emplace, 432	bad_cast, 197, 826
end, 430	bad_typeid,828
equal_range, 439	badbit, 312
erase, 434	base, reverse iterator, 409
find, 437, 438	base class, 592 , 649
insert,432	see also virtual function
key_type, 428, 447	abstract, 610 , 649
mapped_type, 428, 448	base-to-derived conversion, not au-
value_type, 428, 448	tomatic, 602
override default comparison, 425	can be a derived class, 600
override default hash, 446	definition, 594
overview, 423	derived-to-base conversion, 597
associativity, 134, 136–137, 168	accessibility, 613
= (assignment), 145	key concepts, 604
?: (conditional operator), 151	multiple inheritance, 805
dot and dereference, 150	final,600
increment and dereference, 148	friendship not inherited, 614
IO operator, 155	initialized or assigned from derived
overloaded operator, 553	603
at	member hidden by derived, 619
deque, 348	member new and delete, 822
map, 435	multiple, see multiple inheritance
string,348	must be complete type, 600
unordered_map, 435	protected member, 611
vector, 348	scope, 617
ate (file mode), 319	inheritance, 617–621
auto, 68 , 78	multiple inheritance, 807
cbegin, 109, 379	virtual function, 620
cend, 109, 379	static members, 599
for type abbreviation, 88, 129	user of, 614
of array, 117	virtual, see virtual base class
of reference, 69	virtual destructor, 622
pointer to function, 249	Basket,631
with new, 459	add item,633

total,632	test,727
Bear, 803	to ulong,727
virtual base class, 812	bitwise, bitset, operators, 725
before_begin, forward_list, 351	bitwise operators, 152–156
begin	+= (compound assignment), 155
associative container, 430	compound assignment (e.g.,+=), 147
container, 106 , 131, 333, 372	grading program, 154
function, 118 , 131	operand requirements, 152
not with dynamic array, 477	Blob
multidimensional array, 129	class template, 659
StrBlob, 475	constructor, 662
StrVec, 526	initializer_list,662
bernoulli_distribution,752	iterator parameters, 673
best match, 234 , 251	instantiation, 660
see also function matching	member functions, 661–662
bidirectional iterator, 412 , <i>417</i>	block, 2 , 12, 26, 173 , 199
	function, 204
biggies program, 391	
binary (file mode), 319	scope, 48 , 80, 173
binary operators, 134, 168	try, 193 , 194, 200, 818
overloaded operator, 552	block (/* */), comment, 9, 26
binary predicate, 386, 417	book from author program, 438–440
binary_function deprecated, 579	bookstore program
binary_search, 873	Sales_data,255
BinaryQuery, 637	using algorithms, 406
abstract base class, 643	Sales_item,24
bind, 397, 417	bool, 32
check_size,398	conversion, 35
generates callable object, 397	literal, 41
from pointer to member, 843	in condition, 143
placeholders,399	boolalpha, manipulator, 754
reference parameter, 400	brace, curly, 2 , 26
bind1st deprecated, 401	braced list, see list initialization
bind2nd deprecated, 401	break statement, 190 , 199
binops desk calculator, 577	in switch, 179–181
bit-field, 854 , <i>862</i>	bucket management, unordered container
access to, 855	444
constant expression, 854	buffer, 7, 26
bitset, 723 , 723–728, 769	flushing, 314
[] (subscript), 727	buffer overflow, 105 , 116, 131
<< (output operator), 727	array parameter, 215
any, 72 6	C-style string, 123
count,727	buildMap program,442
flip,727	built-in type, 2 , 26, 32–34
grading program, 728	default initialization, 43
header, 723	Bulk_quote
initialization, 723–725	class definition, 596
from string,724	constructor, 598, 610
from unsigned, 723	derived from Disc_quote,610
none, 726	design, 592
reset,727	synthesized copy control, 623
set,727	byte, 33 , 78

C	checked, see dynamic_cast
. C file, 4	old-style, 164
.c file, 4	to rvalue reference, 691
	catch, 193 , 195, 199, 775 , 816
. cpp file, 4	catch(), 777, 816
. cp file, 4	exception declaration, 195, 200, 775,
C library header, 91	816
C-style cast, 164	exception object, 775
C-style string, 114, 122 , 122–123, <i>131</i>	matching, 776
buffer overflow, 123	ordering of, 776
initialization, 122	runtime_error,195
parameter, 216	catch all (catch ()), 777, 816
string,124	caution
c_str,124	
call by reference, 208, 210, 251	ambiguous conversion operator, 581
call by value, 209 , 251	conversions to unsigned, 37
uses copy constructor, 498	dynamic memory pitfalls, 462
uses move constructor, 539	exception safety, 196 IO buffers, 315
call signature, 576 , <i>590</i>	
callable object, 388 , <i>417</i> , 571–572	overflow, 140
absInt,571	overloaded operator misuse, 555
bind, 397	overloaded operators and conversion
call signature, 576	operators, 586
function and function pointers, 388	smart pointer, pitfalls, 469
function objects, 572	uninitialized variables, 45
pointer to member	using directives cause pollution, 795
and bind, 843	cbegin
and function, 842	auto, 109, 379
and mem fn, 843	decltype, 109, 379
not callable, 842	container, 109 , 333, 334, 372
PrintString, 571	cctype
ShorterString, 573	functions, 91–93
SizeComp, 573	header, 91
with function, 576–579	cend
with algorithms, 390	auto, 109, 379
candidate function, 243 , 251	decltype, 109, 379
see also function matching	container, 109 , 333, 334, 372
function template, 695	cerr, 6 , 26
namespace, 800	chained input, 8
overloaded operator, 587	chained output, 7
	char,32
capacity string,356	signed,34
<u> </u>	unsigned, 34
StrVec,526	array initialization, 114
vector, 356	literal, 39
capture list, see lambda expression	representation, 34
case label, 179 , 179–182, 199	char16_t,33
default, 181	char32_t,33
constant expression, 179	character
case sensitive, string, 365	newline (\n), 39
cassert header, 241	nonprintable, 39 , 79
cast, see also named cast, 168	null (\0), 39

tab (\t), 39	overloaded function, 281
character string literal, see string literal	scope, 270, 281
check	template class or function, 664
StrBlob,457	implementation, 254
StrBlobPtr,474	interface, 254
check_size,398	literal, 299
bind, 398	local, see local class
checked cast, see dynamic_cast	member, 73 , 78
children's story program, 383–391	member access, 282
chk n alloc, StrVec, 526	member new and delete, 822
cin, 6 , 26	member: constant expression, see bit-
tied to cout, 315	field
c1,5	multiple base classes, see multiple in-
class, 19 , 26, 72 , 305	heritance
see also constructor	name lookup, 284
see also destructor	nested, see nested class
see also member function	pointer to member, see pointer to mem-
see also static member	ber
access specifier, 268	preventing copies, 507
default, 268	scope, 73, 282 , 282–287, 305
private, 268 , 306	synthesized, copy control, 267, 497,
public, 268 , 306	500, 503, 537
aggregate, 298 , 305	template member, see member tem-
assignment operator	plate
see copy assignment	type member, 271
see move assignment	:: (scope operator), 282
base, see base class, 649	user of, 255
data member, 73 , 78	valuelike, 512
const vs. mutable, 274	without move constructor, 540
const, initialization, 289	class
in-class initializer, 274	compared to typename, 654
initialization, 263, 274	default access specifier, 268
must be complete type, 279	default inheritance specifier, 616
mutable, 274 , 306	template parameter, 654
order of destruction, 502	class derivation list, 596
order of destruction, 302	access control, 612
pointer, not deleted, 503	default access specifier, 616
reference, initialization, 289	direct base class, 600
sizeof, 157	indirect base class, 600
declaration, 278, 305	multiple inheritance, 803
default inheritance specifier, 616	virtual base class, 812
definition, 72, 256–267	class template, 96 , 131, 658 , 659 , 658–667,
ends with semicolon, 73	713
derived, see derived class, 649	see also template parameter
exception, 193 , 200	see also instantiation
final specifier, 600	Blob, 659
forward declaration, 279 , <i>306</i> friend, 269 , 280	declaration, 669 default template argument, 671
class, 280	definition, 659
	error detection, 657
function, 269	
member function, 280	explicit instantiation, 675, 675–676

explicit template argument, 660	compare
friend, 664	default template argument, 670
all instantiations, 665	function template, 652
declaration dependencies, 665	default template argument, 670
same instantiation, 664	explicit template argument, 683
specific instantiation, 665	specialization, 706
instantiation, 660	string literal version, 654
member function	template argument deduction, 680
defined outside class body, 661	string,366
instantiation, 663	compareIsbn
member template, see member tem-	and associative container, 426
plate	Sales_data,387
specialization, 707, 709–712, 714	compilation
hash <key_type>,709,788</key_type>	common errors, 16
member, 711	compiler options, 207
namespace, 788	conditional, 240
partial , 711 , 714	declaration vs. definition, 44
static member, 667	mixing C and C++, 860
accessed through an instantiation,	needed when class changes, 270
667	templates, 656
definition, 667	error detection, 657
template argument, 660	explicit instantiation, 675–676
template parameter, used in defini-	compiler
tion, 660	extension, 114 , 131
type parameter as friend, 666	GNU, 5
type-dependent code, 658	Microsoft, 5
class type, 19 , 26	options for separate compilation, 207
conversion, 162, 305, 590	composition vs. inheritance, 637
ambiguities, 587	compound assignment (e.g.,+=)
conversion operator, 579	arithmetic operators, 147
converting constructor, 294	bitwise operators, 147
impact on function matching, 584	compound expression, see expression
overloaded function, 586	compound statement, 173 , 199
with standard conversion, 581	compound type, 50 , 50–58, 78
default initialization, 44	array, 113
initialization, 73, 84, 262	declaration style, 57
union member of, 848	understanding complicated declara-
variable vs. function declaration, 294	tions, 115
clear	concatenation
sequential container, 350	string, 89
stream, 313	string literal, 39
clog, 6 , 26	condition, 12 , 26
close, file stream, 318	= (assignment) in, 146
cmatch, 733	conversion, 159
cmath header, 751, 757	do while statement, 189
collapsing rule, reference, 688	for statement, 13, 185
combine, Sales_data, 259	if statement, 18, 175
comma (,) operator, 157	in IO expression, 156
comment, 9, 26	logical operators, 141
block (/* */), 9, 26	smart pointer as, 451
single-line (//), 9 , 26	stream type as, 15, 162, 312

while statement, 12, 183	array dimension, 113
condition state, IO classes, 312, 324	bit-field, 854
conditional compilation, 240	case label, 179
conditional operator (?:), 151	enumerator, 833
connection, 468	integral, 65
console window, 6	nontype template parameter, 655
const, 59 , 78	sizeof,156
and typedef, 68	static data member, 303
conversion, 162	constexpr, 66 , 78
template argument deduction, 679	constructor, 299
dynamically allocated	declared in header files, 76
destruction, 461	function, 239 , 251
initialization, 460	nonconstant return value, 239
initialization, 59	function template, 655
class type object, 262	pointer, 67
low-level const, 64	variable, 66
argument and parameter, 213	construct
conversion from, 163	allocator,482
conversion to, 162	forwards to constructor, 527
overloaded function, 232	constructor, 262 , 264 , 262–266, 305
template argument deduction, 693	see also default constructor
member function, 258, 305	see also copy constructor
() (call operator), 573	see also move constructor
not constructors, 262	calls to virtual function, 627
overloaded function, 276	constexpr, 299
reference return, 276	converting, 294, 305
parameter, 212	function matching, 585
function matching, 246	Sales_data,295
overloaded function, 232	with standard conversion, 580
pointer, 63 , 78	default argument, 290
pointer to, 62 , 79	delegating, 291 , 306
conversion from nonconst, 162	derived class, 598
initialization from nonconst, 62	initializes direct base class, 610
overloaded parameter, 232	initializes virtual base, 813
reference, see reference to const	explicit, 296 , 306
top-level const, 64	function try block, 778, 817
and auto, 69	inherited, 628
argument and parameter, 212	initializer list, 265, 288–292, 305
decltype,71	class member initialization, 274
parameter, 232	compared to assignment, 288
template argument deduction, 679	derived class, 598
variable, 59	function try block, 778, 817
declared in header files, 76	sometimes required, 288
extern,60	virtual base class, 814
local to file, 60	initializer_listparameter,662
const_cast, 163, 163	not const, 262
const_iterator, container, 108, 332	order of initialization, 289
const_reference, container, 333	derived class object, 598, 623
const_reverse_iterator, container,	multiple inheritance, 804
332, 407	virtual base classes, 814
constant expression, 65, 78	overloaded, 262

size, 88 , 102, <i>132</i> , 340
size_type, 88 , 102, 132, 332
swap, 339
move operations, 529
moved-from object is valid but un-
specified, 537
nonmember swap, 339
of container, 97, 329
overview, 328
sequential, 326 , 373
type members, :: (scope operator),
333
continue statement, 191, 199
control, flow of, 11, 172, 200
conversion, 78, 159 , 168
= (assignment), 145, 159
ambiguous, 583–589
argument, 203
arithmetic, 35, 159 , 168
array to pointer, 117
argument, 214
exception object, 774
multidimensional array, 128
template argument deduction, 679
base-to-derived, not automatic, 602
bool, 35
class type, 162, 294, 305, 590
ambiguities, 587
conversion operator, 579
function matching, 584, 586
with standard conversion, 581
condition, 159
derived-to-base, 597 , 649
accessibility, 613
key concepts, 604
shared_ptr,630
floating-point, 35
function to pointer, 248
exception object, 774
template argument deduction, 679
integral promotion, 160 , 169
istream,162
multiple inheritance, 805
ambiguous, 806
narrowing, 43
operand, 159
pointer to bool, 162
rank, 245
return value, 223
Sales_data,295
signed type, 160

signed to unsigned, 34	base from derived, 603
to const, 162	derived class, 626
from pointer to nonconst, 62	HasPtr
from reference to nonconst, 61	reference counted, 515
template argument deduction, 679	valuelike, 512
unscoped enumeration to integer, 834	memberwise, 497
unsigned, 36	Message, 522
virtual base class, 812	parameter, 496
conversion operator, 580 , 580–587, 590	preventing copies, 507
design, 581	private, 509
explicit, 582 , 590	reference count, 514
bool, 583	rule of three/five, 505
function matching, 585, 586	virtual destructor exception, 622
SmallInt, 580	StrVec, 528
used implicitly, 580	synthesized, 497 , 550
with standard conversion, 580	
	deleted function, 508, 624
converting constructor, 294 , 305	derived class, 623
function matching, 585	multiple inheritance, 805
with standard conversion, 580	union with class type member, 851
_copy algorithms, 383, 414	used for copy-initialization, 498
copy, 382, 874	copy control, 267, 496 , 549
copy and swap assignment, 518	= delete,507-508
move assignment, 540	inheritance, 623–629
self-assignment, 519	memberwise, 267, 550
copy assignment, 500–501, 549	copy assignment, 500
= default,506	copy constructor, 497
= delete,507	move assignment, 538
base from derived, 603	move constructor, 538
copy and swap, 518, 549	multiple inheritance, 805
derived class, 626	synthesized, 267
HasPtr	as deleted function, 508
reference counted, 516	as deleted in derived class, 624
valuelike, 512	move operations as deleted func-
memberwise, 500	tion, 538
Message, 523	unions, 849
preventing copies, 507	virtual base class, synthesized, 815
private,509	copy initialization, 84, 131, 497, 497-499,
reference count, 514	549
rule of three/five, 505	array,337
virtual destructor exception, 622	container, 334
self-assignment, 512	container elements, 342
StrVec,528	explicit constructor, 498
synthesized, 500 , 550	invalid for arrays, 114
deleted function, 508, 624	move vs. copy, 539
derived class, 623	parameter and return value, 498
multiple inheritance, 805	uses copy constructor, 497
union with class type member, 852	uses move constructor, 541
valuelike class, 512	copy_backward,875
copy constructor, 496 , 496–499, 549	copy_if,874
= default, 506	copy_n, 874
= delete,507	copyUnion, Token, 851
/	/

count	template specializations, 708
algorithm, 378, 871	variadic templates, 702
associative container, 437, 438	derived class, 600
bitset,727	explicit instantiation, 675
count_calls,program,206	friend, 269
count_if,871	function template, 669
cout, 6 , 26	instantiation, 713
tied to cin, 315	member template, 673
cplusplus_primer, namespace, 787	template, 669
crbegin, container, 333	template specialization, 708
cref, binds reference parameter, 400, 417	type alias, 68
cregex_iterator,733,769	using, 82 , 132
crend, container, 333	access control, 615
cstddef header, 116, 120	overloaded inherited functions, 621
cstdio header, 762	variable, 45
cstdlib header, 54, 227, 778, 823	const,60
cstring	declarator, 50, 79
functions, 122–123	decltype, 70 ,79
header, 122	array return type, 230
csub match, 733, 769	cbegin, 109, 379
ctime header, 749	cend, 109, 379
curly brace, 2, 26	depends on form, 71
	for type abbreviation, 88, 106, 129
D	of array, 118
D	of function, 250
dangling else, 177, 199	pointer to function, 249
dangling pointer, 225, 463, 491	top-level const, 71
undefined behavior, 463	yields lvalue, 71, 135
data abstraction, 254, 306	decrement operators, 147–149
data hiding, 270	default argument, 236, 251
data member, see class data member	adding default arguments, 237
data structure, 19, 26	and header file, 238
deallocate, allocator, 483, 528	constructor, 290
debug_rep program	default constructor, 291
additional nontemplate versions, 698	function call, 236
general template version, 695	function matching, 243
nontemplate version, 697	initializer, 238
pointer template version, 696	static member, 304
DebugDelete, member template, 673	virtual function, 607
dec, manipulator, 754	default case label, 181, 199
decimal, literal, 38	default constructor, 263, 306
declaration, 45, 78	= default,265
class, 278, 305	= delete,507
class template, 669	default argument, 291
class type, variable, 294	Sales data,262
compound type, 57	StrVec,526
dependencies	synthesized, 263 , 306
member function as friend, 281	deleted function, 508, 624
overloaded templates, 698	derived class, 623
template friends, 665	Token, 850
template instantiation, 657	used implicitly

default initialization, 293	const,60
value initialization, 293	variable after case label, 182
default initialization, 43	vector,97
array, 336	weak_ptr,473
built-in type, 43	delegating constructor, 291 , 306
class type, 44	delete, 460 , 460–463, 491
string, 44, 84	const object, 461
uses default constructor, 293	execution flow, 820
vector,97	memory leak, 462
default template argument, 670	null pointer, 461
class template, 671	pointer, 460
compare,670	runs destructor, 502
function template, 670	delete[], dynamically allocated array,
template<>,671	478
default_random_engine,745,769	deleted function, 507, 549
defaultfloat manipulator, 757	deleter, 469 , 491
definition, 79	shared_ptr,469,480,491
array, 113	unique_ptr,472,491
associative container, 423	deprecated, 401
base class, 594	auto_ptr,471
class, 72, 256–267	binary_function,579
class template, 659	bind1st,401
member function, 661	bind2nd,401
static member, 667	generalized exception specification,
class template partial specialization,	780
711	ptr_fun,401
derived class, 596	unary_function,579
dynamically allocated object, 459	deque, 372
explicit instantiation, 675	see also container, container member
function, 577	see also sequential container
in if condition, 175	[] (subscript), 347
in while condition, 183	at,348
instantiation, 713	header, 329
member function, 256–260	initialization, 334–337
multidimensional array, 126	list initialization, 336
namespace, 785	overview, 327
can be discontiguous, 786	push_back, invalidates iterator, 354
member, 788	push_front, invalidates iterator, 354
overloaded operator, 500, 552	random-access iterator, 412
pair,426	value initialization, 336
pointer, 52	deref, StrBlobPtr, 475
pointer to function, 247	derived class, 592 , <i>649</i>
pointer to member, 836	see also virtual function
reference, 51	:: (scope operator) to access base-
sequential container, 334	class member, 607
shared_ptr,450	= (assignment), 626
static member, 302	access control, 613
string,84	as base class, 600
template specialization, 706–712	assgined or copied to base object, 603
unique_ptr,470,472	base-to-derived conversion, not au-
variable, 41, 45	tomatic, 602

constructor, 598	multiple inheritance, 805
initializer list, 598	not base-to-derived, 602
initializes direct base class, 610	shared_ptr,630
initializes virtual base, 813	design
copy assignment, 626	access control, 614
copy constructor, 626	Bulk_quote,592
declaration, 600	conversion operator, 581
default derivation specifier, 616	Disc_quote,608
definition, 596	equality and relational operators, 562
derivation list, 596 , 649	generic programs, 655
access control, 612	inheritance, 637
derived object	Message class, 520
contains base part, 597	namespace, 786
multiple inheritance, 803	overloaded operator, 554–556
derived-to-base conversion, 597	Query classes, 636–639
accessibility, 613	Quote, 592
key concepts, 604	reference count, 514
multiple inheritance, 805	StrVec,525
destructor, 627	destination sequence, 381, 413
direct base class, 600, 649	destroy, allocator, 482, 528
final,600	destructor, 452, 491, 501, 501–503, 549
friendship not inherited, 615	= default,506
indirect base class, 600, 650	called during exception handling, 773
is user of base class, 614	calls to virtual function, 627
member new and delete, 822	container elements, 502
move assignment, 626	derived class, 627
move constructor, 626	doesn't delete pointer mambers, 503
multiple inheritance, 803	explicit call to, 824
name lookup, 617	HasPtr
order of destruction, 627	reference counted, 515
multiple inheritance, 805	valuelike, 512
order of initialization, 598, 623	local variables, 502
multiple inheritance, 804	Message,522
virtual base classes, 814	not deleted function, 508
scope, 617	notprivate,509
hidden base members, 619	order of destruction, 502
inheritance, 617–621	derived class, 627
multiple inheritance, 807	multiple inheritance, 805
name lookup, 618	virtual base classes, 815
virtual function, 620	reference count, 514
static members, 599	rule of three/five, 505
synthesized	virtual destructor, exception, 622
copy control members, 623	run by delete, 502
deleted copy control members, 624	shared_ptr,453
using declaration	should not throw exception, 774
access control, 615	StrVec,528
overloaded inherited functions, 621	synthesized, 503, 550
virtual function, 596	deleted function, 508, 624
derived-to-base conversion, 597, 649	derived class, 623
accessible, 613	multiple inheritance, 805
key concepts, 604	Token, 850

valuelike class, 512	unique_ptr,479
virtual function, 622	delete runs destructor, 502
virtual in base class, 622	lifetime, 450
development environment, integrated, 3	new runs constructor, 458
difference_type, 112	object, 458–463
vector, 112	const object, 460
container, 131, 332	delete, 460
string, 112	factory program, 461
direct base class, 600	initialization, 459
direct initialization, 84, 131	make_shared,451
emplace members use, 345	new, 458
Disc_quote	shared objects, 455, 486
abstract base class, 610	shared_ptr,464
class definition, 609	unique_ptr,470
constructor, 609	
design, 608	E
discriminant, 849, 862	E
Token, 850	echo command, 4
distribution types	ECMAScript, 730, 739
bernoulli_distribution,752	regular expression library, 730
default template argument, 750	edit-compile-debug, 16, 26
normal_distribution,751	errors at link time, 657
random-number library, 745	element type constraints, container, 329,
uniform_int_distribution,746	341
uniform_real_distribution,750	elimDups program, 383-391
divides <t>,575</t>	ellipsis, parameter, 222
division rounding, 141	else, see if statement
do while statement, 189, 200	emplace
domain_error,197	associative container, 432
double,33	priority_queue,371
literal (numEnum or numenum), 38	queue, 371
output format, 755	sequential container, 345
output notation, 757	stack, 371
dynamic binding, 593, 650	emplace_back
requirements for, 603	sequential container, 345
static vs. dynamic type, 605	StrVec,704
dynamic type, 601 , <i>650</i>	emplace_front, sequential container, 345
dynamic_cast, 163, 825, 825, 862	empty
bad_cast,826	container, 87 , 102, 131, 340
to pointer, 825	priority_queue,371
to reference, 826	queue, 371
dynamically allocated, 450 , 491	stack, 371
array, 476 , 476–484	encapsulation, 254 , 306
allocator, 481	benefits of, 270
can't use begin and end, 477	end
can't use range for statement, 477	associative container, 430
delete[],478	container, 106 , 131, 333, 373
empty array, 478	function, 118, 131
new[], 477	multidimensional array, 129
returns pointer to an element, 477 shared ptr. 480	StrBlob, 475 StrVec. 526

end-of-file, 15, 26, 762	escape sequence, 39, 79
character, 15	hexadecimal (\Xnnn), 39
Endangered, 803	octal (\nnn), 39
endl, 7	eval function
manipulator, 314	AndQuery,646
ends, manipulator, 315	NotQuery, 647
engine, random-number library, 745 , 770	OrQuery, 645
default_random_engine,745	exception
max, min,747	class, 193 , 200
retain state, 747	class hierarchy, 783
seed, 748, 770	deriving from, 782
enum, unscoped enumeration, 832	Sales_data,783
enum class, scoped enumeration, 832	header, 197
enumeration, 832 , <i>863</i>	initialization, 197
as union discriminant, 850	what, 195, 782
function matching, 835	exception handling, 193–198, 772 , 817
scoped, 832, 864	see also throw
unscoped, 832, 864	see also catch
conversion to integer, 834	exception declaration, 195, 775, 816
unnamed, 832	and inheritance, 775
enumerator, 832 , 863	must be complete type, 775
constant expression, 833	exception in destructor, 773
conversion to integer, 834	exception object, 774, 817
eof,313	finding a catch, 776
eofbit,312	function try block, 778, 817
equal, 380, 872	handler, see catch
equal virtual function, 829	local variables destroyed, 773
equal_range	noexcept specification, 535, 779, 817
algorithm, 722, 873	nonthrowing function, 779, 818
associative container, 439	safe resource allocation, 467
equal_to <t>,575</t>	stack unwinding, 773 , 818
equality operators, 141	terminate function, 196, 200
arithmetic conversion, 144	try block, 194, 773
container adaptor, 370	uncaught exception, 773
container member, 340	unhandled exception, 196
iterator, 106	exception object, 774, 817
overloaded operator, 561	catch, 775
pointer, 120	conversion to pointer, 774
Sales_data,561	initializes catch parameter, 775
string,88	pointer to local object, 774
vector, 102	rethrow, 777
erase	exception safety, 196, 200
associative container, 434	smart pointers, 467
changes container size, 385	exception specification
invalidates iterator, 349	argument, 780
sequential container, 349	generalized, deprecated, 780
string,362	noexcept, 779
error, standard, 6	nonthrowing, 779
error_type,732	pointer to function, 779, 781
error_msg program, 221	throw(),780
ERRORLEVEL 4	violation 779

execution flow () (call operator), 203 delete, 820 for statement, 186 new, 820 switch statement, 180 throw, 196, 773 EXIT_FAILURE, 227 EXIT_SUCCESS, 227 expansion forward, 705 parameter pack, 702, 702-704, 714 function parameter pack, 703 pattern, 702 explicit constructor, 296, 306 copy initialization, 498 conversion to bool, 583 explicit call to destructor, 824 overloaded operators, 568 explicit instantiation, 675, 713 explicit emplate argument, 660, 713 class template, 682 function pointer, 686 exporting C++ to C, 860 expression, 7, 27, 134, 168 callable, see callable object constant, 65, 78 lambda, see lambda expression operand conversion, 159 order of evaluation, 137 parenthesized, 136 precedence and associativity, 136-137 regular, see regular expression expression statement, 172, 200 extension, compiler, 114, 131 extern and const variables, 60 explicit instantiation, 675 variable declaration, 45 extern 'C', see linkage directive fact program, 202 factoryin program new, 461 shared ptr, 453 failura, export, 640 shared ptr, 453 failura, new, 460 fille, source, 4 file extension, program, 730 version 2, 738 file marker, 192 file statics, 792, 817 file stream, see fstream fill, 380, 874 final specifier, 600 class, 600 virtual function, 607 find algorithm, 376, 871 associative container, 437, 438 string, 364 find last word program, 408 string, 365 find_first_not_of, 872 find_first_not_of, 871 find_if_not_s71 find_if_not_s71 find_if_not_s71 find_if_not_s71 find_if_not, 871 find_if_not, 872 string, 365 find_last_word program, 408 file redirection, 22 file retrevion, 24 file retrevion, 24 file retrevion, 24 file redirection, 24 file retrevion, 24 file retrevion, 24 file retrevion, 25 file ratics, 792, 817 file stream, see file ratics, 792, 8	virtual function, 781	F
execution flow () (call operator), 203 delete, 820 for statement, 186 new, 820 switch statement, 180 throw, 196, 773 EXIT_FAILURE, 227 EXIT_SUCCESS, 227 expansion forward, 705 parameter pack, 702, 702-704, 714 function parameter pack, 703 template parameter pack, 703 pattern, 702 explicit constructor, 296, 306 copy initialization, 498 conversion operator, 582, 590 conversion to bool, 583 explicit tall to destructor, 824 overloaded operator, 553 postfix operators, 568 explicit instantiation, 675, 713 explicit template argument, 660, 713 class template, 682 function template, 682 function template, 682 exporting C++ to C, 860 expression, 7, 27, 134, 168 callable, see callable object constant, 65, 78 lambda, see lambda expression operand conversion, 159 order of evaluation, 137 parenthesized, 136 precedence and associativity, 136-137 regular, see regular expression expression statement, 172, 200 extension, compiler, 114, 131 extern and const variables, 60 explicit instantiation, 675 variable declaration, 45 factorizal program, 227 factorry program new, 461 shared_ptr, 453 fail., 313 failbit, 312 failure, new, 460 ffle, source, 4 file extension, program, 730 version 2, 738 file extension, program, 730 version, 2, 78 file extension, program, 730 file stension, program, 692 film	executable file, 5, 251	fact program, 202
delete, 820 for statement, 186 new, 820 switch statement, 180 throw, 196, 773 EXIT_FAILURE, 227 EXIT_SUCCESS, 227 expansion forward, 705 parameter pack, 702, 702–704, 714 function parameter pack, 703 pattern, 702 explicit constructor, 296, 306 copy initialization, 498 conversion to bool, 583 explicit call to destructor, 824 overloaded operator, 552 overloaded operator, 568 explicit instantiation, 675, 713 explicit template argument, 660, 713 class template argument deduction, 682 function pointer, 686 template argument deduction, 682 exporting C++ to C, 860 expression, 7, 27, 134, 168 callable, see callable object constant, 65, 78 lambda, see lambda expression operand conversion, 159 order of evaluation, 137 parenthesized, 136 precedence and associativity, 136–137 regular, see regular expression expression statement, 172, 200 explicit instantiation, 675 variable declaration, 45 factory program new, 461 shared_ptr, 453 failbit, 312 failbit, 312 failure, new, 460 file, source, 4 file extension, program, 730 version 2, 738 file marker, stream, 765 file mode, 319, 324 file redirection, 22 file static, 792, 817 file stream, see fstream fill, 380, 874 fill, 380, 874 fill associative, 792, 817 file stream, see fstream fill, 380, 874 fill associative, 792, 817 file stream, 765 file mode, 319, 324 file redirection, 22 file static, 792, 817 file stream, 765 file mode, 319, 324 file redirection, 22 file static, 792, 817 file stream, 765 file mode, 319, 324 file redirection, 22 file static, 792, 817 file stream, 765 file mode, 319, 324 file redirection, 22 file static, 792, 817 file stream, 765 file mode, 319, 324 file redirection, 22 file static, 792, 817 file stream, 765 file mode, 319, 324 file redirection, 22 file static, 792, 817 file stream, 765 file mode, 319, 324 file redirection, 22 file static, 792, 817 file stream, 765 file mode, 319, 324 file redirection, 22 file static, 792, 817 file stream, 765 file mode, 319, 324 file redirection, 22 file static, 792, 817 file stream, 765 file mode, 319, 324 file redirectio	execution flow	
delete, 820 for statement, 186 new, 820 switch statement, 180 throw, 196, 773 EXIT_FAILURE, 227 EXIT_SUCCESS, 227 expansion forward, 705 parameter pack, 702, 702-704, 714 function parameter pack, 703 pattem, 702 explicit constructor, 296, 306 copy initialization, 498 conversion to bool, 583 explicit call to destructor, 824 overloaded operator, 552, 590 conversion to bool, 583 explicit template argument, 660, 713 class template, 660 forward, 694 function template, 682 function pointer, 686 template argument deduction, 682 exporting C++ to C, 860 expression, 7, 27, 134, 168 callable, see callable object constant, 65, 78 lambda, see lambda expression operand conversion, 159 order of evaluation, 137 parenthesized, 136 precedence and associativity, 136-137 regular, see regular expression expression statement, 172, 200 explicit instantiation, 675 variable declaration, 45 new, 461 shared_ptr, 453 fail.bit, 312 failbit, 312 failbit, 312 failbit, 312 fallure, new, 460 file, source, 4 file extension, program, 730 version 2, 738 file marker, stream, 765 file mode, 319, 324 file redirection, 22 file static, 792, 817 file stream, see fist ream fill, 380, 874 fill, 38, 874 fill ast pecifier, 600 class, 600 virtual function, 607 find algorithm, 376, 871 associative container, 437, 438 string, 366 find_last word program, 211 find_first_of, 872 find_first_of, 872 find_first_of, 872 find_first_of, 872 find_lif_inot_of, 871 find_last_not_of, string, 366 find_last_of,	() (call operator), 203	
for statement, 186 new, 820 switch statement, 180 throw, 196, 773 EXIT_FAILURE, 227 expansion forward, 705 parameter pack, 703 template parameter pack, 703 pattern, 702 explicit constructor, 296, 306 copy initialization, 498 conversion to bool, 583 explicit tall to destructor, 824 overloaded operator, 553 postfix operators, 568 explicit instantiation, 675, 713 class template argument, 660, 713 class template, 660 forward, 694 function pointer, 686 template argument deduction, 682 exporting C++ to C, 860 expression, 7, 27, 134, 168 callable, see callable object constant, 65, 78 lambda, see lambda expression operand conversion, 159 order of evaluation, 137 parenthesized, 136 precedence and associativity, 136–137 regular, see regular expression expression statement, 172, 200 extension, compiler, 114, 131 extern and const variables, 60 explicit instantiation, 675 variable declaration, 45 shared_ptr, 453 fail. 313 failbit, 312 failure, new, 460 file, source, 4 file redrection, program, 730 version 2, 738 file extension, program, 730 version 2, 738 file atnsion, prog	delete,820	
new, 820 switch statement, 180 throw, 196, 773 EXIT_FAILURE, 227 EXIT_SUCCESS, 227 expansion forward, 705 parameter pack, 702, 702–704, 714 function parameter pack, 703 postitic constructor, 824 overloaded operator, 553 postfix operators, 568 explicit instantiation, 675, 713 explicit template argument, 660, 713 class template, 660 forward, 694 function pointer, 686 template argument deduction, 682 exporting C++ to C, 860 expression, 7, 27, 134, 168 callable, see callable object constant, 65, 78 lambda, see lambda expression operand conversion, 159 order of evaluation, 137 parenthesized, 136 precedence and associativity, 136–137 regular, see regular expression expression const attement, 172, 200 explicit instantiation, 675 variable declaration, 45 failbit, 312 failure, new, 460 file, source, 4 file extension, program, 730 version 2, 738 file marker, stream, 765 file mode, 319, 324 file redirection, 22 file static, 792, 817 file stream, see fstream fill, 380, 874 fin12, 381, 874 fin12, aspocifier, 600 class, 600 virtual function, 607 find algorithm, 376, 871 associative container, 437, 438 string, 364 find_last word program, 408 find_char program, 211 find_first_of, 872 string, 365 find_first_of, 872 string, 365 find_first_of, 872 find_int_not_of, string, 366 find_last_not_of, string, 366 find_last_not_of	for statement, 186	
switch statement, 180 throw, 196, 773 EXIT_FAILURE, 227 EXIT_SUCCESS, 227 expansion forward, 705 parameter pack, 702, 702-704, 714 function parameter pack, 703 pattern, 702 explicit constructor, 296, 306 copy initialization, 498 conversion operator, 582, 590 conversion to bool, 583 explicit template argument, 660, 713 class template, 660 forward, 694 function template, 682 exporting C++ to C, 860 expression, 7, 27, 134, 168 callable, see callable object constant, 65, 78 lambda, see lambda expression operand conversion, 159 order of evaluation, 137 parenthesized, 136 precedence and associativity, 136–137 regular, see regular expression expression statement, 172, 200 explicit instantiation, 675 variable declaration, 45 EXIT_FAILURE, 227 failure, new, 460 fille, source, 4 fille extension, program, 730 version 2, 738 file marker, stream, 765 file mode, 319, 324 file redirection, 22 file static, 792, 817 file static, on, 24 file redirection, 2 file static, 792, 817 file static, 792, 817 file static, 7	new, 820	_
EXIT_FALLURE, 227 EXIT_SUCCESS, 227 expansion forward, 705 parameter pack, 702, 702–704, 714 function parameter pack, 703 pattern, 702 explicit constructor, 296, 306 copy initialization, 498 conversion operator, 582, 590 conversion to bool, 583 explicit teall to destructor, 824 overloaded operator, 553 postfix operators, 568 explicit instantiation, 675, 713 explicit template argument, 660, 713 class template, 660 forward, 694 function template, 682 function pointer, 686 template argument deduction, 682 exporting C++ to C, 860 expression, 7, 27, 134, 168 callable, see callable object constant, 65, 78 lambda, see lambda expression operand conversion, 159 order of evaluation, 137 parenthesized, 136 precedence and associativity, 136–137 regular, see regular expression expression statement, 172, 200 extension, compiler, 114, 131 extern and const variables, 60 explicit instantiation, 675 variable declaration, 45 faillure, new, 460 file, source, 4 file extension, program, 730 version 2, 738 file marker, stream, 765 file mode, 319, 324 file redirection, 22 file static, 792, 817 file stream, see fstream fill, 380, 874 fill, 381, 874 final specifier, 600 class, 600 virtual function, 607 find algorithm, 376, 871 associative container, 437, 438 string, 364 find last word program, 408 find_char program, 211 find_first_of, 872 string, 365 find_first_of, 872 string, 365 find_if_inst_of, 872 string, 365 find_if_inst_of, 871 find_last_not_of, string, 366 findBook, program, 721 fixed manipulator, 757 filp bitset, 727 program, 694 flipl, program, 694 flipl, program, 693 floating-point, 32 conversion 2, 738 file extension, prospam, 730 version 2, 738 file marker, stream, 765 file mode, 319, 324 file extension, prospam, 720 file extension, peach, 703 file marker, stream, 765 file mode, 319, 324 file redirection, 22 file static, 792, 817 file stream, see fstream fill, 380, 874 fill, 38, 874 final specifier, 600 class, 600 virtual function, 607 find algorithm, 376, 871 find_first_not_of, 871 find_last_word program, 408 find_last wor	switch statement, 180	
EXIT_FAILURE, 227 EXIT_SUCCESS, 227 expansion forward, 705 parameter pack, 702, 702–704, 714 function parameter pack, 703 template parameter pack, 703 pattern, 702 explicit constructor, 296, 306 copy initialization, 498 conversion to bool, 583 explicit call to destructor, 824 overloaded operator, 553 postfix operators, 568 explicit instantiation, 675, 713 explicit template argument, 660, 713 class template, 660 forward, 694 function template, 682 function pointer, 686 template argument deduction, 682 exporting C++ to C, 860 expression, 7, 27, 134, 168 callable, see callable object constant, 65, 78 lambda, see lambda expression operand conversion, 159 order of evaluation, 137 parenthesized, 136 precedence and associativity, 136–137 regular, see regular expression expression statement, 172, 200 explicit instantiation, 675 variable declaration, 45 fille, source, 4 fille extension, program, 730 version 2, 738 file marker, stream, 765 file mode, 319, 324 file redirection, 22 file static, 792, 817 file stream, see fistream fill, 380, 874 final specifier, 600 class, 600 virtual function, 607 find algorithm, 376, 871 associative container, 437, 438 string, 364 find last word program, 408 find_char program, 408 find_first_of, 872 find_first_of, 872 string, 365 find_first_of, 872 find_if_not_of, string, 366 find_last_of_, string, 3		
EXIT_SUCCESS, 227 expansion forward, 705 parameter pack, 702, 702, 704, 714 function parameter pack, 703 template parameter pack, 703 pattern, 702 explicit constructor, 296, 306 copy initialization, 498 conversion operator, 582, 590 conversion to bool, 583 explicit call to destructor, 824 overloaded operator, 553 postfix operators, 568 explicit instantiation, 675, 713 explicit template argument, 660, 713 class template, 660 forward, 694 function template, 682 function pointer, 686 template argument deduction, 682 exporting C++ to C, 860 expression, 7, 27, 134, 168 callable, see callable object constant, 65, 78 lambda, see lambda expression operand conversion, 159 order of evaluation, 137 parenthesized, 136 precedence and associativity, 136–137 regular, see regular expression expression, compiler, 114, 131 extern and const variables, 60 explicit instantiation, 675 variable declaration, 45 file extension, program, 730 version 2, 738 file marker, stream, 765 file mode, 319, 324 file redirection, 22 file static, 792, 817 file stream, 765 file mode, 319, 324 file redirection, 22 file static, 792, 817 file stream, 765 file mode, 319, 324 file redirection, 22 file static, 792, 817 file stream, 765 file mode, 319, 324 file redirection, 22 file static, 792, 817 file stream, 765 file mode, 319, 324 file redirection, 22 file static, 792, 817 file stream, 765 file mode, 319, 324 file redirection, 22 file static, 792, 817 file stream, 765 file mode, 319, 324 file redirection, 22 file static, 792, 817 file stream, 765 file mode, 319, 324 file redirection, 22 file static, 792, 817 file stream, 765 file mode, 319, 324 file redirection, 22 file static, 792, 817 file stream, 765 file mode, 319, 324 file redirection, 22 file static, 792, 817 file stream, 765 file mode, 319, 324 file redirection, 22 file static, 792, 817 file stream, 765 file mode, 319, 324 file redirection, 22 file static, 792, 817 file stream, 765 file static, 792, 817 file stream, 765 file static, 792, 817 file stream, 765 file static, 792, 817 file stream, 76		
expansion forward, 705 parameter pack, 702, 702–704, 714 function parameter pack, 703 template parameter pack, 703 pattern, 702 explicit constructor, 296, 306 copy initialization, 498 conversion operator, 582, 590 conversion to bool, 583 explicit call to destructor, 824 overloaded operator, 553 postfix operators, 568 explicit instantiation, 675, 713 class template argument, 660, 713 class template argument deduction, 682 function template, 680 exporting C++ to C, 860 expression, 7, 27, 134, 168 callable, see callable object constant, 65, 78 lambda, see lambda expression operand conversion, 159 order of evaluation, 137 parenthesized, 136 precedence and associativity, 136–137 regular, see regular expression expression statement, 172, 200 explicit instantiation, 675 variable declaration, 45 file marker, stream, 765 file macke, 319, 324 file redirection, 22 file static, 792, 817 file stream, see fstream fill, 380, 874 fill, 380, 874 fillal, see, fill, 380, 874 fillal, see, fill, 380, 874 fillal sterion, 22 file static, 792, 817 file stream, see fstream fill, 380, 874 fillal, see, fill, 380, 874 fillal, specifier, 600 class, 600 virtual function, 607 find algorithm, 376, 871 associative container, 437, 438 string, 364 find last word program, 211 find_first_of, 872 find_first_of, 872 string, 365 find_first_of, 872 string, 365 find_if_inot_of, 871 find_if_not_of, 871 find_if_not_of, 871 find_if_not_of, 871 find_if_not_of, 871 find_if_not_of, 871 find_if_not_of, 871 find_last_not_of, string, 366 findBook, program, 721 file steain, 292, 817 file static, 792, 817 file tredirection, 22 file static, 792, 817 file steam, 294 filind_is	_	
forward, 705 parameter pack, 702, 702, 704, 714 function parameter pack, 703 template parameter pack, 703 pattern, 702 explicit constructor, 296, 306 copy initialization, 498 conversion operator, 582, 590 conversion to bool, 583 explicit call to destructor, 824 overloaded operator, 553 postfix operators, 568 explicit instantiation, 675, 713 class template argument, 660, 713 class template argument deduction, 682 function pointer, 686 template argument deduction, 682 exporting C++ to C, 860 expression, 7, 27, 134, 168 callable, see callable object constant, 65, 78 lambda, see lambda expression operand conversion, 159 order of evaluation, 137 parenthesized, 136 precedence and associativity, 136–137 regular, see regular expression expression statement, 172, 200 extension, compiler, 114, 131 extern and const variables, 60 explicit instantiation, 675 variable declaration, 45 file marker, stream, 765 file mode, 319, 324 file redirection, 22 file static, 792, 817 file stream, see fstream fill, 380, 874 final specifier, 600 class, 600 virtual function, 607 find algorithm, 376, 871 associative container, 437, 438 string, 364 find last word program, 408 find_char program, 211 find_first_of, 872 find_first_of, 872 string, 365 find_if_ist_not_of, 871 find_if_not_of, 871 find_if_not_of, 871 find_if_not_of, 871 find_if_not_of, 871 find_if_not_of, 871 find_if_not_of, 871 find_ist_not_of, string, 366 find_Book, program, 721 fixed manipulator, 757 program, 693 flipt, program, 693 float, 33 literal (numF or numf), 41 floating-point, 32 conversion, 35 literal, 38	_	
parameter pack, 702, 702–704, 714 function parameter pack, 703 template parameter pack, 703 pattern, 702 explicit constructor, 296, 306 copy initialization, 498 conversion operator, 582, 590 conversion to bool, 583 explicit call to destructor, 824 overloaded operators, 568 explicit instantiation, 675, 713 explicit template argument, 660, 713 class template, 680 forward, 694 function template, 682 function pointer, 686 template argument deduction, 682 exporting C++ to C, 860 expression, 7, 27, 134, 168 callable, see callable object constant, 65, 78 lambda, see lambda expression operand conversion, 159 order of evaluation, 137 parenthesized, 136 precedence and associativity, 136–137 regular, see regular expression expression statement, 172, 200 extension, compiler, 114, 131 extern and const variables, 60 explicit instantiation, 675 variable declaration, 45 file redirection, 22 file static, 792, 817 file static, 792, 817 file redirection, 22 file redirection, 22 file redirection, 22 file redirection, 22 file static, 792, 817 file redirection, 22 file redirection, 22 file redirection, 22 file static, 792, 817 file redirection, 22 file static, 792, 817 file redirection, 22 file rediretion, 22 file rediretion 22 file rediretion 22 file rediretion 22 file real set coor. find alsot vor pogram, 408 find last word program,	÷	
function parameter pack, 703 template parameter pack, 703 pattern, 702 explicit constructor, 296, 306 copy initialization, 498 conversion operator, 582, 590 conversion to bool, 583 explicit call to destructor, 824 overloaded operator, 553 postfix operators, 568 explicit instantiation, 675, 713 explicit template argument, 660, 713 class template, 660 forward, 694 function template, 682 function pointer, 686 template argument deduction, 682 expression, 7, 27, 134, 168 callable, see callable object constant, 65, 78 lambda, see lambda expression operand conversion, 159 order of evaluation, 137 parenthesized, 136 precedence and associativity, 136–137 regular, see regular expression expression statement, 172, 200 extension, compiler, 114, 131 extern and const variables, 60 explicit instantiation, 675 variable declaration, 45 fille redirection, 22 file static, 792, 817 file stream, see fstream fill, 380, 874 final specifier, 600 class, 600 virtual function, 607 find algorithm, 376, 871 associative container, 437, 438 string, 364 find_last word program, 408 find_char program, 211 find_first_of, 872 find_first_of, 872 string, 365 find_first_of, 872 string, 365 find_last_not_of, 871 find_last_not_of, 872 find_last_not_of, 872 string, 366 find_last_not_of, 872 find_last_not_of, 872 find_last_not_of, 872 find_lir_not, 607 find algorithm, 376, 871 associative container, 437, 438 string, 365 find_first_of, 872 find_first_of, 872 find_first_of, 872 find_first_of, 872 find_istream,see fstream fill, 380, 874 final specifier, 600 class, 600 virtual function, 607 find algorithm, 376, 871 associative container, 437, 438 string, 366 find_first_of, 872 find_first_of, 872 find_first_of, 872 find_first_of, 872 find_istream,cee fill_1, 388, 397, 414, 871 find_last_not_of, 871 find_last_not_of, 871 find_last_not_of, 871		
template parameter pack, 703 pattern, 702 explicit constructor, 296, 306 copy initialization, 498 conversion operator, 582, 590 conversion to bool, 583 explicit call to destructor, 824 overloaded operator, 553 postfix operators, 568 explicit imstantiation, 675, 713 explicit template argument, 660, 713 class template, 660 forward, 694 function template, 682 function pointer, 686 template argument deduction, 682 exporting C++ to C, 860 expression, 7, 27, 134, 168 callable, see callable object constant, 65, 78 lambda, see lambda expression operand conversion, 159 order of evaluation, 137 parenthesized, 136 precedence and associativity, 136–137 regular, see regular expression expression statement, 172, 200 extension, compiler, 114, 131 extern and const variables, 60 explicit instantiation, 675 variable declaration, 45 fille straam, see fstream fill, 380, 874 fillal, 380, 874 final specifier, 600 class, 600 virtual function, 607 find algorithm, 376, 871 associative container, 437, 438 string, 364 find last word program, 408 find_char program, 211 find_first_of, 872 find_first_not_of, 872 string, 365 find_if, 388, 397, 414, 871 find_if_not_of, 871 find_last_not_of, 871 find_last_not_of, string, 366 find_last_not_of, string, 366 find_last_not_of, string, 366 find_last_not_of, string, 366 find_lost, program, 691 fixed manipulator, 757 flip bitset, 727 program, 692 flip2, program, 693 float, 33 literal (numF or numf), 41 floating-point, 32 conversion, 35 literal, 38	* *	
pattern, 702 explicit constructor, 296, 306 copy initialization, 498 conversion operator, 582, 590 conversion to bool, 583 explicit call to destructor, 824 overloaded operator, 553 postfix operators, 568 explicit instantiation, 675, 713 explicit template argument, 660, 713 class template, 660 forward, 694 function template, 682 function pointer, 686 template argument deduction, 682 exporting C++ to C, 860 expression, 7, 27, 134, 168 callable, see callable object constant, 65, 78 lambda, see lambda expression operand conversion, 159 order of evaluation, 137 parenthesized, 136 precedence and associativity, 136–137 regular, see regular expression expression statement, 172, 200 extension, compiler, 114, 131 extern and const variables, 60 explicit instantiation, 675 variable declaration, 45 finel astream, see fstream fill, 380, 874 final specifier, 600 class, 600 virtual function, 607 find algorithm, 376, 871 associative container, 437, 438 string, 364 find last word program, 408 find_char program, 211 find_first_of, 872 find_first_not_of, string, 365 find_last_not_of, string, 365 find_last_not_of, string, 366 find_last_of, string, 366 find_last_not_of, string, 366 find_last_of, string, 367 find_lift_not_of, 871 find_first_of, 872 string, 365 find_last_of, string, 365 find_last_of, string, 365 find_last_of, string, 366 find_last_of, string, 366 find_last_of, string, 366 find_last_of, string, 365 find_last_of, string, 366 find_la		
explicit constructor, 296, 306 copy initialization, 498 conversion operator, 582, 590 conversion to bool, 583 explicit call to destructor, 824 overloaded operator, 553 postfix operators, 568 explicit instantiation, 675, 713 explicit template argument, 660, 713 class template, 660 forward, 694 function template, 682 function pointer, 686 template argument deduction, 682 exporting C++ to C, 860 expression, 7, 27, 134, 168 callable, see callable object constant, 65, 78 lambda, see lambda expression operand conversion, 159 order of evaluation, 137 parenthesized, 136 precedence and associativity, 136–137 regular, see regular expression expression statement, 172, 200 extension, compiler, 114, 131 extern and const variables, 60 explicit instantiation, 675 variable declaration, 45 fin11, 381, 874 final specifier, 600 class, 600 virtual function, 607 find algorithm, 376, 871 associative container, 437, 438 string, 364 find last word program, 408 find_char program, 211 find_first_of, 872 string, 365 find_first_of, 872 string, 365 find_if_inot_of, 872 string, 365 find_if_not_of, 871 find_if_not_of, 872 string, 365 find_if_irst_of, 872 find_if_irst_of, 872 find_if_irst_of, 872 string, 365 find_if_irst_of_irst_o		
constructor, 296, 306 copy initialization, 498 conversion operator, 582, 590 conversion to bool, 583 explicit call to destructor, 824 overloaded operator, 553 postfix operators, 568 explicit instantiation, 675, 713 explicit template argument, 660, 713 class template, 660 forward, 694 function template, 682 function pointer, 686 template argument deduction, 682 exporting C++ to C, 860 expression, 7, 27, 134, 168 callable, see callable object constant, 65, 78 lambda, see lambda expression operand conversion, 159 order of evaluation, 137 parenthesized, 136 precedence and associativity, 136–137 regular, see regular expression expression statement, 172, 200 extension, compiler, 114, 131 extern and const variables, 60 explicit instantiation, 675 variable declaration, 45 final specifier, 600 class, 600 virtual function, 607 find algorithm, 376, 871 associative container, 437, 438 string, 364 find last word program, 408 find_char program, 211 find_first_of, 872 find_first_of, 872 string, 365 find_if_inot_of, 872 string, 365 find_if_inot_of, 871 find_if_not_of, 871 find_if_not_of, 871 find_if_not_of, 871 find_if_inot_of, 872 string, 365 find_if_inot_of, 872 string, 365 find_if_inot_of, 871 find_if_inot_of, 872 string, 365 find_if_inot_of, 871 find_if_inot_of, 872 string, 365 find_if_inot_of, 871 find_if_inot_of, 872 string, 365 find_if_inot_of, 871 find_if_inot_of, 872 string, 365 find_if_inot_of, 871 find_if_inot_of, 871 string, 366 find_last_word program, 408 find_last_word program, 408 find_last_word	-	
copy initialization, 498 conversion operator, 582, 590 conversion to bool, 583 explicit call to destructor, 824 overloaded operator, 553 postfix operators, 568 explicit instantiation, 675, 713 explicit template argument, 660, 713 class template, 660 find_first_of, 872 forward, 694 function template, 682 function pointer, 686 template argument deduction, 682 expression, 7, 27, 134, 168 callable, see callable object constant, 65, 78 lambda, see lambda expression operand conversion, 159 order of evaluation, 137 parenthesized, 136 precedence and associativity, 136–137 regular, see regular expression expression statement, 172, 200 extension, compiler, 114, 131 extern and const variables, 60 explicit instantiation, 675 variable declaration, 45 final specifier, 600 class, 600 virtual function, 607 find algorithm, 376, 871 associative container, 437, 438 string, 364 find last word program, 408 find_char program, 211 find_first_of, 872 find_first_of, 872 find_first_of, 872 find_first_of, 872 find_if_inot_of, 871 find_if_not_of, 871 find_last_not_of, string, 366 find_lif_inot_of, 871 find_if_rot_of, 871 find_if_rot_of, 871 find_if_rot_of, 871 find_if_rot_of, 871 find_lif_not_of, 871 find_lif_not_of, 871 find_lif_not_of, 871 find_lif_not_of, 871 find_last_not_of, 871 find_last_not_of, 871 find_last_not_of, 871 find_lif_not_of, 871 find_lif_not_of, 871 find_lif_not_of, 871		
conversion operator, 582 , 590 conversion to boo1, 583 explicit call to destructor, 824 overloaded operator, 553 postfix operators, 568 explicit instantiation, 675, 713 explicit template argument, 660 , 713 class template, 660 find algorithm, 376, 871 associative container, 437, 438 string, 364 find last word program, 408 find_char program, 211 find_first_of, 872 find_f		
explicit call to destructor, 824 overloaded operator, 553 postfix operators, 568 explicit instantiation, 675, 713 explicit template argument, 660, 713 class template, 660 forward, 694 function template, 682 function pointer, 686 template argument deduction, 682 exporting C++ to C, 860 expression, 7, 27, 134, 168 callable, see callable object constant, 65, 78 lambda, see lambda expression operand conversion, 159 order of evaluation, 137 parenthesized, 136 precedence and associativity, 136–137 regular, see regular expression expression statement, 172, 200 extension, compiler, 114, 131 extern and const variables, 60 explicit instantiation, 675 variable declaration, 45 virtual function, 607 find algorithm, 376, 871 associative container, 437, 438 string, 364 find last word program, 408 find_char program, 211 find_first_of, 872 find_first_of, 872 find_first_of, 872 string, 365 find_if_inot_of, 871 find_if_not_of, 871 find_if_not_of, 871 find_last_not_of, 871 find_last_not_of, string, 366 find_last_of, string, 366 find_last_of, string, 366 find_losting-point, 92 pitzed manipulator, 757 flip bitset, 727 program, 692 flip2, program, 693 flioating-point, 32 conversion, 35 literal (numF or numf), 41 floating-point, 32 conversion, 35 literal, 38	1 7	-
explicit call to destructor, 824 overloaded operator, 553 postfix operators, 568 explicit instantiation, 675, 713 explicit template argument, 660, 713 class template, 660 find_first_of, 872 forward, 694 function template, 682 function pointer, 686 template argument deduction, 682 expring C++ to C, 860 expression, 7, 27, 134, 168 callable, see callable object constant, 65, 78 lambda, see lambda expression operand conversion, 159 order of evaluation, 137 parenthesized, 136 precedence and associativity, 136–137 regular, see regular expression expression statement, 172, 200 extension, compiler, 114, 131 extern and const variables, 60 explicit instantiation, 675 variable declaration, 45 find algorithm, 376, 871 associative container, 437, 438 string, 364 find last word program, 408 find_char program, 211 find_first_of, 872 string, 365 find_first_of, 872 string, 365 find_if, 388, 397, 414, 871 find_if_not, 871 find_if_not, 871 find_last_not_of, 871 find_last_not_of, string, 366 find_last_of, string, 366 find_Book, program, 721 fixed manipulator, 757 flip bitset, 727 program, 694 flip1, program, 692 flip2, program, 693 floating-point, 32 conversion, 35 literal (numF or numf), 41 floating-point, 32 conversion, 35 literal, 38	-	•
destructor, 824 overloaded operator, 553 postfix operators, 568 explicit instantiation, 675, 713 explicit template argument, 660, 713 class template, 660 forward, 694 function template, 682 function pointer, 686 template argument deduction, 682 exporting C++ to C, 860 expression, 7, 27, 134, 168 callable, see callable object constant, 65, 78 lambda, see lambda expression operand conversion, 159 order of evaluation, 137 parenthesized, 136 precedence and associativity, 136–137 regular, see regular expression expression statement, 172, 200 extension, compiler, 114, 131 extern and const variables, 60 explicit instantiation, 675 variable declaration, 45 algorithm, 376, 871 associative container, 437, 438 string, 364 find last word program, 408 find_char program, 211 find_first_of, 872		
overloaded operator, 553 postfix operators, 568 explicit instantiation, 675, 713 explicit template argument, 660, 713 class template, 660 forward, 694 function template, 682 function pointer, 686 template argument deduction, 682 expression, 7, 27, 134, 168 callable, see callable object constant, 65, 78 lambda, see lambda expression operand conversion, 159 order of evaluation, 137 parenthesized, 136 precedence and associativity, 136–137 regular, see regular expression expression, compiler, 114, 131 extern and const variables, 60 explicit instantiation, 675 variable declaration, 45 associative container, 437, 438 string, 364 find last word program, 408 find_char program, 211 find_first_of, 872 find_first_of, 872 find_first_of, 872 string, 365 find_if_rot, 871 find_last_not_of, 871 find_last_not_of, string, 366 find_last_not_of, string, 366 find_Book, program, 721 fixed manipulator, 757 flip program, 694 flip1, program, 694 flip2, program, 693 floating-point, 32 conversion, 35 literal, 38	<u>-</u>	
postfix operators, 568 explicit instantiation, 675, 713 explicit template argument, 660, 713 class template, 660 forward, 694 function template, 682 function pointer, 686 template argument deduction, 682 exporting C++ to C, 860 expression, 7, 27, 134, 168 callable, see callable object constant, 65, 78 lambda, see lambda expression operand conversion, 159 order of evaluation, 137 parenthesized, 136 precedence and associativity, 136–137 regular, see regular expression expression statement, 172, 200 extension, compiler, 114, 131 extern and const variables, 60 explicit instantiation, 675 variable declaration, 45 string, 364 find last word program, 408 find_char program, 211 find_first_of, 872 find_first_of, 872 find_first_of, 872 string, 365 find_if, 388, 397, 414, 871 find_if_not_of, 872 string, 365 find_last word program, 408 find_char program, 211 find_first_of, 872 string, 365 find_if_isst_of, 872 string_isst_of, 8		~
explicit instantiation, 675, 713 explicit template argument, 660, 713 class template, 660 forward, 694 function template, 682 function pointer, 686 template argument deduction, 682 exporting C++ to C, 860 expression, 7, 27, 134, 168 callable, see callable object constant, 65, 78 lambda, see lambda expression operand conversion, 159 order of evaluation, 137 parenthesized, 136 precedence and associativity, 136–137 regular, see regular expression expression, compiler, 114, 131 extern and const variables, 60 explicit instantiation, 675 variable declaration, 45 find last word program, 408 find _char program, 211 find _first_of, 872 string, 365 find _ifsee, 87 find _if_rst_of, 872 find _first_of, 872 string, 365 find _ifsee, 87 find _first_of, 872 find _first_of, 872 string, 365 find _first_of, 872 string, 365 find _ifsee, 87 string, 365 find _ifsee, 87 find _first_of, 872 string, 365 find _ifsee, 87 find _first_of, 872 string, 365 find _ifsee, 87 find _first_of, 872 string, 365 find _ifsee, 87 string, 365 find _ifsee, 97 string, 365 findifsee, 97 string,		
explicit template argument, 660, 713 class template, 660 forward, 694 function template, 682 function pointer, 686 template argument deduction, 682 exporting C++ to C, 860 expression, 7, 27, 134, 168 callable, see callable object constant, 65, 78 lambda, see lambda expression operand conversion, 159 order of evaluation, 137 parenthesized, 136 precedence and associativity, 136–137 regular, see regular expression expression, compiler, 114, 131 extern and const variables, 60 explicit instantiation, 675 variable declaration, 45 find_first_of, 872 string, 365 find_if_if_not_of, 871 find_if_not_of, 871 find_if_not_of, 871 find_last_not_of, 871 find_lif_not_of, 872 find_first_not_of, 872 string, 365 find_if_irst_not_of, 872 find_first_not_of, 872 string, 365 find_if_irst_not_of, 872 string, 365 find_if_irst_not_of, 872 string, 365 find_if_rst_not_of, 872 string, 365 find_if_rst_of, 872 string, 365 find_if_rst_not_of, 871 find_if_rst_of, 872 string, 365 find_jert_of, 872 string, 365 find_if_rst_of, 872 string_of, 87 find_if_rst_of, 872 string_of, 87 find_if_rst_of, 87 find_if_rs		<u> </u>
class template, 660 forward, 694 function template, 682 function pointer, 686 template argument deduction, 682 exporting C++ to C, 860 expression, 7, 27, 134, 168 constant, 65, 78 lambda, see lambda expression operand conversion, 159 order of evaluation, 137 parenthesized, 136 precedence and associativity, 136–137 regular, see regular expression expression, compiler, 114, 131 extern and const variables, 60 explicit instantiation, 675 variable declaration, 45 find_first_of, 872 find_		
forward, 694 function template, 682 function pointer, 686 template argument deduction, 682 exporting C++ to C, 860 expression, 7, 27, 134, 168 callable, see callable object constant, 65, 78 lambda, see lambda expression operand conversion, 159 order of evaluation, 137 parenthesized, 136 precedence and associativity, 136–137 regular, see regular expression expression statement, 172, 200 extension, compiler, 114, 131 extern and const variables, 60 explicit instantiation, 675 variable declaration, 45 find_first_not_of, string, 365 find_if, 388, 397, 414, 871 find_if_not, 871 find_if_not, 871 find_if_not, 871 find_if_not_of, 871 find_if_not_		
function template, 682 function pointer, 686 template argument deduction, 682 exporting C++ to C, 860 expression, 7, 27, 134, 168 callable, see callable object constant, 65, 78 lambda, see lambda expression operand conversion, 159 order of evaluation, 137 parenthesized, 136 precedence and associativity, 136–137 regular, see regular expression expression, compiler, 114, 131 extern and const variables, 60 explicit instantiation, 675 variable declaration, 45 find_if_not, 871 find		
function pointer, 686 template argument deduction, 682 exporting C++ to C, 860 expression, 7, 27, 134, 168 callable, see callable object constant, 65, 78 lambda, see lambda expression operand conversion, 159 order of evaluation, 137 parenthesized, 136 precedence and associativity, 136–137 regular, see regular expression expression statement, 172, 200 extension, compiler, 114, 131 extern and const variables, 60 explicit instantiation, 675 variable declaration, 45 find_if_not, 871 find_lex_not_of, 871		
template argument deduction, 682 exporting C++ to C, 860 expression, 7, 27, 134, 168 callable, see callable object constant, 65, 78 lambda, see lambda expression operand conversion, 159 order of evaluation, 137 parenthesized, 136 precedence and associativity, 136–137 regular, see regular expression expression statement, 172, 200 expression, compiler, 114, 131 extern and const variables, 60 explicit instantiation, 675 variable declaration, 45 find_if_not, 871 f		
exporting C++ to C, 860 expression, 7, 27, 134, 168 callable, see callable object constant, 65, 78 lambda, see lambda expression operand conversion, 159 order of evaluation, 137 parenthesized, 136 precedence and associativity, 136–137 regular, see regular expression expression statement, 172, 200 expression, compiler, 114, 131 extern and const variables, 60 explicit instantiation, 675 variable declaration, 45 find_if_not, 871 find_left, 971 find_last_not_of, 871 find_last_not_of, 876 find_last_not_of, 876 find_last_not_of, 876 find_last_not_of, 871 find_last_not_of, 876 find_l	*	
expression, 7, 27, 134, 168 callable, see callable object constant, 65, 78 lambda, see lambda expression operand conversion, 159 order of evaluation, 137 parenthesized, 136 precedence and associativity, 136–137 regular, see regular expression expression statement, 172, 200 extension, compiler, 114, 131 extern and const variables, 60 explicit instantiation, 675 variable declaration, 45 find_last_not_of, 871 fixed manipulator, 757 flip program, 694 flip1, program, 692 flip2, program, 693 float, 33 float, 33 floating-point, 32 conversion, 35 literal, 38		
callable, see callable object constant, 65, 78 lambda, see lambda expression operand conversion, 159 order of evaluation, 137 parenthesized, 136 precedence and associativity, 136–137 regular, see regular expression expression statement, 172, 200 expression, compiler, 114, 131 extern and const variables, 60 explicit instantiation, 675 variable declaration, 45 find_last_not_of, string, 366 find_last_of, st		
constant, 65, 78 lambda, see lambda expression operand conversion, 159 order of evaluation, 137 parenthesized, 136 precedence and associativity, 136–137 regular, see regular expression expression statement, 172, 200 expression, compiler, 114, 131 extern and const variables, 60 explicit instantiation, 675 variable declaration, 45 find_last_of, string, 366 findBook, program, 721 fixed manipulator, 757 flip pitset, 727 program, 694 flip1, program, 692 flip2, program, 693 float, 33 float, 33 conversion, 33 literal (numF or numf), 41 floating-point, 32 conversion, 35 literal, 38	=	
lambda, see lambda expression operand conversion, 159 order of evaluation, 137 parenthesized, 136 precedence and associativity, 136–137 regular, see regular expression expression statement, 172, 200 extension, compiler, 114, 131 extern and const variables, 60 explicit instantiation, 675 variable declaration, 45 findBook, program, 721 fixed manipulator, 757 program, 694 pitset, 727 program, 694 flip1, program, 692 flip2, program, 693 float, 33 float, 33 conversion, 35 conversion, 35 literal, 38		
operand conversion, 159 order of evaluation, 137 parenthesized, 136 precedence and associativity, 136–137 regular, see regular expression expression statement, 172, 200 extension, compiler, 114, 131 extern and const variables, 60 explicit instantiation, 675 variable declaration, 45 flipe bitset, 727 program, 694 flip1, program, 692 flip2, program, 693 float, 33 float, 33 floating-point, 32 conversion, 35 literal, 38		
order of evaluation, 137 parenthesized, 136 precedence and associativity, 136–137 regular, see regular expression extension, compiler, 114, 131 extern and const variables, 60 explicit instantiation, 675 variable declaration, 45 flip bitset, 727 program, 694 flip1, program, 692 flip2, program, 693 float, 33 float, 33 floating-point, 32 conversion, 35 literal, 38		
parenthesized, 136 bitset, 727 precedence and associativity, 136–137 program, 694 regular, see regular expression flip1, program, 692 expression statement, 172, 200 flip2, program, 693 extension, compiler, 114, 131 float, 33 extern literal (numF or numf), 41 and const variables, 60 floating-point, 32 explicit instantiation, 675 conversion, 35 variable declaration, 45 literal, 38		-
precedence and associativity, 136–137 regular, see regular expression expression statement, 172, 200 extension, compiler, 114, 131 extern and const variables, 60 explicit instantiation, 675 variable declaration, 45 program, 694 flip1, program, 692 flip2, program, 693 float, 33 float, 33 floating-point, 32 conversion, 35 literal, 38		
regular, see regular expression expression statement, 172, 200 extension, compiler, 114, 131 extern literal (numF or numf), 41 and const variables, 60 explicit instantiation, 675 variable declaration, 45 literal, 38	•	
expression statement, 172, 200 extension, compiler, 114, 131 extern and const variables, 60 explicit instantiation, 675 variable declaration, 45 flip2, program, 693 float, 33 float, 33 float, 33 floating-point, 31 floating-point, 32 conversion, 35 literal, 38		
extension, compiler, 114, 131 float, 33 extern literal (numF or numf), 41 and const variables, 60 floating-point, 32 explicit instantiation, 675 variable declaration, 45 literal, 38		
extern literal (numF or numf), 41 and const variables, 60 floating-point, 32 explicit instantiation, 675 conversion, 35 variable declaration, 45 literal, 38	=	
and const variables, 60 floating-point, 32 explicit instantiation, 675 conversion, 35 variable declaration, 45 literal, 38	extension, compiler, 114, 131	
explicit instantiation, 675 conversion, 35 variable declaration, 45 literal, 38		
variable declaration, 45 literal, 38		
extern 'C', see linkage directive output format, 755		
	extern 'C', see linkage directive	output format, 755

output notation, 757	declaration, 269
flow of control, 11, 172 , 200	declaration dependencies
flush, manipulator, 315	member function as friend, 281
Folder, see Message	template friends, 665
for statement, 13 , 27, 185 , 185–187, 200	function, 269
condition, 13	inheritance, 614
execution flow, 186	member function, 280, 281
for header, 185	overloaded function, 281
range, 91 , 187 , 187–189, 200	scope, 270, 281
can't add elements, 101, 188	namespace, 799
multidimensional array, 128	template as, 664
for_each, 391, 872	front
format state, stream, 753	queue, 371
formatted IO, 761 , 769	sequential container, 346
forward, 694	StrBlob, 457
argument-dependent lookup, 798	front_inserter, 402 , 417
explicit template argument, 694	compared to inserter, 402
pack expansion, 705	requires push front, 402
passes argument type unchanged, 694,	fstream, 316-320
705	close, 318
usage pattern, 706	file marker, 765
forward declaration, class, 279 , 306	file mode, 319
forward iterator, 411, 417	header, 310, 316
forward list	initialization, 317
see also container	off type, 766
	— II.
see also sequential container	open, 318
before_begin, 351 forward iterator, 411	pos_type,766
	random IO program, 766
header, 329	random IO program, 766
initialization, 334–337	seek and tell, 763-768
list initialization, 336	function, 2 , 27, 202 , 251
merge, 415	see alsoreturn type see also return value
overview, 327	block, 204
remove, 415	
remove_if,415	body, 2 , 27, 202 , 251
reverse, 415	callable object, 388
splice_after,416	candidate, 251
unique, 415	candidate function, 243
value initialization, 336	constexpr, 239 , 251
forwarding, 692–694	nonconstant return value, 239
passes argument type unchanged, 694	declaration, 206
preserving type information, 692	declaration and header file, 207
rvalue reference parameters, 693, 705	decltype returns function type, 250
typical implementation, 706	default argument, 236 , 251
variadic template, 704	adding default arguments, 237
free, StrVec, 528	and header file, 238
free library function, 823 , 863	initializer, 238
free store, 450, 491	deleted, 507 , 549
friend, 269 , 306	function matching, 508
class, 280	exception specification
class template type parameter, 666	noexcept,779

throw(),780	multiple parameters, 244
friend, 269	namespace, 800
function to pointer conversion, 248	overloaded operator, 587–589
inline, 238 , 252	prefers more specialized function, 695
and header, 240	rvalue reference, 539
linkage directive, 859	variadic template, 702
member, see member function	viable function, 243
name, 2 , 27	function object, 571, 590
nonthrowing, 779 , 818	argument to algorithms, 572
overloaded	arithmetic operators, 574
compared to redeclaration, 231	is callable object, 571
friend declaration, 281	function parameter, see parameter
scope, 234	function parameter pack, 700
parameter, see parameter	expansion, 703
parameter list, 2, 27, 202 , 204	pattern, 704
prototype, 207 , 251	function pointer, 247–250
recursive, 227	callable object, 388
variadic template, 701	definition, 247
scope, 204	exception specification, 779, 781
viable, 252	function template instantiation, 686
viable function, 243	overloaded function, 248
virtual, see virtual function	parameter, 249
function, 577 , 576–579, 590	return type, 204, 249
and pointer to member, 842	using decltype, 250
definition, 577	template argument deduction, 686
desk calculator, 577	type alias declaration, 249
function call	typedef, 249
ambiguous, 234 , 245, 251	function table, 577, 577 , 590, 840
default argument, 236	function template, 652 , 713
execution flow, 203	see also template parameter
overhead, 238	see also template argument deduction
	see also instantiation
through pointer to function, 248	
through pointer to member, 839	argument conversion, 680
to overloaded operator, 553	array function parameters, 654
to overloaded postfix operator, 568	candidate function, 695
function matching, 233, 251	compare, 652
= delete, 508	string literal version, 654
argument, conversion, 234	constexpr, 655
candidate function, 243	declaration, 669
overloaded operator, 587	default template argument, 670
const arguments, 246	error detection, 657
conversion, class type, 583–587	explicit instantiation, 675, 675–676
conversion operator, 585, 586	explicit template argument, 682
conversion rank, 245	compare, 683
class type conversions, 586	function matching, 694–699
default argument, 243	inline function, 655
enumeration, 835	nontype parameter, 654
function template, 694–699	overloaded function, 694–699
specialization, 708	parameter pack, 713
integral promotions, 246	specialization, 707, 714
member function, 273	compare,706

function matching, 708	hash function, 443 , 447
is an instantiation, 708	HasPtr
namespace, 788	reference counted, 514-516
scope, 708	copy assignment, 516
trailing return type, 684	destructor, 515
type-dependent code, 658	valuelike, 512
function try block, 778, 817	copy assignment, 512
functional header, 397, 399, 400, 575,	move assignment, 540
577, 843	move constructor, 540
,	swap, 516
	header, 6 , 27
G	iostream,27
g++,5	C library, 91
gcount, istream, 763	const and constexpr,76
generate, 874	default argument, 238
generate_n,874	function declaration, 207
generic algorithms, see algorithms	. h file, 19
generic programming, 108	#include, 6, 21
type-independent code, 655	inline function, 240
get	inline member function definition
istream,761	273
multi-byte version, istream, 762	namespace members, 786
returns int, istream, 762, 764	standard, 6
get <n>,719,770</n>	table of library names, 866
getline, 87 , 131	template definition, 656
istream,762	template specialization, 708
istringstream, 321	user-defined, 21, 76–77, 207, 240
TextQuery constructor, 488	using declaration, 83
global function	Sales_data.h,76
operator delete,863	Sales item.h, 19
operator new, 863	algorithm, 376
global namespace, 789 , 817	array, 329
:: (scope operator), 789 , <i>818</i>	bitset,723
global scope, 48 , 80	cassert, 241
global variable, lifetime, 204	cctype, 91
GNU compiler, 5	cmath, 751, 757
good, 313	cstddef, 116, 120
goto statement, 192 , 200	cstdio, 762
grade clusters program, 103	cstdlib, 54, 227, 778, 823
1 0	cstring, 122
greater <t>,575 greater_equal<t>,575</t></t>	ctime,749
greater_equal<1>,3/3	deque, 329
	<u> </u>
H	exception, 197
	forward_list,329
. h file header, 19	fstream, 310, 316
handler, see catch	functional, 397, 399, 400, 575, 577,
has-a relationship, 637	843
hash <key_type>,445,447</key_type>	initializer_list,220
override, 446	iomanip,756
specialization, 709, 788	iostream, 6, 310
compatible with $==$ (equality), 710	iterator, 119, 382, 401

list,329	open, 318
map,420	pos_type,766
memory, 450, 451, 481, 483	random access, 765
new, 197, 460, 478, 821	random IO program, 766
numeric, 376, 881	seek and tell, 763–768
queue, 371	ignore, istream, 763
random, 745	implementation, 254, 254 , 306
regex, 728	in (file mode), 319
set, 420	in scope, 49 , 79
	÷
sstream, 310, 321	in-class initializer, 73, 73, 79, 263, 265, 274
stack, 370	#include
stdexcept, 194, 197	standard header, 6, 21
string, 74, 76, 84	user-defined header, 21
tuple,718	includes, 880
type_info,197	incomplete type, 279, 306
type_traits,684	can't be base class, 600
typeinfo, 826, 827, 831	not in exception declaration, 775
unordered_map,420	restrictions on use, 279
unordered_set,420	incr, StrBlobPtr, 475
utility, 426, 530, 533, 694	increment operators, 147–149
vector, 96, 329	indentation, 19, 177
header guard, 77, 79	index, 94 , 131
preprocessor, 77	see also [] (subscript)
heap, 450 , 491	indirect base class, 600 , 650
hex, manipulator, 754	inferred return type, lambda expression,
hexadecimal	396
escape sequence (\Xnnn), 39	inheritance, 650
literal (0Xnum or 0xnum), 38	and container, 630
hexfloat manipulator, 757	conversions, 604
high-order bits, 723 , 770	copy control, 623–629
ingit order orde, 120, 170	friend, 614
	hierarchy, 592 , 600
I	interface class, 637
_	
i before e, program, 729	IO classes, 311, 324
version 2, 734	name collisions, 618
IDE, 3	private, 612, 650
identifier, 46 , 79	protected, 612, 650
reserved, 46	public, 612, 650
_if algorithms, 414	vs. composition, 637
if statement, 17 , 27, 175 , 175–178, 200	inherited, constructor, 628
compared to switch, 178	initialization
condition, 18, 175	aggregate class, 298
dangling else, 177	array, 114
else branch, 18, 175, 200	associative container, 423, 424
ifstream, 311, 316-320, 324	bitset,723-725
see also istream	C-style string, 122
close,318	class type objects, 73, 262
file marker, 765	const
file mode, 319	static data member, 302
initialization, 317	class type object, 262
off type,766	data member, 289
 ·	

object, 59	multiple key container, 433
copy, 84 , 131, 497 , 497–499, 549	sequential container, 343
default, 43 , 293	string, 362
direct, 84 , 131	insert iterator, 382 , 401 , 402 , 418
dynamically allocated object, 459	back inserter, 402
exception, 197	front_inserter,402
istream_iterator,405	inserter, 402
list, see list initialization	inserter, 402, 418
lvalue reference, 532	compared to front_inserter,402
multidimensional array, 126	instantiation, 96 , 131, 653 , 656, 713
new[],477	Blob, 660
ostream iterator,405	class template, 660
pair, 426	member function, 663
parameter, 203, 208	declaration, 713
pointer, 52–54	definition, 713
to const, 62	error detection, 657
queue, 369	explicit, 675–676
reference, 51	function template from function pointer,
data member, 289	686
to const, 61	member template, 674
return value, 224	static member, 667
rvalue reference, 532	int,33
sequential container, 334–337	literal, 38
shared ptr, 464	integral
stack, 369	constant expression, 65
string, 84-85, 360-361	promotion, 134, 160 , 169
string streams, 321	function matching, 246
tuple, 718	type, 32 , 79
unique_ptr,470	integrated development environment, 3
value, 98 , 132, 293	interface, 254 , 306
variable, 42, 43, 79	internal, manipulator, 759
vector, 97–101	interval, left-inclusive, 373
vs. assignment, 42, 288	invalid pointer, 52
weak_ptr, 473	invalid argument, 197
initializer_list, 220 , 220-222, 252	invalidated iterator
= (assignment), 563	and container operations, 354
constructor, 662	undefined behavior, 353
header, 220	invalidates iterator
inline function, 238 , 252	assign, 338
and header, 240	erase, 349
function template, 655	resize, 352
member function, 257, 273	IO
and header, 273	formatted, 761 , 769
inline namespace, 790 , <i>817</i>	unformatted, 761 , 770
inner scope, 48, 79	IO classes
inner_product,882	condition state, 312 , 324
inplace_merge,875	inheritance, 324
input, standard, 6	IO stream, see stream
input iterator, 411 , 418	iomanip header, 756
insert	iostate, 312
associative container, 432	machine-dependent, 313
abbotium ve container, 102	macinic acpenacity 010

iostream,5	pos_type,766
file marker, 765	put,761
header, 6, 27, 310	putback, 761
off_type,766	random access, 765
pos_type,766	random IO program, 766
random access, 765	read, 763
random IO program, 766	seek and tell, 763–768
seek and tell, 763–768	unformatted IO, 761
virtual base class, 810	multi-byte, 763
iota, 882	single-byte, 761
is-a relationship, 637	unget, 761
is_partitioned,876	istream iterator, 403, 418
is_permutation,879	>> (input operator), 403
is_sorted,877	algorithms, 404
is sorted until,877	initialization, 405
isalnum, 92	off-the-end iterator, 403
isalpha,92	operations, 404
isbn	type requirements, 406
Sales data, 257	istringstream, 311, 321 , 321-323
Sales item, 23	see also istream
ISBN, 2	word per line processing, 442
	file marker, 765
isbn_mismatch,783	
iscntrl,92	getline, 321
isdigit,92	initialization, 321
isgraph, 92	off_type,766
islower,92	phone number program, 321
isprint, 92	pos_type,766
ispunct, 92	random access, 765
isShorter program, 211	random IO program, 766
isspace, 92	seek and tell, 763–768
istream, 5 , 27, 311	TextQuery constructor, 488
see also manipulator	isupper,92
>> (input operator), 8	isxdigit,92
precedence and associativity, 155	iter_swap,875
as condition, 15	iterator, 106 , 106–112, 131
chained input, 8	++ (increment), 107, 132
condition state, 312	(decrement), 107
conversion, 162	* (dereference), 107
explicit conversion to bool, 583	+= (compound assignment), 111
file marker, 765	+ (addition), 111
flushing input buffer, 314	- (subtraction), 111
format state, 753	== (equality), 106, 107
gcount, 763	! = (inequality), 106, 107
get, 761	algorithm type independence, 377
multi-byte version, 762	arithmetic, 111 , 131
returns int, 762, 764	compared to reverse iterator, 409
getline, 87, 321, 762	destination, 413
ignore, 763	insert, 401 , 418
no copy or assign, 311	move, 401, 418, 543
off type, 766	uninitialized_copy, 543
peek, 761	off-the-beginning
<u> </u>	

before_begin,351	type checking, 46
forward_list,351	types define behavior, 3
off-the-end, 106 , 132, 373	use concise expressions, 149
istream_iterator,403	key_type
parameter, 216	associative container, 428, 447
regex, 734	requirements
relational operators, 111	ordered container, 425
reverse, 401 , 407–409, 418	unordered container, 445
stream, 401 , 403–406, 418	keyword table, 47
used as destination, 382	Koenig lookup, 797
iterator	
compared to reverse_iterator,	т
408	L
container, 108, 332	L'c' (wchar_t literal), 38
header, 119, 382, 401	label
set iterators are const, 429	case, 179 , 199
iterator category, 410 , 410–412, <i>418</i>	statement, 192
bidirectional iterator, 412, 417	labeled statement, 192, 200
forward iterator, 411, 417	lambda expression, 388, 418
input iterator, 411, 418	arguments, 389
output iterator, 411, 418	biggies program, 391
random-access iterator, 412, 418	reference capture, 393
iterator range, 331 , 331–332, <i>3</i> 73	capture list, 388 , 417
algorithms, 376	capture by reference, 393
as initializer of container, 335	capture by value, 390, 392
container erase member, 349	implicit capture, 394
container insert member, 344	inferred return type, 389, 396
left-inclusive, 331	mutable,395
off-the-end, 331	parameters, 389
	passed to find_if,390
T/	<pre>passed to stable_sort,389</pre>
K	synthesized class type, 572–574
key concept	trailing return type, 396
algorithms	left, manipulator, 758
and containers, 378	left-inclusive interval, 331, 373
iterator arguments, 381	length_error,197
class user, 255	less <t>,575</t>
classes define behavior, 20	less_equal <t>,575</t>
defining an assignment operator, 512	letter grade, program, 175
dynamic binding in C++, 605	lexicographical_compare,881
elements are copies, 342	library function objects, 574
encapsulation, 270	as arguments to algorithms, 575
headers for template code, 657	library names to header table, 866
indentation, 19	library type, 5 , 27, 82
inheritance and conversions, 604	lifetime, 204 , 252
isA and hasA relationships, 637	compared to scope, 204
name lookup and inheritance, 619	dynamically allocated objects, 450, 461
protected members, 614	global variable, 204
refactoring, 611	local variable, 204
respecting base class interface, 599	parameter, 205
specialization declarations, 708	linkage directive, 858, 863

	C++ to C, 860	string, 7, 28, 39
	compound, 858	unsigned (numU or numu), 41
	overloaded function, 860	wchar_t,40
	parameter or return type, 859	literal type, 66
	pointer to function, 859	class type, 299
	return type, 859	local class, 852 , <i>863</i>
	single, 858	access control, 853
linl	ker, 208 , 252	name lookup, 853
	template errors at link time, 657	nested class in, 854
li	st, 373	restrictions, 852
	see also container	local scope, see block scope
	see also sequential container	local static object, 205, 252
	bidirectional iterator, 412	local variable, 204 , 252
	header, 329	destroyed during exception handling,
	initialization, 334–337	467, 773
	list initialization, 336	destructor, 502
	merge, 415	lifetime, 204
	overview, 327	pointer, return value, 225
	remove, 415	reference, return value, 225
	remove_if,415	return statement, 224
	reverse, 415	lock,weak_ptr,473
	splice, 416	logic_error,197
	unique, 415	logical operators, 141, 142
	value initialization, 336	condition, 141
list	initialization, 43, 79	function object, 574
	= (assignment), 145	logical_and <t>,575</t>
	array, 337	logical_not <t>,575</t>
	associative container, 423	logical or <t>,575</t>
	container, 336	long, 33
	dynamically allocated, object, 459	literal (numL or numl), 38
	pair, 427, 431, 527	long double, 33
	preferred, 99	literal ($ddd.ddd$ L or $ddd.ddd$ l), 41
	prevents narrowing, 43	long long, 33
	return value, 226 , 427, 527	literal (numLL or numl1), 38
	sequential container, 336	lookup, name, see name lookup
	vector, 98	low-level const, 64, 79
lite	ral, 38 , 38–41, 79	argument and parameter, 213
1110	bool, 41	conversion from, 163
	in condition, 143	conversion to, 162
	char, 39	overloaded function, 232
	decimal, 38	template argument deduction, 693
	double (numEnum or numenum), 38	low-order bits, 723 , 770
	float (numF or numf), 41	lower bound
	floating-point, 38	algorithm, 873
	hexadecimal (0Xnum or 0xnum), 38	ordered container, 438
	int, 38	1round, 751
	long (numL or numl), 38	lvalue, 135 , <i>169</i>
	long double (ddd.dddL or ddd.dddl),	cast to rvalue reference, 691
	41	copy initialization, uses copy construc-
	long long (numLL or numll), 38	tor, 539
	octal (0 <i>num</i>), 38	decltype, 135
	(~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~

reference collapsing rule, 688 result	<pre>make_pair,428 make_plural program,224</pre>
-> (arrow operator), 150	make shared, 451
++ (increment) prefix, 148	make_tuple,718
(decrement) prefix, 148	malloc library function, 823 , 863
* (dereference), 135	manipulator, 7, 27, 753, 770
[] (subscript), 135	boolalpha, 754
= (assignment), 145	change format state, 753
, (comma operator), 158	dec, 754
?: (conditional operator), 151	defaultfloat,757
cast, 163	endl, 314
decltype,71	ends, 315
function reference return type, 226	fixed,757
variable, 533	flush, 315
lvalue reference, see also reference, 532, 549	hex, 754
collapsing rule, 688	hexfloat,757
compared to rvalue reference, 533	internal, 759
function matching, 539	left,758
initialization, 532	noboolalpha,754
member function, 546	noshowbase, 755
overloaded, 547	noshowpoint, 758
move, 533	noskipws, 760
template argument deduction, 687	nouppercase, 755
	oct, 754
M	right,758
	scientific,757
machine-dependent	setfill,759
bit-field layout, 854	setprecision,756
char representation, 34	setw, 758
end-of-file character, 15	showbase, 755
enum representation, 835	showpoint, 758
iostate, 313	skipws,760
linkage directive language, 861	unitbuf,315
nonzero return from main, 227	uppercase, 755
random IO, 763	map, 420 , 447
reinterpret_cast,164	see also ordered container
return from exception what, 198	* (dereference), 429
signed out-of-range value, 35	[] (subscript), 435, 448
signed types and bitwise operators, 153	adds element, 435
size of arithmetic types, 32	at, 435
terminate function, 196	definition, 423
type info members, 831	header, 420
vector, memory management, 355	insert,431
volatile implementation, 856	key_type requirements, 425
main, 2, 27	list initialization, 423
not recursive, 228	lower bound, 438
parameters, 218	map, initialization, 424
return type, 2	TextQuery class, 485
return value, 2–4, 227	upper_bound, 438
make move iterator, 543	word count program, 421

mapped_type, associative container, 428, 448	template parameters, 673, 674 memberwise
match	copy assignment, 500
best, 251	copy constructor, 497
no, 252	
	copy control, 267, 550
match_flag_type,regex_constants, 743	destruction is implicit, 503
	move assignment, 538
max, 881	move constructor, 538
max_element,881	memory
mem_fn, 843 , <i>863</i>	see also dynamically allocated
generates callable, 843	exhaustion, 460
member, see class data member	leak, 462
member access operators, 150	memory header, 450, 451, 481, 483
member function, 23 , 27, 306	merge, 874
as friend, 281	list and forward_list,415
base member hidden by derived, 619	Message, 519-524
class template	add_to_Folder,522
defined outside class body, 661	class definition, 521
instantiation, 663	copy assignment, 523
const, 258 , 305	copy constructor, 522
() (call operator), 573	design, 520
reference return, 276	destructor, 522
declared but not defined, 509	move assignment, 542
defined outside class, 259	move constructor, 542
definition, 256–260	move_Folders,542
:: (scope operator), 259	remove_from_Folders,523
name lookup, 285	method, see member function
parameter list, 282	Microsoft compiler, 5
return type, 283	min, 881
explicitly inline, 273	min_element,881
function matching, 273	minmax,881
implicit this parameter, 257	minus <t>,575</t>
implicitly inline, 257	mismatch,872
inline and header, 273	mode, file, 324
move-enabled, 545	modulus <t>,575</t>
name lookup, 287	move, 530 , 533 , 874
overloaded, 273	argument-dependent lookup, 798
on const, 276	binds rvalue reference to lvalue, 533
on lvalue or rvalue reference, 547	explained, 690–692
overloaded operator, 500, 552	inherently dangerous, 544
reference qualified, 546, 550	Message, move operations, 541
returning *this, 260, 275	moved from object has unspecified
rvalue reference parameters, 544	value, 533
scope, 282	reference collapsing rule, 691
template, see member template	StrVec reallocate, 530
member template, 672, 714	remove_reference,691
Blob, iterator constructor, 673	move assignment, 536 , 550
DebugDelete,673	copy and swap, 540
declaration, 673	derived class, 626
defined outside class body, 674	HasPtr, valuelike, 540
instantiation, 674	memberwise, 538

Message, 542	range for statement and, 128
moved-from object destructible, 537	multimap,448
noexcept, 535	see also ordered container
rule of three/five, virtual destructor	* (dereference), 429
exception, 622	definition, 423
self-assignment, 537	has no subscript operator, 435
StrVec,536	insert, 431, 433
synthesized	key_type requirements, 425
deleted function, 538, 624	list initialization, 423
derived class, 623	lower_bound, 438
multiple inheritance, 805	map, initialization, 424
sometimes omitted, 538	upper_bound, 438
move constructor, 529 , 534 , 534–536, <i>550</i>	multiple inheritance, 802 , 817
and copy initialization, 541	see also virtual base class
derived class, 626	= (assignment), 805
HasPtr, valuelike, 540	ambiguous conversion, 806
memberwise, 538	ambiguous names, 808
Message, 542	avoiding ambiguities, 809
moved-from object destructible, 534,	class derivation list, 803
537	conversion, 805
noexcept, 535	copy control, 805
rule of three/five, virtual destructor	name lookup, 807
exception, 622	object composition, 803
string, 529	order of initialization, 804
StrVec, 535	scope, 807
synthesized	virtual function, 807
deleted function, 624	multiplies <t>,575</t>
derived class, 623	multiset, 448
multiple inheritance, 805	see also ordered container
sometimes omitted, 538	insert,433
move iterator, 401, 418, 543 , 550	iterator,429
make_move_iterator,543	key_type requirements, 425
StrVec, reallocate, 543	list initialization, 423
uninitialized_copy,543	lower_bound, 438
move operations, 531–548	override comparison
function matching, 539	Basket class, 631
move, 533	using compareIsbn, 426
noexcept, 535	upper_bound, 438
rvalue references, 532	used in Basket, 632
valid but unspecified, 537	mutable
move backward, 875	data member, 274
move_Folders,Message,542	lambda expression, 395
multidimensional array, 125–130	1 ,
[] (subscript), 127	
argument and parameter, 218	N
begin, 129	\n (newline character), 39
conversion to pointer, 128	name lookup, 283 , <i>306</i>
definition, 126	:: (scope operator), overrides, 286
end, 129	argument-dependent lookup, 797
initialization, 126	before type checking, 619
pointer, 128	multiple inheritance, 809
<u> -</u>	± '

block scope, 48	NDEBUG, 241
class, 284	negate <t>,575</t>
class member	nested class, 843 , <i>863</i>
declaration, 284	access control, 844
definition, 285, 287	class defined outside enclosing class,
function, 284	845
depends on static type, 617, 619	constructor, QueryResult, 845
multiple inheritance, 806	in local class, 854
derived class, 617	member defined outside class body,
name collisions, 618	845
local class, 853	name lookup, 846
multiple inheritance, 807	QueryResult,844
ambiguous names, 808	relationship to enclosing class, 844,
namespace, 796	846
nested class, 846	scope, 844
overloaded virtual functions, 621	static member, 845
templates, 657	nested namespace, 789
type checking, 235	nested type, see nested class
virtual base class, 812	new, 458 , 458 –460, 491
named cast, 162	execution flow, 820
const cast, 163, 163	failure, 460
dynamic_cast, 163, 825	header, 197, 460, 478, 821
reinterpret cast, 163, 164	initialization, 458
static cast, 163, 163	placement, 460, 491, 824 , 863
namespace, 7 , 27, 785 , 817	union with class type member, 851
alias, 792 , <i>817</i>	shared_ptr,464
argument-dependent lookup, 797	unique_ptr,470
candidate function, 800	with auto, 459
cplusplus primer,787	new[], 477 , 477–478
definition, 785	initialization, 477
design, 786	returns pointer to an element, 477
discontiguous definition, 786	value initialization, 478
friend declaration scope, 799	newline (\n), character, 39
function matching, 800	next permutation, 879
global, 789 , <i>817</i>	no match, 234 , 252
inline, 790 , <i>817</i>	see also function matching
member, 786	noboolalpha, manipulator, 754
member definition, 788	NoDefault, 293
outside namespace, 788	noexcept
name lookup, 796	exception specification, 779, 817
nested, 789	argument, 779–781
overloaded function, 800	violation, 779
placeholders,399	move operations, 535
scope, 785–790	operator, 780 , 817
std,7	nonconst reference, see reference
template specialization, 709, 788	none, bitset, 726
unnamed, 791 , <i>818</i>	none of,871
local to file, 791	nonportable, 36, 863
replace file static, 792	nonprintable character, 39 , 79
namespace pollution, 785 , <i>817</i>	nonthrowing function, 779, 818
narrowing conversion, 43	nontype parameter, 654 , 714
~	

c= 4	1
compare, 654	class type object, 289
must be constant expression, 655	derived class object, 598, 623
type requirements, 655	multiple inheritance, 804
normal_distribution,751	virtual base classes, 814
noshowbase, manipulator, 755	object code, 252
noshowpoint, manipulator, 758	object file, 208, 252
noskipws, manipulator, 760	object-oriented programming, 650
not_equal_to <t>,575</t>	oct, manipulator, 754
NotQuery,637	octal, literal (0num), 38
class definition, 642	octal escape sequence (\nnn), 39
eval function, 647	off-the-beginning iterator, 351 , 373
nouppercase, manipulator, 755	before_begin,351
nth_element,877	forward list, 351
NULL, 54	off-the-end
null (\0), character, 39	iterator, 106 , 132, 373
null pointer, 53 , 79	iterator range, 331
delete of, 461	pointer, 118
null statement, 172 , 200	
null-terminated character string, see C-style	ofstream, 311, 316—320, 324 see also ostream
string	close, 318
nullptr, 54 , 79	file marker, 765
numeric header, 376, 881	file mode, 319
numeric conversion, to and from string,	initialization, 317
367	off_type,766
numeric literal	open, 318
float (numF or numf), 41	pos_type,766
long (numL or numl), 41	random access, 765
long double (ddd.dddL or ddd.dddl),	random IO program, 766
41	seek and tell, 763–768
long long($numLL$ or $numll$), 41	old-style, cast, 164
unsigned (num U or num u), 41	open, file stream, 318
	operand, 134 , 169
0	conversion, 159
U	operator, 134 , 169
object, 42 , 79	operator alternative name, 46
automatic, 205 , 251	operator delete
dynamically allocated, 458–463	class member, 822
const object, 460	global function, 820, 863
delete, 460	operator delete[]
factory program, 461	class member, 822
initialization, 459	compared to deallocate, 823
lifetime, 450	global function, 820
new, 458	operator new
lifetime, 204 , 252	class member, 822
local static, 205 , 252	global function, 820, 863
order of destruction	operator new[]
	class member, 822
class type object, 502 derived class object, 627	
	compared to allocate, 823
multiple inheritance, 805	global function, 820
virtual base classes, 815	operator overloading, see overloaded op-
order or mulauzadon	PIAIDI

and the second s	
operators	vector
arithmetic, 139	equality and relational, 102
assignment, 12 , 144–147	subscript, 103–105
binary, 134 , 168	options to main, 218
bitwise, 152–156	order of destruction
bitset,725	class type object, 502
comma (,), 157	derived class object, 627
compound assignment, 12	multiple inheritance, 805
conditional (?:), 151	virtual base classes, 815
decrement, 147–149	order of evaluation, 134 , 169
equality, 18, 141	&& (logical AND), 138
increment, 12 , 147–149	(logical OR), 138
input, 8	, (comma operator), 138
iterator	?: (conditional operator), 138
addition and subtraction, 111	expression, 137
arrow, 110	pitfalls, 149
dereference, 107	order of initialization
equality, 106, 108	class type object, 289
increment and decrement, 107	derived class object, 598
relational, 111	multiple base classes, 816
logical, 141	multiple inheritance, 804
member access, 150	virtual base classes, 814
noexcept,780	ordered container
output, 7	see also container
overloaded, arithmetic, 560	see also associative container
pointer	key_type requirements, 425
addition and subtraction, 119	lower_bound,438
equality, 120	override default comparison, 425
increment and decrement, 118	upper_bound,438
relational, 120, 123	ordering, strict weak, 425 , 448
subscript, 121	OrQuery,637
relational, 12, 141, 143	class definition, 644
Sales_data	eval function, 645
+= (compound assignment), 564	ostream, 5 , 27, 311
+ (addition), 560	see also manipulator
== (equality), 561	<< (output operator), 7
! = (inequality), 561	precedence and associativity, 155
>> (input operator), 558	chained output, 7
<< (output operator), 557	condition state, 312
Sales_item,20	explicit conversion to bool, 583
scope, 82	file marker, 765
sizeof,156	floating-point notation, 757
sizeof,700	flushing output buffer, 314
string	format state, 753
addition, 89	no copy or assign, 311
equality and relational, 88	not flushed if program crashes, 315
IO, 85	off_type,766
subscript, 93–95	output format, floating-point, 755
subscript, 116	pos_type,766
typeid, 826, 864	precision member, 756
unary, 134 , 169	random access, 765

random IO program, 766	namespace, 800
seek and tell, 763-768	pointer to, 248
tie member, 315	scope, 234
virtual base class, 810	derived hides base, 619
write,763	using declaration, 800
ostream_iterator, 403, 418	in derived class, 621
<< (output operator), 405	using directive, 801
algorithms, 404	overloaded operator, 135, 169, 500, 550,
initialization, 405	552 , 590
operations, 405	++ (increment), 566–568
type requirements, 406	(decrement), 566–568
ostringstream, 311, 321 , 321–323	* (dereference), 569
see also ostream	StrBlobPtr, 569
file marker, 765	& (address-of), 554
initialization, 321	-> (arrow operator), 569
	-
off_type,766	StrBlobPtr, 569
phone number program, 323	[] (subscript), 564
pos_type, 766	StrVec, 565
random access, 765	() (call operator), 571
random IO program, 766	absInt, 571
seek and tell, 763-768	PrintString, 571
str,323	= (assignment), 500, 563
out (file mode), 319	StrVecinitializer_list,563
out-of-range value, signed, 35	+= (compound assignment), 555, 560
out_of_range,197	Sales_data,564
at function, 348	+ (addition), Sales_data, 560
out_ofstock,783	== (equality), 561
outer scope, 48, 79	Sales_data,561
output, standard, 6	! = (inequality), 562
output iterator, 411, 418	Sales_data,561
overflow, 140	< (less-than), strict weak ordering,
overflow_error,197	562
overhead, function call, 238	>> (input operator), 558–559
overload resolution, see function match-	Sales_data,558
ing	<< (output operator), 557–558
overloaded function, 230, 230–235, 252	Sales_data,557
see also function matching	&& (logical AND), 554
as friend, 281	
compared to redeclaration, 231	& (bitwise AND), Query, 644
compared to template specialization,	(bitwise OR), Query, 644
708	~ (bitwise NOT), Query, 643
const parameters, 232	, (comma operator), 554
constructor, 262	ambiguous, 588
function template, 694–699	arithmetic operators, 560
linkage directive, 860	associativity, 553
member function, 273	binary operators, 552
const, 276	candidate function, 587
move-enabled, 545	consistency between relational and
reference qualified, 547	equality operators, 562
virtual, 621	definition, 500, 552
move-enabled, 545	design, 554–556
	-

equality operators, 561	pointer, 209, 214
explicit call to, 553	pointer to const, 246
postfix operators, 568	pointer to array, 218
function matching, 587–589	pointer to function, 249
member function, 500, 552	linkage directive, 859
member vs. nonmember function,	reference, 210–214
552, 555	to const, 213, 246
precedence, 553	to array, 217
relational operators, 562	reference to const, 211
requires class-type parameter, 552	template, see template parameter
short-circuit evaluation lost, 553	top-level const, 212
unary operators, 552	parameter list
override, virtual function, 595, 650	function, 2, 27, 202
override specifier, 593, 596, 606	template, 653, 714
	parameter pack, 714
	expansion, 702 , 702–704, 714
P	function template, 713
pair, 426 , 448	sizeof,700
default initialization, 427	variadic template, 699
definition, 426	parentheses, override precedence, 136
initialization, 426	partial_sort,877
list initialization, 427, 431, 527	partial_sort_copy,877
make_pair, 428	partial_sum, 882
map, * (dereference), 429	partition, 876
operations, 427	partition copy, 876
public data members, 427	partition_point,876
return value, 527	pass by reference, 208 , 210, 252
Panda, 803	pass by value, 209 , 252
parameter, 202 , 208, 252	uses copy constructor, 498
array, 214–219	uses move constructor, 539
buffer overflow, 215	pattern, 702 , <i>714</i>
to pointer conversion, 214	function parameter pack, 704
C-style string, 216	regular expression, phone number
const, 212	739
copy constructor, 496	template parameter pack, 703
ellipsis, 222	peek, istream, 761
forwarding, 693	PersonInfo, 321
function pointer, linkage directive, 859	phone number, regular expression
implicit this, 257	program, 738
initialization, 203, 208	reformat program, 742
iterator, 216	valid,740
lifetime, 205	pitfalls
low-level const, 213	dynamic memory, 462
main function, 218	order of evaluation, 149
multidimensional array, 218	self-assignment, 512
nonreference, 209	smart pointer, 469
uses copy constructor, 498	using directive, 795
uses move constructor, 539	placeholders, 399
pass by reference, 210 , 252	placement new, 460, 491, 824 , 863
pass by value, 209 , 252	union, class type member, 851
passing, 208–212	plus <t>, 575</t>

pointer, 52 , 52–58, 79	auto, 24 9
++ (increment), 118	callable object, 388
(decrement), 118	decltype,249
* (dereference), 53	exception specification, 779, 781
[] (subscript), 121	explicit template argument, 686
= (assignment), 55	function template instantiation, 686
+ (addition), 119	linkage directive, 859
- (subtraction), 119	overloaded function, 248
== (equality), 55, 120	parameter, 249
! = (inequality), 55, 120	return type, 204, 249
and array, 117	using decltype, 250
arithmetic, 119 , 132	template argument deduction, 686
const, 63 , 78	trailing return type, 250
const pointer to const, 63	type alias, 249
constexpr,67	typedef, 249
conversion	pointer to member, 835 , 863
from array, 161	arrow (->*), 837
to bool, 162	definition, 836
to const, 62, 162	dot (. *), 837
to void*, 161	function, 838
dangling, 463 , 491	and bind, 843
declaration style, 57	and function, 842
definition, 52	and mem fn, 843
delete,460	not callable object, 842
derived-to-base conversion, 597	function call, 839
under multiple inheritance, 805	function table, 840
dynamic_cast,825	precedence, 838
implicit this, 257 , 306	polymorphism, 605 , 650
initialization, 52–54	pop
invalid, 52	priority queue,371
multidimensional array, 128	queue, 371
null, 53 , 79	stack, 371
off-the-end, 118	pop_back
parameter, 209, 214	sequential container, 348
relational operators, 123	StrBlob, 457
return type, 204	pop_front, sequential container, 348
return value, local variable, 225	portable, 854
smart, 450 , <i>491</i>	precedence, 134 , 136–137, 169
to const, 62	= (assignment), 146
and typedef, 68	?: (conditional operator), 151
to array	assignment and relational operators,
parameter, 218	146
return type, 204	dot and dereference, 150
return type declaration, 229	increment and dereference, 148
to const, 79	of IO operator, 156
overloaded parameter, 232, 246	overloaded operator, 553
to pointer, 58	parentheses overrides, 136
typeid operator, 828	pointer to member and call operator,
valid, 52	838
volatile,856	precedence table, 166
pointer to function, 247–250	precision member, ostream, 756

predicate, 386 , 418	Sales item, 24
binary, 386 , 417	buildMap,442
unary, 386 , 418	children's story, 383–391
prefix, smatch, 736	compare,652
preprocessor, 76 , 79	count calls, 206
#include, 7	debug rep
assert macro, 241 , 251	additional nontemplate versions
header guard, 77	698
variable, 54, 79	general template version, 695
prev_permutation,879	nontemplate version, 697
print, Sales_data, 261	pointer template version, 696
print program	elimDups, 383-391
array parameter, 215	error_msg,221
array reference parameter, 217	fact, 202
pointer and size parameters, 217	factorial,227
pointer parameter, 216	factory
two pointer parameters, 216	new, 461
variadic template, 701	shared ptr,453
print total	file extension, 730
explained, 604	version 2, 738
program, 593	find last word, 408
PrintString, 571	find_char,211
() (call operator), 571	findBook, 721
priority_queue, 371, 373	flip,694
emplace, 371	flip1,692
empty, 371	flip2,693
equality and relational operators, 370	grade clusters, 103
initialization, 369	grading
pop, 371	bitset,728
push, 371	bitwise operators, 154
sequential container, 371	i before e, 729
size,371	version 2, 734
swap, 371	isShorter,211
top, 371	letter grade, 175
private	make_plural,224
access specifier, 268, 306	message handling, 519
copy constructor and assignment, 509	phone number
inheritance, 612, 650	istringstream, 321
program	ostringstream,323
addition	reformat, 742
Sales_data,74	regular expression version, 738
Sales_item,21,23	valid,740
alternative_sum,682	print
biggies,391	array parameter, 215
binops desk calculator, 577	array reference parameter, 217
book from author version 1, 438	pointer and size parameters, 217
book from author version 2, 439	pointer parameter, 216
book from author version 3, 440	two pointer parameters, 216
bookstore	variadic template, 701
Sales_data,255	print_total,593
Sales data using algorithms, 406	Ouery,635

class design, 636–639	<< (output operator), 641
random IO, 766	& (bitwise AND), 638
reset	definition, 644
pointer parameters, 209	(bitwise OR), 638
reference parameters, 210	definition, 644
restricted word_count, 422	~ (bitwise NOT), 638
sum, 682	definition, 643
swap, 223	classes, 636–639
TextQuery, 486	definition, 640
design, 485	interface class, 637
transform,442	operations, 635
valid,740	program, 635
vector capacity, 357	recap, 640
vowel counting, 179	Query_base,636
word count	abstract base class, 636
map, 421	definition, 639
unordered_map,444	member function, 636
word transform, 441	QueryResult,485
ZooAnimal,802	class definition, 489
promotion, see integral promotion	nested class, 844
protected	constructor, 845
access specifier, 595 , 611, 650	print,490
inheritance, 612, 650	queue, 371, 373
member, 611	back, 371
ptr_fun deprecated, 401	emplace, 371
ptrdiff t, 120 , 132	empty, 371
public	equality and relational operators, 370
access specifier, 268, 306	front, 371
inheritance, 612, 650	header, 371
pure virtual function, 609 , 650	initialization, 369
Disc quote, 609	pop, 371
Query base, 636	push, 371
push	sequential container, 371
priority_queue,371	size, 371
queue, 371	swap, 371
stack, 371	Ouote
push back	class definition, 594
back_inserter, 382, 402	design, 592
sequential container, 100, 132, 342	design, 572
move-enabled, 545	
StrVec, 527	R
move-enabled, 545	Raccoon, virtual base class, 812
push front	raise exception, see throw
front_inserter, 402	rand function, drawbacks, 745
sequential container, 342	random header, 745
put, istream, 761	random IO, 765
_	
putback, istream, 761	machine-dependent, 763
	program, 766 random-access iterator, 412 , 418
O	random-number library, 745
Quary 638	compared to rand function, 745
Query, 638	compared to rand function, 743

distribution types, 745, 770	limitations, 214
engine, 745 , 770	template argument deduction, 687-
default_random_engine,745	689
max, min,747	remove reference, 684
retain state, 747	return type, 224
seed, 748, 770	assignment operator, 500
generator, 746 , 770	is lvalue, 226
range, 747	return value, local variable, 225
random_shuffle,878	to array parameter, 217
range for statement, 91, 132, 187, 187-	reference, container, 333
189, 200	reference count, 452 , 491, 514 , 550
can't add elements, 101, 188	copy assignment, 514
multidimensional array, 128	copy constructor, 514
not with dynamic array, 477	design, 514
range_error, 197	destructor, 514
rbegin, container, 333, 407	HasPtr class, 514-516
rdstate, stream, 313	reference to const, 61 , 80
read	argument, 211
istream,763	initialization, 61
Sales_data,261	parameter, 211, 213
reallocate, StrVec, 530	*
move iterator version, 543	overloaded, 232, 246
recursion loop, 228 , 252, 608	return type, 226
recursive function, 227, 252	regex, 728 , 770
variadic template, 701	error_type,732
ref, binds reference parameter, 400, 418	header, 728
refactoring, 611, 650	regex_error, 732 , 770
reference, 50 , 79	syntax_option_type,730
see also lvalue reference	regex_constants,743
see also rvalue reference	match_flag_type,743
auto deduces referred to type, 69	regex_error, 732 , 770
collapsing rule, 688	regex_match, 729 , 770
forward, 694	regex_replace, 742 , 770
lvalue arguments, 688	format flags, 744
move, 691	format string, 742
rvalue reference parameters, 693	regex_search, 729, 730, 770
const, see reference to const	regular expression library, 728 , 770
conversion	case sensitive, 730
not from const, 61	compiled at run time, 732
to reference to const, 162	ECMAScript, 730
data member, initialization, 289	file extension program, 730
declaration style, 57	i before e program, 729
decltype yields reference type, 71	version 2, 734
definition, 51	match data, 735–737
derived-to-base conversion, 597	pattern, 729
under multiple inheritance, 805	phone number, valid, 740
dynamic cast operator, 826	phone number pattern, 739
initialization, 51	phone number program, 738
member function, 546	phone number reformat, program, 742
parameter, 210–214	regex iterators, 734
bind, 400	search functions, 729

smatch, provides context for a match, 735	sequential container, 352 value initialization, 352
subexpression, 738	restricted word_count program, 422
file extension program version 2,	result, 134 , 169
738	* (dereference), lvalue, 135
types, 733	[] (subscript), lvalue, 135
valid, program, 740	, (comma operator), lvalue, 158
reinterpret_cast, 163, 164	?: (conditional operator), lvalue, 151
machine-dependent, 164	cast, lvalue, 163
relational operators, 141, 143	rethrow, 776
arithmetic conversion, 144	exception object, 777
container adaptor, 370	throw, 776, 818
container member, 340	return statement, 222 , 222–228
function object, 574	from main, 227
iterator, 111	implicit return from main, 223
overloaded operator, 562	local variable, 224, 225
pointer, 120, 123	return type, 2 , 27, 202 , 204, 252
Sales_data, 563	array, 204
string,88	array using decltype, 230
tuple, 720	function, 204
vector, 102	function pointer, 249
release, unique_ptr, 470	using decltype, 250
remove, 878	linkage directive, 859
list and forward_list, 415	main, 2
remove_copy, 878	member function, 283
remove_copy_if,878	nonreference, 224
remove_from_Folders, Message, 523	copy initialized, 498
remove_if,878	pointer, 204
list and forward_list, 415	pointer to function, 204
remove_pointer,685	reference, 224
remove_reference,684	reference to const, 226
move, 691	reference yields lvalue, 226
rend, container, 333, 407	trailing, 229 , 252, 396, 684
replace, 383, 875	virtual function, 606
string, 362	void, 223
replace_copy, 383, 874	return value
replace_copy_if,874	conversion, 223
replace if,875	copy initialized, 498
reserve	initialization, 224
string, 356	list initialization, 226 , 427, 527
vector, 356	local variable, pointer, 225
reserved identifiers, 46	main, 2-4, 227
reset	pair, 427, 527
bitset,727	reference, local variable, 225
shared ptr,466	*this, 260, 275
unique ptr,470	tuple, 721
reset program	type checking, 223
pointer parameters, 209	unique ptr, 471
reference parameters, 210	reverse, 878
resize	list and forward list, 415
invalidates iterator 352	reverse iterator 401 407–409 418

++ (increment), 407	S
(decrement), 407, 408	Sales data
base, 409	compareIsbn,387
compared to iterator, 409	+= (compound assignment), 564
reverse_copy, 414, 878	+ (addition), 560
reverse_copy_if,414	== (equality), 561
reverse_iterator	! = (inequality), 561
compared to iterator, 408	>> (input operator), 558
container, 332, 407	<< (output operator), 557
rfind, string, 366	add, 261
right, manipulator, 758	addition program, 74
rotate, 878	avg_price, 259
rotate_copy,878	bookstore program, 255
rule of three/five, 505, 541	using algorithms, 406
virtual destructor exception, 622	class definition, 72, 268
run-time type identification, 825–831, 864	combine, 259
compared to virtual functions, 829	compareIsbn, 425
dynamic_cast, 825, 825	with associative container, 426
bad_cast,826	constructors, 264–266
to poiner, 825	converting constructor, 295
to reference, 826	default constructor, 262
type-sensitive equality, 829	•
typeid, 826 , 827	exception classes, 783 exception version
returns type_info, 827	+= (compound assignment), 784
runtime binding, 594 , 650	+ (addition), 784
runtime_error, 194, 197	explicit constructor, 296
initialization from string, 196	isbn, 257
rvalue, 135 , <i>169</i>	operations, 254
copy initialization, uses move con-	print, 261
structor, 539	read, 261
result	relational operators, 563
++ (increment) postfix, 148	Sales_data.h header, 76
(decrement) postfix, 148	Sales_item, 20
function nonreference return type,	+ (addition), 22
224	
rvalue reference, 532 , 550	>> (input operator), 21 << (output operator), 21
cast from Ivalue, 691	addition program, 21, 23
collapsing rule, 688	bookstore program, 24
compared to Ivalue reference, 533	isbn, 23
function matching, 539	operations, 20
initialization, 532	Sales_item.h header, 19
member function, 546	scientific manipulator, 757
overloaded, 547 move, 533	scope, 48 , 80
•	base class, 617
parameter forwarding, 693, 705	block, 48 , 80, 173
member function, 544	class, 73, 282 , 282–287, 305
preserves argument type information,	static member, 302
693	compared to object lifetime, 204
template argument deduction, 687	derived class, 617
variable, 533	friend, 270, 281
,	, , ====

function, 204	array,326
global, 48 , 80	deque, 326
inheritance, 617–621	forward list,326
member function, 282	initialization, 334–337
parameters and return type, 283	list,326
multiple inheritance, 807	list initialization, 336
name collisions, using directive, 795	members
namespace, 785–790	assign, 338
nested class, 844	back, 346
overloaded function, 234	clear,350
statement, 174	emplace, 345
template parameter, 668	emplace_back, 345
template specialization, 708	emplace front, 345
using directive, 794	erase, 349
virtual function, 620	front,346
scoped enumeration, 832, 864	insert,343
enum class, 832	pop_back, 348
Screen, 271	pop_front,348
pos member, 272	push back, 132
concatenating operations, 275	push back, 100 , 342, 545
do_display, 276	push_front,342
friends, 279	resize, 352
get, 273, 282	value type,333
get_cursor, 283	performance characteristics, 327
Menu function table, 840	priority_queue,371
move, 841	queue, 371
move members, 275	stack, 370
set, 275	value initialization, 336
search, 872	vector, 326
search_n,871	set, 420 , 448
seed, random-number engine, 748	see also ordered container
seekp, seekg, 763-768	bitset,727
self-assignment	header, 420
copy and swap assignment, 519	insert,431
copy assignment, 512	iterator,429
explicit check, 542	key_type requirements, 425
HasPtr	list initialization, 423
reference counted, 515	lower_bound,438
valuelike, 512	TextQuery class, 485
Message, 523	upper_bound,438
move assignment, 537	word_count program, 422
pitfalls, 512	set_difference,880
StrVec,528	set_intersection,647,880
semicolon (;), 3	set symmetric difference, 880
class definition, 73	set_union,880
null statement, 172	setfill, manipulator, 759
separate compilation, 44, 80, 252	setprecision, manipulator, 756
compiler options, 207	setstate, stream, 313
declaration vs. definition, 44	setw, manipulator, 758
templates, 656	shared_ptr, 450 , 450-457, 464-469, 491
sequential container, 326, 373	* (dereference), 451

copy and assignment, 451	data member, 157
definition, 450	sizeof, parameter pack, 700
deleter, 469, 491	skipws, manipulator, 760
bound at run time, 677	sliced, 603, 650
derived-to-base conversion, 630	SmallInt
destructor, 453	+ (addition), 588
dynamically allocated array, 480	conversion operator, 580
exception safety, 467	smart pointer, 450 , 491
factory program, 453	exception safety, 467
initialization, 464	pitfalls, 469
make_shared,451	smatch, 729 , 733, 769, 770
pitfalls, 469	prefix,736
reset, 466	provide context for a match, 735
StrBlob, 455	suffix,736
TextQuery class, 485	sort, 384, 876
with new, 464	source file, 4, 27
short,33	specialization, see template specialization
short-circuit evaluation, 142, 169	splice, list, 416
&& (logical AND), 142	splice_after,forward_list,416
(logical OR), 142	sregex iterator,733,770
not in overloaded operator, 553	i before e program, 734
ShorterString, 573	sstream
() (call operator), 573	file marker, 765
shorterString, 224	header, 310, 321
showbase, manipulator, 755	off_type,766
showpoint, manipulator, 758	pos_type,766
shrink_to_fit	random access, 765
deque, 357	random IO program, 766
string, 357	seek and tell, 763–768
vector, 357	ssub_match, 733, 736 , 770
shuffle,878	example, 740
signed, 34 , 80	stable_partition,876
char,34	stable_sort, 387, 876
conversion to unsigned, 34, 160	stack, 370, 373
out-of-range value, 35	emplace, 371
signed type, 34	empty, 371
single-line (//), comment, 9, 26	equality and relational operators, 370
size	header, 370
container, 88, 102, 132, 340	initialization, 369
priority_queue,371	pop, 371
queue, 371	push, 371
returns unsigned, 88	sequential container, 370
stack, 371	size, 371
StrVec,526	swap, 371
size_t, 116 , 132, 727	top, 371
array subscript, 116	stack unwinding, exception handling, 773,
size_type, container, 88 , 102, 132, 332	818
SizeComp, 573	standard error, 6 , 27
() (call operator), 573	standard header, #include, 6, 21
sizeof, 156 , 169	standard input, 6, 27
array, 157	standard library, 5 , 27

standard output, 6, 27	stol,368
statement, 2, 27	stold, 368
block, see block	stoll,368
break, 190 , 199	store, free, 450 , 491
compound, 173 , 199	stoul, 368
continue, 191 , 199	stoull,368
do while, 189 , 200	str, string streams, 323
expression, 172 , 200	StrBlob, 456
for, 13 , 27, 185 , 185–187, 200	back, 457
goto, 192 , 200	begin, 475
if, 17 , 27, 175 , 175–178, 200	check, 457
labeled, 192 , 200	constructor, 456
null, 172 , 200	end, 475
range for, 91 , 187 , 187–189, 200	front, 457
return, 222 , 222–228	pop_back, 457
scope, 174	shared ptr,455
switch, 178 , 178–182, 200	StrBlobPtr, 474
while, 11 , 28, 183 , 183–185, 200	++ (increment), 566
statement label, 192	(decrement), 566
static (file static), 792 , 817	* (dereference), 569
static member	-> (arrow operator), 569
Account, 301	check, 474
	•
class template, 667	constructor, 474
accessed through an instantiation, 667	deref,475 incr,475
	•
definition, 667	weak_ptr,474
const data member, initialization,	strcat, 123
302	strcmp, 123
data member, 300	strcpy, 123
definition, 302	stream
default argument, 304	as condition, 15, 162, 312
definition, 302	clear, 313
inheritance, 599	explicit conversion to bool, 583
instantiation, 667	file marker, 765
member function, 301	flushing buffer, 314
nested class, 845	format state, 753
scope, 302	istream_iterator,403
static object, local, 205 , 252	iterator, 401 , 403–406, 418
static type, 601 , <i>650</i>	type requirements, 406
determines name lookup, 617, 619	not flushed if program crashes, 315
multiple inheritance, 806	ostream_iterator,403
static type checking, 46	random IO, 765
static_cast, 163, 163	rdstate,313
lvalue to rvalue, 691	setstate, 313
std, 7, 28	strict weak ordering, 425, 448
std::forward, see forward	string, 80, 84-93, 132
std::move, see move	see also container
stdexcept header, 194, 197	see also sequential container
stod, 368	see also iterator
stof, 368	[] (subscript), 93 , 132, 347
stoi,368	+= (compound assignment), 89

+ (addition), 89	alloc_n_copy,527
>> (input operator), 85, 132	begin,526
>> (input operator) as condition, 86	capacity,526
<< (output operator), 85, 132	chk_n_alloc,526
and string literal, 89–90	copy assignment, 528
append, 362	copy constructor, 528
assign, 362	default constructor, 526
at, 348	design, 525
C-style string, 124	destructor, 528
c_str, 124	emplace_back,704
capacity, 356	end, 526
case sensitive, 365	free, 528
compare, 366	•
	memory allocation strategy, 525
concatenation, 89	move assignment, 536
default initialization, 44	move constructor, 535
difference_type, 112	push_back,527
equality and relational operators, 88	move-enabled, 545
erase,362	reallocate, 530
find, 364	move iterator version, 543
find_first_not_of,365	size,526
find_last_not_of,366	subexpression, 770
find_last_of,366	subscript range, 93
getline, 87, 321	array, 116
header, 74, 76, 84	string,95
initialization, 84–85, 360–361	validating, 104
initialization from string literal, 84	vector, 105
insert,362	substr, string, 361
move constructor, 529	suffix, smatch, 736
numeric conversions, 367	sum, program, 682
random-access iterator, 412	swap, 516
replace, 362	array, 339
reserve, 356	container, 339
rfind, 366	container nonmember version, 339
subscript range, 95	copy and swap assignment operator
substr,361	518
TextQuery class, 485	priority_queue,371
string literal, 7, 28, 39	queue, 371
see also C-style string	stack, 371
and string, 89–90	typical implementation, 517–518
concatenation, 39	swap program, 223
stringstream, 321 , 321–323, 324	swap_ranges,875
initialization, 321	switch statement, 178, 178–182, 200
strlen,122	default case label, 181
struct	break, 179–181, 190
see also class	compared to if, 178
default access specifier, 268	execution flow, 180
default inheritance specifier, 616	variable definition, 182
StrVec, 525	syntax option type, regex, 730
[] (subscript), 565	synthesized
= (assignment), initializer_list,	copy assignment, 500 , 550
563	copy constructor, 497 , 550
505	copy constructor, 497, 000

copy control, 267	template function, see function template
as deleted function, 508	template parameter, 653 , 714
as deleted in derived class, 624	default template argument, 670
Bulk_quote,623	class template, 671
multiple inheritance, 805	function template, 671
virtual base class, 815	name, 668
virtual base classes, 815	restrictions on use, 669
volatile,857	nontype parameter, 654 , 714
default constructor, 263, 306	must be constant expression, 655
derived class, 623	type requirements, 655
members of built-in type, 263	scope, 668
destructor, 503 , 550	template argument deduction, 680
move operations	type parameter, 654, 654 , 714
deleted function, 538	as friend, 666
not always defined, 538	used in template class, 660
	template parameter pack, 699 , 714
<u>_</u>	expansion, 703
T	pattern, 703
\t (tab character), 39	template specialization, 707 , 706–712, 714
tellp, tellg,763-768	class template, 709–712
template	class template member, 711
see also class template	compare function template, 706
see also function template	compared to overloading, 708
see also instantiation	declaration dependencies, 708
declaration, 669	function template, 707
link time errors, 657	hash <key_type>,709,788</key_type>
overview, 652	headers, 708
parameter, see template parameter	of namespace member, 709, 788
parameter list, 714	partial, class template, 711, 714
template argument, 653 , 714	scope, 708
explicit, 660 , 713	template<>,707
template member, see member tem-	template<>
plate	default template argument, 671
type alias, 666	template specialization, 707
type transformation templates, 684 ,	temporary, 62 , 80
714	terminate function, 773, 818
type-dependencies, 658	exception handling, 196, 200
variadic, see variadic template	machine-dependent, 196
template argument deduction, 678, 714	terminology
compare,680	const reference, 61
explicit template argument, 682	iterator, 109
function pointer, 686	object, 42
limited conversions, 679	overloaded new and delete, 822
low-level const, 693	test, bitset, 727
lvalue reference parameter, 687	TextQuery, 485
multiple function parameters, 680	class definition, 487
parameter with nontemplate type, 680	constructor, 488
reference parameters, 687–689	main program, 486
rvalue reference parameter, 687	program design, 485
top-level const, 679	query, 489
template class, see class template	revisited, 635

this pointer, 257 , 306	value initialization, 718
static members, 301	type
as argument, 266	alias, 67 , 80
in return, 260	template, 666
overloaded	alias declaration, 68
on const, 276	arithmetic, 32 , 78
on lvalue or rvalue reference, 546	built-in, 2 , 26, 32–34
throw, 193, 193 , 200, 772, 818	checking, 46 , 80
execution flow, 196, 773	argument and parameter, 203
pointer to local object, 774	array reference parameter, 217
rethrow, 776, 818	function return value, 223
runtime error, 194	name lookup, 235
throw(), exception specification, 780	class, 19 , 26
tie member, ostream, 315	compound, 50 , 50–58, 78
to_string,368	conversion, see conversion
Token, 849	dynamic, 601 , 650
assignment operators, 850	incomplete, 279 , 306
copy control, 851	integral, 32 , 79
copyUnion, 851	literal, 66
default constructor, 850	class type, 299
discriminant, 850	specifier, 41, 80
tolower, 92	static, 601 , 650
top	type alias declaration, 68 , 78, 80
priority_queue,371	pointer, to array, 229
stack, 371	pointer to function, 249
top-level const, 64, 80	pointer to member, 839
and auto, 69	template type, 666
argument and parameter, 212	type independence, algorithms, 377
decltype,71	type member, class, 271
parameter, 232	type parameter, see template parameter
template argument deduction, 679	type transformation templates, 684 , 714
toupper, 92	type_traits,685
ToyAnimal, virtual base class, 815	type_info,864
trailing return type, 229 , 252	header, 197
function template, 684	name, 831
lambda expression, 396	no copy or assign, 831
pointer to array, 229	operations, 831
pointer to function, 250	returned from typeid, 827
transform	type traits
algorithm, 396, 874	header, 684
program, 442	remove_pointer,685
translation unit, 4	remove_reference,684
trunc (file mode), 319	and move, 691
try block, 193 , 194, 200, 773 , 818	type transformation templates, 685
tuple, 718 , 770	typedef, 67 , 80
findBook, program, 721	const, 68
equality and relational operators, 720	and pointer, to const, 68
header, 718	pointer, to array, 229
initialization, 718	pointer to function, 249
make_tuple,718	typeid operator, 826 , 827, 864
return value, 721	returns type_info, 827

typeinfo header, 826, 827, 831	multi-byte, istream, 763
typename	single-byte, istream, 761
compared to class, 654	unget, istream, 761
required for type member, 670	uniform_int_distribution,746
template parameter, 654	uniform_real_distribution,750
	uninitialized, 8 , 28, 44 , 80
U	pointer, undefined behavior, 54
	variable, undefined behavior, 45
unary operators, 134 , 169	uninitialized_copy,483
overloaded operator, 552	move iterator, 543
unary predicate, 386, 418	uninitialized_fill,483
unary_function deprecated, 579	union, 847 , 864
uncaught exception, 773	anonymous, 848 , 862
undefined behavior, 35, 80	class type member, 848
base class destructor not virtual, 622	assignment operators, 850
bitwise operators and signed values,	copy control, 851
153	default constructor, 850
caching end() iterator, 355	deleted copy control, 849
cstring functions, 122	placement new, 851
dangling pointer, 463	definition, 848
default initialized members of built-	discriminant, 850
in type, 263	restrictions, 847
delete of invalid pointer, 460	unique, 384, 878
destination sequence too small, 382	list and forward_list,415
element access empty container, 346	unique_copy,403,878
invalidated iterator, 107, 353	unique_ptr, 450 ,470-472,491
missing return statement, 224	* (dereference), 451
misuse of smart pointer get, 466	copy and assignment, 470
omitting [] when deleting array, 479	definition, 470, 472
operand order of evaluation, 138, 149	deleter, 472, 491
out-of-range subscript, 93	bound at compile time, 678
out-of-range value assigned to signed	dynamically allocated array, 479
type, 35	initialization, 470
overflow and underflow, 140	pitfalls, 469
pointer casts, 163	release, 470
pointer comparisons, 123	reset,470
return reference or pointer to local	return value, 471
variable, 225	transfer ownership, 470
string invalid initializer, 361	with new, 470
uninitialized	unitbuf, manipulator, 315
dynamic object, 458	unnamed namespace, 791, 818
local variable, 205	local to file, 791
pointer, 54	replace file static, 792
variable, 45	unordered container, 443, 448
using unconstructed memory, 482	see also container
using unmatched match object, 737	see also associative container
writing to a const object, 163	bucket management, 444
wrong deleter with smart pointer, 480	hash <key_type>specialization,709</key_type>
underflow_error,197	788
unformatted IO, 761 , 770	compatible with $==$ (equality), 710
istream,761	key_type requirements, 445

override default hash, 446	const and constexpr, 76
unordered map, 448	default argument, 238
see also unordered container	function declaration, 207
* (dereference), 429	#include, 21
[] (subscript), 435, 448	inline function, 240
adds element, 435 at, 435	inline member function definition 273
definition, 423	template definition, 656
header, 420	template specialization, 708
list initialization, 423	using =, see type alias declaration
word_count program, 444	using declaration, 82 , 132, 793 , 818
unordered_multimap,448	access control, 615
see also unordered container	not in header files, 83
* (dereference), 429	overloaded function, 800
definition, 423	overloaded inherited functions, 621
has no subscript operator, 435	scope, 793
insert, 433	using directive, 793 , 818
list initialization, 423	overloaded function, 801
unordered multiset, 448	pitfalls, 795
see also unordered container	scope, 793, 794
insert, 433	name collisions, 795
iterator, 429	utility header, 426, 530, 533, 694
list initialization, 423	dell'i e y ficadel, 120, 550, 550, 551
override default hash, 446	
unordered_set, 448	V
see also unordered container	valid, program, 740
header, 420	valid but unspecified, 537
iterator, 429	valid pointer, 52
list initialization, 423	value initialization, 98 , 132
unscoped enumeration, 832, 864	dynamically allocated, object, 459
as union discriminant, 850	map subscript operator, 435
conversion to integer, 834	new [], 478
enum, 832	resize, 352
unsigned, 34, 80	sequential container, 336
char, 34	tuple, 718
conversion, 36	uses default constructor, 293
conversion from signed, 34	vector, 98
conversion to signed, 34	vector, 90 value type
literal (numu or numu), 41	associative container, 428, 448
size return type, 88	sequential container, 333
* *	
unsigned type, 34	valuelike class, copy control, 512
unwinding, stack, 773, 818	varargs, 222
upper_bound	variable, 8 , 28, 41 , 41–49, 80
algorithm, 873	const, 59
ordered container, 438	constexpr,66
used in Basket, 632	declaration, 45
uppercase, manipulator, 755	class type, 294
use count, see reference count	define before use, 46
user-defined conversion, see class type con-	defined after label, 182, 192
version	definition, 41, 45
user-defined header, 76–77	extern,45

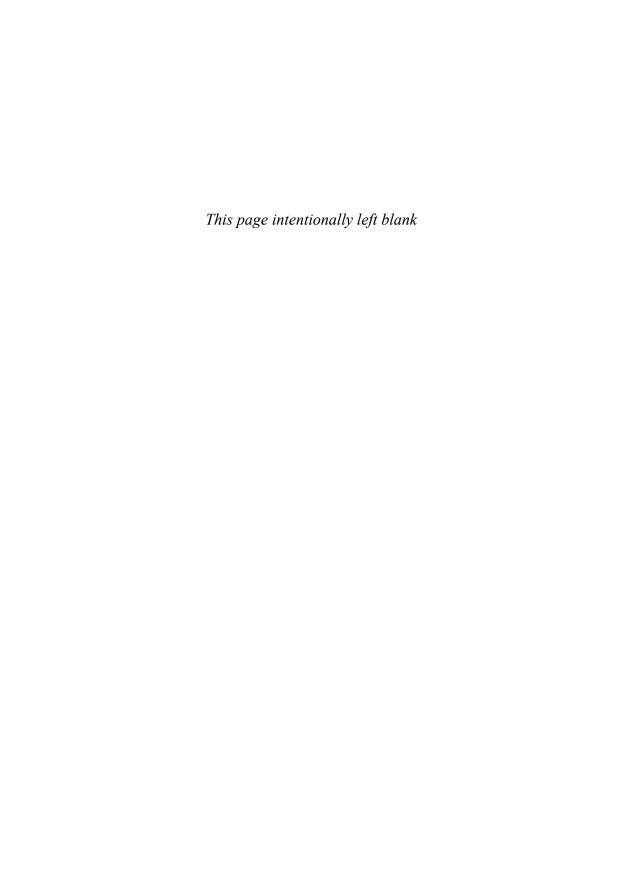
extern and const, 60	order of initialization, 814
initialization, 42, 43, 79	ostream,810
is Ivalue, 533	Raccoon, 812
lifetime, 204	ToyAnimal,815
local, 204 , 252	ZooAnimal,811
preprocessor, 79	virtual function, 592, 595, 603-610, 650
variadic template, 699, 714	compared to run-time type identifi-
declaration dependencies, 702	cation, 829
forwarding, 704	default argument, 607
usage pattern, 706	derived class, 596
function matching, 702	destructor, 622
pack expansion, 702–704	exception specification, 781
parameter pack, 699	final specifier, 607
print program, 701	in constructor, destructor, 627
recursive function, 701	multiple inheritance, 807
sizeof,700	overloaded function, 621
vector, 96-105, 132, 373	override, 595, 650
see also container	override specifier, 593, 596, 606
see also sequential container	overriding run-time binding, 607
see also iterator	overview, 595
[] (subscript), 103 , 132, 347	pure, 609
= (assignment), list initialization, 145	resolved at run time, 604, 605
at,348	return type, 606
capacity,356	scope, 620
capacity program, 357	type-sensitive equality, 829
definition, 97	virtual inheritance, see virtual base class
difference_type,112	Visual Studio, 5
erase, changes container size, 385	void, 32 , 80
header, 96, 329	return type, 223
initialization, 97–101, 334–337	void*, 56 , 80
initialization from array, 125	conversion from pointer, 161
list initialization, 98, 336	volatile, 856 , <i>864</i>
memory management, 355	pointer, 856
overview, 326	synthesized copy-control members,
push_back, invalidates iterator, 354	857
random-access iterator, 412	vowel counting, program, 179
reserve,356	
subscript range, 105	W
TextQuery class, 485	VV
value initialization, 98, 336	wcerr,311
viable function, 243, 252	wchar_t,33
see also function matching	literal, 40
virtual base class, 811, 818	wchar_t streams, 311
ambiguities, 812	wcin, 311
Bear, 812	wcout, 311
class derivation list, 812	weak ordering, strict, 448
conversion, 812	weak_ptr, 450 , 473-475, 491
derived class constructor, 813	definition, 473
iostream, 810	initialization, 473
name lookup, 812	lock, 473
order of destruction, 815	StrBlobPtr,474

```
wfstream, 311
what, exception, 195, 782
while statement, 11, 28, 183, 183-185, 200
    condition, 12, 183
wide character streams, 311
wifstream, 311
window, console, 6
Window mgr, 279
wiostream, 311
wistream, 311
wistringstream, 311
wofstream, 311
word, 33, 80
word_count program
    map, 421
    set, 422
    unordered map, 444
word transform program, 441
WordQuery, 637, 642
wostream, 311
wostringstream, 311
wregex, 733
write, ostream, 763
wstringstream, 311
         X
```

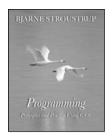
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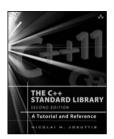
ZooAnimal program, 802 virtual base class, 811



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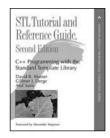
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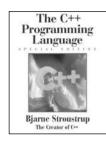
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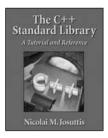
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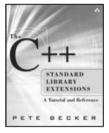
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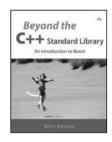
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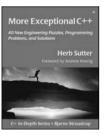
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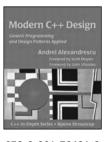
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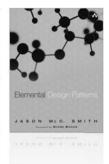
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